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3° ICHSS 2013

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About the Conference

The 3° ICHSS 2013 is organized by MCSER-Mediterranean Center of Social and Educational Research. The conference addressed all studies across the social and human sciences. In the spirit of interdisciplinary interchange, there was no specific topic but the Conference has involved scholars, teachers and researchers working in a broad range of areas including: Education, Anthropology, Applied Sciences, Behavioral Sciences, Cognitive Science, Literature, Language, Communications, History, Economics, Environmental Sciences, Health Sciences, Humanities, Interdisciplinary Studies, Law, Management, Media, Politics, Public Policy, Psychology, Qualitative Methods, Quantitative Methods, Social Welfare, Sociology, Technology, Geography and many other areas related to the social and human sciences. The conference provides an opportunity for academicians and professionals from various social and human fields all over the world to come together and learn from each other. An additional goal of the conference is to provide a place for academicians and professionals with cross-disciplinary interests to meet and interact with members inside and outside their own particular disciplines. The third edition of the ICHSS is held in Rome on September 20-22, 2013, in the Congress Center of Gregorian Pontifical University of Rome.

Vision of the conference

The 3° ICHSS is a global annual event with the mission of furthering the advancement and innovation in human and social sciences. The Conference serves as a means to connect and engage professors, researchers, consultants, innovators, managers, students, policy makers and others to offers an opportunity to meet and share ideas. It also inspire a new generation of global scientists and leaders in countries around the world.

Co-Partners

The Conference is organized by Mediterranean Center of Social and Educational Research in collaboration with Sapienza University of Rome; African Society for the Scientific Research (ASSR); African Association for Teaching and Learning; Brainboosters Programme of South Africa; Universidad Azteca, Mexico;

Publications

All papers presented in the 3° ICHSS 2013 will be published in the following Journals:

Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences
Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies
Journal of Educational and Social Research
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Utilization of Locally Made Resources in Early Childhood Education to Promote Effective Learning and Communicative Competence

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Abstract

It has been realized by educators that the future of every society depends on laying a sound foundation for the children in early years of life. It therefore becomes imperative that appropriate and meaningful educational experiences be offered to these children. This study looked into the utilization of locally made resources in the early years of children education for effective teaching and learning and communicative competence development. Descriptive survey design was used and questionnaire was the instrument used for data collection. Five schools were randomly selected from each of the six education districts of Lagos state, Nigeria, and ten respondents were selected from each school. The population of the study comprises all the employees in all early childhood education and sample population was 300 early childhood teachers of mixed sex. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics namely frequency and percentage. The study found that most of the teachers on early childhood education were not exposed to training programmes which would help to enhance their knowledge of utilizing locally made resources for teaching and learning. Recommendations were also made on how to promote the utilization of locally made resources for effective teaching and learning and communicative competence development in preschoolers.

Keywords: locally made materials, resource utilization, early childhood education, communicative competence

1. Introduction

Early childhood development is regarded as the basic education on which a country may build systematically. There is every need for expansion of early childhood development activities, exploration of all available instruments of information; communication and social action, to assist people acquire the minimum basic learning necessary for a better life. It is the society that dictates the content and standards of its education and such education starts from the early years of life with its underlying goals derived from the desire to support, stimulate and guide the developmental processes of the child in the direction of competence especially communicative competence. The ultimate purpose of an effective teaching and learning is to bring about learning on the part of the learner and the symbol of learning outcome is change in behaviour which is consequential to experience (Akande, 2002). Ekwueme and Igwe (2001) asserted that it is the teacher’s task to provide experiences which support, stimulate and structure children’s learning to bring about a progression and understanding appropriate to the child’s needs and abilities. It is therefore very important for the teacher to use teaching materials/aids to make teaching and learning simple, interesting, systematic, positively interactive and meaningful development of educational experiences especially communicative competences. Ekpo (2004) aptly declared that instructional materials are often used to compensate for the inadequacies of the sense organs or to reinforce the capacity of the dominant organs. They must be relevant for the realization of effective learning and the intentions of the curriculum.

The production of instructional materials had undergone several reviews and processes by experts from various fields. Olumorin (2009) emphasized that it is when original materials are not available for use in teaching and learning that other types and forms of instructional materials can be applied. For instance, in learning alphabets at preschool class in African setting, an imported chart with ‘A’ for Apple; ‘B’ for Balloon etc. are being used, but a locally produced chart that will reflect objects that can be easily seen in the child’s environment can be used. For instance, ‘A’ for Ant; ‘B’ for Basket; ‘C’ for Cutlass etc. It is against this background that the need to fashion out ways by which local resources to be used for developing instructional materials can be supported.

Instructional materials have been defined by various authors. Burner (1973) says that the teacher’s work as
communicator, model and identification figure can be supported by a wise use of variety of divides that expand experiences, clarify it and give it personal significance. Agun (1988) referred to instructional materials as learning materials, the proper use of which helps learners to learn faster and better. While Agina –Obu(2005) viewed it as a concrete or physical objects which provide sound, visual or both to the sense organs during teaching and learning. Hence, it is important for the development of communicative competence during the preschool years. Instructional materials will therefore include all forms of information carriers that can be used to promote and encourage effective teaching and learning activities. The instructional materials that teachers can use to improve the quality of instruction are inexhaustible. The teacher’s level of resourcefulness, creativity and imagination is in fact unlimited.

Communication refers to how we interact with others and language is used to present concepts and thoughts. Many children especially preschoolers communicate successfully using non-verbal means such as signing, gestures, communication books, and communication equipment that entails locally made instructional materials. This would help children to build social relationships which provide opportunities for friendship, empathy and sharing emotions. The ability to communicate helps children to participate more fully in the society. Early exposure to toys that facilitate symbolic play and the development of children’s fine motor skills has been shown to relate to receptive language skills(Tomopoulous,Dreyers,Tamis-leMonda,Flynn;Rovia&Tineo,2006).

Communicative competence was described by Light (1997) as being able to meet the changing demands and to fulfill one’s communication goal across the lifespan. For example, infants communicate primarily to express wants and needs and to develop social closeness, while school-aged children need the means and skills to meet all the four communication goals which include expressing wants and needs, developing social closeness, exchanging information, and fulfilling social etiquette routine. Similarly, locally made instructional materials should continue undergoing developmental processes until they can communicate the same goals in the early childhood education just as imported ones. Rowland and Schwieger(2010) found that most children experienced success with as little as fifteen minutes per day of instruction with the use of locally made materials. Romski and Seveik (1997) supported that children learn language skills while using locally made materials successfully. They affirmed that the importance of locally made materials in supporting access to and progress in the general curriculum, literacy skills in particular, and effective education cannot be underestimated. Klinert et al (2002) supported that without the use of locally made instructional materials; children do not have access to effective learning which is essential to participation in the school curriculum. According to Romski and Seveik (2005), locally made instructional materials facilitate communicative competence in young children. They added that using developmental perspective, locally made instructional materials can be reviewed as a tool that aids or fosters the development of early language skills and sets the stage for later vocabulary development. Most teachers do not use them, and thereby depriving the preschoolers the benefits in utilizing them. In some cases, there are no teaching aids to enhance teaching and even the teachers do not possess the skills to improvise locally made materials to enhance learning and communicative competence among the preschoolers. This study tried to find out whether utilization of locally made instructional materials has any implication for effective teaching and learning and communicative competence development in the early childhood education.

2. Statement of Problem

Educational activities especially in the early childhood education are based on the problems and opportunities that exist in a given environment and the materials for teaching in terms of learning experiences derived from the environment (Tomopoliious, et al, 2006). Educators have discovered that there is a subtle relationship between the effect of the environment on children and the study by children. Therefore, systematic attention should be given to creating a stimulating environment for the psychosocial development of the young children. Activities should also be tailored to the local context and should aim both to draw and to strengthen the resources available in the family and the community. Considering all the above, teaching and learning instructional materials should be used to make teaching and learning during the early childhood years simple, interesting, systematic, positively interactive and meaningful educational experiences. The value of teaching materials/aids in the educational process especially in the early year’s education cannot be over-emphasized that even improvisation should be made whenever they are lacking. It has been indicated that the use of locally made materials is beneficial to the development of the early preschoolers. These materials may be available in some schools but their implications depend on the effective utilization by the teacher. In some cases they may not be available and the teacher having no knowledge of improvisation should ignore using them during teaching and learning and this will mar the efficiency of the education process and hinders the appropriate development of the child’s communicative competence. When there is a short fall in the availability of instructional materials, most teachers are unable to improvise with what is available in their environment in order to effectively drive home lessons taught, and
improve communicative competence in early childhood learners. This study therefore set out to investigate whether utilization of locally made instructional materials will help to improve effective teaching and learning and promote communicative competence development in early childhood learners.

3. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to assess the level of utilization of locally made instructional materials in the early childhood education. Specifically the study examined the level of locally made instructional materials utilization in early childhood education in respect to the following:

1. Its implication for promoting effective teaching and learning in the early years of education.
2. Its impact on the development of communicative competence in the early childhood learners.
3. Early childhood teachers’ knowledge and skills about the utilization of locally made instructional materials.

4. Research Questions

1. To what extent would the utilization of locally made materials help to enhance effective teaching and learning in early childhood education?
2. How does the effective implementation of available locally made instructional materials promote communicative competence among the early childhood learners?
3. To what extent do early childhood teachers possess the knowledge and skills about utilization of locally made instructional materials?

5. Methodology

5.1 Research design

This study adopted a descriptive survey research design. This method was deemed the most appropriate design for this study because it involves selecting chosen samples from a large population to discover the relative incidence distribution and interrelations of some important variables.

5.2 Population and Sample

The population comprised all teachers and proprietors of early childhood education in Lagos, Nigeria. In selecting the respondents, a multi-stage random sampling procedure was employed in the study. A sampling frame of all the Local Government Areas (LGAs) in Lagos was drawn and stratified into urban and rural areas. Using Probability Proportional to Size (PPS) sampling technique, two rural and four urban Local Government Areas in Lagos State were selected. A sample frame of all the registered early childhood nursery schools with Lagos State Ministry of Education was drawn from six education districts; thereafter; five schools were randomly selected from each of the six education districts to give a total number of thirty schools. In selecting the schools two criteria were considered: The schools must be registered with the Lagos State Ministry of Education and must have started their preschoolers since last three years. Nine teachers of early childhood education and a proprietor/principal each were selected from the 30 selected schools. In all, a total of 300 respondents formed the sample size.

5.3 Instrumentation

A Questionnaire titled Utilization of Locally Made Resources in Early Childhood Education to promote Effective Learning and Communicative Competence and a checklist constructed by the researchers was the major instrument for data collection. The questionnaire was divided into two sections: A and B. Section A contains the demographic information of the respondents while section B is a close ended questions based on the Likert’s 4 point scale measurement (Agreed, Strongly Agreed, Disagreed and Strongly Disagreed) with few open ended questions designed in line with the objective of the study.
5.4 Validation of Instruments

The face validity of the instrument was carried out by experts/colleagues in the field of Early Childhood and Language education; thereafter a pilot study was later conducted with 50 students from a different preschool school which was not part of the study group to revalidate the instrument. With respect to reliability of the instrument, cronbach alpha method was used and the reliability yielded a coefficient of 0.80.

5.5 Procedure for Data Collection

With the help of trained research assistants, the researchers administered the instruments to the subjects in their various Early childhood Nursery schools. Out of the 300 copies of questionnaire, 285 were completely filled and retrieved from the respondents for analysis giving a 95% return rate. The questionnaire administration lasted for 4 weeks.

6. Data analysis and Discussion of Findings

The data were analyzed with descriptive statistics involving the use of frequency counts, percentages mean and chart.

6.1 Results

Table: Quality of Teaching Personnel in Early Childhood Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
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<tr>
<td>Grade II Certificate</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>52.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCE</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>19.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Ed./M.Ed</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>14.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGDE</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Sc./B.A./M.Sc etc</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>100.01</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No of seminars/training</th>
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<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>70.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2times per annum</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>17.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4 times per annum</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 4 times per annum</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>100.00</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience in the present school</th>
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<tr>
<td>Less than 5 years</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>52.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 5 and 10 years</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>35.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years and above</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the quality of teaching personnel in most early childhood nursery schools in Lagos, Nigeria. The result shows that 10.53% of the respondents have degrees and master degrees in Education, 14.04%, B.Sc/M.Sc. Also, 3.51% of the respondents also have postgraduate Diploma in Education while those with NCE and Grade two Certificates have 19.30% and 52.63% respectively. Similarly, with regards to number of seminars and trainings on the pedagogical improvement attended in the past two years, 70.18% of the respondents consented that they have never attended any kind of training/seminar in respect to their job in the past 3years, 17.54% attended between 1-2times per annum, 7.02% attended between 3-4 times while those that have attended more than four times represent only about 5.26% of the sampled population.

Finally on the question regarding the teaching experience of the respondents for the study, only 12.28% of the
respondents have been in the job for more than 10 years, 35.09% between 5-10 years, 12.28% of the respondents have taught for less than five years.

Table 2: Utilization of Locally Made Instruction Materials and Its Implication on school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F (%)</th>
<th>F (%)</th>
<th>F (%)</th>
<th>F (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Facilities are provided for locally made instructional materials</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Inadequate professionally trained early childhood educators as a problem to the use of locally made instructional material</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Utilization of locally made instructional materials can promote communicative competence in the preschoolers</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. All early childhood educators are aware that locally made instructional materials promoting teaching efficiency and learning effectiveness in the preschoolers</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Early childhood teachers know that locally made instructional materials provide a link between the child and nature</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Financial constraint means the use of locally made instructional materials in the early childhood education</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>10</td>
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Keys: N=390, 4=Agreed, 3=Strongly Agreed, 2=Disagreed, 1=Strongly disagreed

Table 2 above presents the result of utilization of locally made instructional materials to promote effective teaching and learning and communicative competence development among the preschoolers in early childhood nursery schools in Lagos - Nigeria. The data revealed that only 8.77% of the sampled population agreed that facilities are provided for locally made instructional materials, 12.28% strongly agreed, 26.32% disagreed while 52.63% strongly disagreed with the statement. This means that teachers of early childhood education cannot carry their duties out as supposed and thus is not in agreement with Ekwueme and Igwe (2001) who asserted that it is the teacher’s task to provide experiences which support, stimulate and structure children’s learning to bring about a progression and understanding appropriate to the child’s needs and abilities. They added that it is very important for the teacher to use teaching materials/aids to make teaching and learning simple, interesting, systematic, positively interactive and meaningful development of educational experiences especially communicative competences. Facilities are not provided for early childhood education which may impact learning and this agrees with Klinert et al (2002) who asserted that without the provision of locally made instructional materials children do not have access to effective learning which is essential to participation on the school curriculum. Similarly, with regards to the issue of training/seminars on the use of locally made instructional materials, only 12.28% of the respondents acknowledged and admitted that inadequate professional training constitute problem to the use of locally made instructional materials in the early childhood education,10.53% strongly agreed,21.05% disagreed while 56.14% strongly disagreed. With regards to the use of locally made instructional materials to promote communicative competence in early preschoolers, 63.16% agreed, 19.30% strongly agreed, 10.53% disagreed while 7.02% strongly disagreed, it concurs with Romski and Seveik (2005) who emphasized that locally made instructional materials facilitate communicative competence in young children and can also be reviewed as a tool that aids or fosters the development of early language skills. Again, regarding the issue of using locally made instructional materials to promote effective teaching and learning in the early years of learning, 42.11% agreed, 46.61% strongly agreed, 5.26% disagreed, while 5.31% strongly disagreed and this agrees with Ekpo (2004) who aptly declared that instructional materials are often used to compensate for the inadequacies of the sense organs and that they must be relevant for the
realization of effective learning and the intentions of the curriculum. On the issue of locally made instructional materials providing link with nature in early childhood learners, 40.35% agreed, 50.88% strongly agreed, 5.26% disagreed, while 3.51% strongly disagreed. Finally, with regards to financial constraint marring the use of locally made instructional materials, none of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement, 3.51% disagreed, 49.12% agreed, while 43.37% strongly agreed.

7. Recommendations

In order to maximize educational opportunities, children who must have come to preschool with use of symbolic language should be concretized with locally made instructional materials/teaching aids. Hence, preschoolers should be taught with locally made instructional materials for them to be able to participate fully in early childhood education and also to be able to develop and achieve communicative competence that is clear, meaningful, culturally and linguistically appropriate.

There should be training and re-training of early childhood education teachers on the utilization of locally made instructional materials for the effective teaching and learning and communicative competence development of early childhood learners. This will help to promote the realization of the essence and importance of utilizing these resources.

Proprietors/head teachers should conceive the utilization of locally made instructional materials and training on how to use them as high priority activity and thus create a good opportunity for their teachers to benefit. Thus, their efforts and contribution would likely enhance results in the effective teaching and learning and communicative competence development in the early childhood education.

References


Corporate Bonds - The New Frontier for Corporates in Albania

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Abstract

Despite the fact that the Albanian economy and its business & banking system weathered an indirect shock, in the course and in the aftermath of the global financial and economic crisis of 2008, it revealed the characteristic phenomenon of cartel-like financing, of the economy and Albanian companies, by the banking system. This source of financing, as derived from an oversized and wholly bank–based economy, conveys all the issues and risks, accompanying the banking system activity, towards companies as borrowers, especially in times of economic contraction, in the form of tightened lending terms & conditions and lacking cost-effective and competitive financing terms. This paper addresses the importance of corporate bonds as a long-term source of finance and proposes their issuance, as a still-absent, but efficient & competitive alternative source of financing, for medium and large-sized enterprises in Albania, given the first signs of an emerging interest for bonds' public issuance. Also, theoretical and practical advantages, regarding corporate bonds’ issuance, are mentioned in the paper, which could be easily energized and implemented by Albanian companies, in the frame of the existing legal environment in Albania.

Keywords: Corporate bonds, bond financing, bad loans, collateral enforcement.

1. Introduction

Foreclosure, or the collateral enforcement is described as an extreme act of a bank, in the course of its practical inability to collect its problem loans, by its clients who have stopped paying and honoring their respective contractual obligations.

This kind of phenomenon was not frequent, just a couple of years ago in Albania, but it has become a real issue, the Albanian business has to live up with and shall be faced with, now and on. This thorny issue, when combined with effects and aftershocks of global financial crisis and tightening credit conditions by the whole banking system, has already placed corporates in Albania in a position, where it must confront a real challenge, in the course of obtaining sustainable mid and long-term funding sources.

2. Lending to businesses during 2009-2012: A total dependence from the banking system

The year 2009 was the first year the Albanian economy, its banking system and businesses were faced with the shockwaves effects of global and financial crisis. It is a well-known fact that, although being indirectly hit from the global economic and financial crisis, and notwithstanding the dynamic intervention by Bank of Albania in preserving the financial health of the Albanian banking system, the business, could not avoid "a conservative stance of banks in lending and by the economic activity slowdown" (Bank of Albania, 2009).

“In the first months, banks significantly tightened the lending terms, first in response to a difficult and uncertain liquidity position induced by deposit withdrawal and panic in international financial markets at the end of 2008. The ever more conservative stance of banks reflected the concern about ongoing decline in the loan portfolio quality. Lending terms remained tightened in the following months, though at lower rates. In the second half of the year, the tightened lending standards and the economic activity slowdown triggered the decline in credit demand” (Bank of Albania, 2009).

The institutional stance expressed by Bank of Albania unfurls two key effects, the global financial crisis produced
and marked on the Albanian economy and business: (1) an increasing portfolio of problem loans, and (2) an en bloc tightening of credit conditions, by the banking system. Logically, both effects are interchangeably positioned as each other’s cause-and-effect, respectively.

1. Although “the increase of problem loans during 2009 and on was inevitable, following the explosive growth of bank lending during 2003-2008” (Meka & Filipi, 2010), it was not the only contributor in producing such a surge in this figure. Additionally, the sharp contraction of new loan applications, especially by businesses, caused the denominator’s growth to lag behind the respective growth in problem loans, themselves. This intensified the bad rate further, thus pushing banks toward more tightened loan terms and conditions.

By being indirectly integrated with global financial market and economy through the real economy and international trade network, was easily understandable that, initially Corporate Albania met with the economic shocks of global financial crisis quite tangentially. But as the first shockwaves of 2008 left Albanian economy quite intact, the aftershocks would be inevitable. These global crisis shockwaves, would be materialized in the form of falling domestic consumption, either for durable or non-durable goods, dwindling liquidity, steady decline of remittances, as well as a slowing pace of investments in machines & equipment (see Exhibit 1 and Chart 1, in Annex 1), which normally are intended to support an overall growing of business activity (mainly manufacturing and service sector).

All these (macroeconomic) factors, substantially impacted by the global financial and economic crisis, have inevitably deteriorated Albanian borrowers’ repayment ability, therefore increasing problem loans (See Exhibit 2 in Annex 1).

2. The above mentioned increase in problem loans witnessed an aggravated business solvency, thus increasing the credit risk within the banking system and in the same time, triggered a simultaneous and automatic “protection” mechanism of the entire banking system, in the form of immediate tightening of lending terms and conditions by commercial banks, thus acting as a simultaneous “cause and effect” mechanism (problem loans & tightened lending terms & conditions).

In the frame of the outbreak of global economic and financial crisis, this banking system’s behavior was more than justified, but bringing this behavior in front of ongoing funding needs by Albanian economy and businesses, it ended up being a typical cartel-like financing behavior, since business financing is a quasi-exclusive domain of commercial banks, given the model under which, the Albanian financial system is developed and structured. Practically, the banking system is almost the sole provider for business (external) financing, as the share of banking intermediation and banking assets, within financial system, goes beyond 94% (see Chart 2, in Annex 1). Thus, in the absence of alternative competing funding channels, other than bank (loan) financing, Albanian businesses were faced with “mandatory” acceptance of tightened conditions, offered in a concerted way by all banks, as well as the limited bank loan offer, throughout the period of 2009-2012. Therefore, businesses had no way out to raise capital and liquidity from sources, different in type and origin, with bank loans, which could have relaxed the impact of bank loans’ tightened conditions and global financial crisis shockwaves on financial system and real economy, too.

As per above, a mutually negative impact was evident among bank-business relationship; businesses continued to carry additional financial and non-financial costs, related to its mid and long-term financing, and banks, on the other side, are (and will be) obliged to absorb and weather, for some full years, the cost of still-increasing bad loans.

3. Risks accompanying the absent corporate bond market in Albania

Common sense and past evidence suggest that a sound credit and debt market strengthen the resilience of economies in the face of a crisis. On the contrary, erratic and haphazard borrowing by public and private institutions (especially in foreign currency and at short maturities) is often associated with financial fragility and ultimately costly financial crises…(Saidi, et.al, 2009). Too much reliance on bank loans or direct bond finance, however, exposes a firm to excessive risk of bankruptcy in the event of default (Goodfriend, 2005).

On the other hand, the existence of several large financial institutions, within financial system is fairly counterproductive and leads to a non-competitive financial system; “…in the case of Albanian financial system, which is almost entirely modeled around banks, has already concentrated all possible risks within banking system, thus contributing to establish a permanent systemic risk within it, with no way of possible diversifications on individual or market basis (Meka and Filipi, 2009)”.

Also, the economy is at risk of crisis due to excessive reliance on bank lending. Because banks are highly
leveraged institutions, the economy is much more vulnerable to a financial crisis than if more corporate borrowing had taken place in the bond market and the claims were held in well-diversified portfolios (Herring, Chatusripitak, 2000). Certainly, in the event that a banking crisis occurs, the damage to the real economy will be much greater than if investors had access to a well-functioning bond market and the financial restructuring process will be more difficult (Herring, Chatusripitak, 2000). Additionally, a heavy reliance on banks means a correspondingly heavy exposure to banking crises. And the consequence can be catastrophic for the real economy (Herring, Chatusripitak, 2000).

It is more than clear that the systemic risk is the paramount of all risks, the Albanian banking system (and the whole financial system) has to address right now, following characterized the oversized bank intermediation and quasi-inexistent private securities market (both equity and bond securities) in Albania. The prominence of this type of risk is always evident in periods of crisis in countries with significant bank-based systems. “The Asian crisis essentially demonstrated the systemic risk of an unbalanced financial structure, particularly with regard to an overreliance on bank credit and a lack of deep and liquid bond markets to supplement the banking system” (Eichengreen and Luengnaruemitchai, 2004).

Thus, the absence of the corporate bonds market makes the systemic risk within banking system quite an endemic phenomenon. Therefore, it is an imperative for the business (Corporate Albania) identifying and finding new fundraising ways and opportunities, to finance its long-term investment needs. One of them could be the issuance of corporate bonds, as a practical and efficient funding alternative, not only for companies, but also for banks, themselves.

4. Financing through corporate bonds – a new frontier in the financing alternatives for companies

Corporate bond issuance and its respective use and trading is widely known as one of three forms of external financing of economic activity of a company, along with bank lending and stock issuance. If the last two alternatives are already well-known and used by Albanian businesses (although the first public stock offering is still waiting to make its maiden flight, joint stock companies do exist), what remains totally untapped within Corporate Albania’s reality, is the alternative of issuing corporate bonds.

So far, the absence of using this instrument as an alternative and competitive product to bank loan could be justified by the stage of economic development and the necessary time, to consolidate the bank loan instrument, within the mechanism of a functioning market economy in Albania. Notwithstanding this important element, some other essential elements have been instrumental in supporting such an absence, as follows:

1. The current stage of Albanian mid and large sized companies’ institutional and organizational status. Specifically, large-sized businesses in Albania are at the first stage of their development, in the context of Albanian economy, as a new capitalist economy. In this frame, they could be typically classified as growth companies, “which are also likely to choose private over public sources of debt because renegotiating a troubled loan with a banker (or a handful of private lenders) will generally be much easier than getting hundreds of widely dispersed bondholders to restructure the terms of a public bond issue (Barclay, Smith, and Watts 1999; Barclay and Smith 1999)”;

2. The ‘crowding out’ (effect) by FDI-supply (Lakova & Wagner, 2001), as the bulk of substantial foreign investments in Albania are originated and provided by companies, which are actually listed in their own country’s stock exchanges abroad, or with easy access into international capital markets (bond or stock markets). Almost all large companies (corporates) in Albania are product of the privatization process and the implementation of economic reform, which saw European companies privatizing these large ex-state-run companies. Logically, all the required investments were provided by parent companies.

3. Lack of possible ratings for these instruments by credit rating agencies and the respective costs accompanying the issuance process, as well as continuous obligations for financial disclosure. Albania still lacks an established capital market and several important market players and institutions, serving as catalysts in the process of providing Albanian corporates with necessary infrastructure and pipelines to ensure bond financing. Also, the lack of any practical example in bond issuance by a corporation in Albania makes bond’s cost information process complex and its respective issuance quite hesitant.

4. Absent role of non-bank financial institutions. These institutions are relatively new in the Albanian financial landscape and their role in the financial system is in the level of quasi non-existence (see Chart 2 in Annex 1). Their balance sheets are focused predominantly on short-term assets, thus reflecting the absence of long-term financial instruments, as well as the underdeveloped stage of securities market in Albania.

Apart from these factors, it should be noted that, the actual situation is quite suitable for Albanian companies to consider any bond issuance, given many positive and favorable considerations such a move could produce to them, in a
5. Theoretical and practical advantages & considerations

Diversification of financing sources of companies is a key rule of thumb. When it comes to use of debt, “the best alternative is to have a debt structure less sensitive to crises” (Fernandez, et.al, 2007). Additionally, as source of financing, bonds compensate the fluctuations in the overall supply of external funds. Even though bond financing is dependent on the economic cycle, it shows less pronounced cyclical patterns than bank loans (Davis, 2001).

Also, the existence and usage of corporate bonds constitutes a more gradual build up of loan repayment inability for companies (companies’ bad loans increase and accelerate bank’s provision fund significantly, as compared to individual’s bad loans), as they will, during periods of liquidity crunch, be primarily limited to coupon repayments, rather than adding up principal rollover, too (as in the case of loan repayment installment) (Meka & Filipi, 2010).

6. Legal considerations and the emergence of private offerings for bonds

Albania has already enacted the fundamental legal framework for corporate bonds (Law no. 10158, dated 15.10.2009 “On Corporate and Municipal Bonds”), which establishes the mainframe, allowing and entitling Albanian companies to issue various types of bonds. Surely, the legal framework may need any necessary add-ons, but it is deemed as a significant pillar in the road of issuing corporate bonds in Albania.

In this framework, Credins Bank is the first corporate in Albania to issue corporate bonds in late 2011 (Santo, 2012). This title is offered in the Albanian market through private placement. In terms of bond characteristics, its has a 6-year maturity, with fixed semi-annual coupon, but whereas the principal payment is made at the end of the maturity period, in the form of “bullet payment”. Recently, the bank has expressed the interest to issue bonds through a public offering, but the current legislation does not prescribe clear and exhaustive clauses about public offerings of securities by non-public companies (Credins Bank is a private company). This could hamper the Albanian private corporations to tap capital markets, especially the bond markets, as the most imminent segment of the capital market with potential positive developments in Albania.

7. The impact and importance of developing corporate bonds market

Bond issuance by Albanian companies would logically promote and bring about the commencement of a formal secondary market on these titles, thus reinforcing and adding up positive effects and bringing further advantages for the financial system, other markets, groups of interest and economic development in general. The advantages and positive aspects, the existence of this market could produce are numerous, but the most significant could be listed, as follows:

1. Reducing the relative size and specific weight of the banking sector within financial system, thus reducing some negative effects, caused by quasi-absolute dominance of this sector, such as:
   - concentration of decision-making on crediting remains in a few hands and financial power centers. Developing the bond market decentralizes this decision-making power, by transferring it in the hands of market forces, thus bringing more transparency and information,
   - creation of “crony capitalism”, since bad loans can often be kept from being written down for long periods with the government’s tacit or express approval - in contrast to the situation for corporate bond investors, who generally must face the music from the start (Hakansson, 1999),
   - lack of all-time efficient administration of funds collected through deposits. Banks in possession of bulging deposits need outlets for their funds. When demand is insufficient, the tendency is to “force” them on perhaps unwilling borrowers by easing the usual terms or by other means. This in turn tends to relax the borrower’s investment criteria, resulting in a low return on capital investments and on equity. Thus, excessive borrowing leads to excess capacity, which in turn converts many of the loans to bad ones (Hakansson, 1999),
   - systemic risk (as previously mentioned), since banks are institutions with extensive use of financial leverage. A functioning corporate bond market tends to balance this with the banking market, thus reducing this risk, in a more natural way.

2. From a macroeconomic perspective, the cash flow provided by bond securities correlate well with obligations of many institutional investors (banks, pension funds, and insurance companies, etc.) and helps such investors better match the maturity of their assets and liabilities and manage risks (Huang & Zhu, 2007),
3. Providing more investing options and alternatives for general public. Bonds are viewed as an opportunity for the investing public to diversify its savings on a wider range of investment alternatives, not only in the risk management perspective, but also in terms of channeling its savings into more productive investments, thus increasing social welfare.

4. Providing investment alternatives for pension funds and insurance companies, by enabling them to design and offer long-term saving and investment schemes & products;

5. Bond markets can constitute a transmission channel of monetary policy and perform an information function. The interest rate structures which emerge are determined by the development of bond markets, and are in turn a prerequisite for the development of bond markets (Fink et al., 2005),

6. The presence of the bond market provides the economy with a market-determined term structure of interest rates that accurately reflects the opportunity cost of funds at each maturity (Herring & Chatusripitak, 2000),

7. Banks could use corporate bonds as a new investment alternative and a bit different one from bank loan, as well as a good opportunity to yield some fees or offering value-added services for their clients in the securities market;

8. A market for direct debt also improves the incentive for banks to remain efficient and to innovate. By encouraging innovation, competition among banks and non-bank financial markets helps to improve the distribution of financial risk in the economy and lower the cost of external finance (Goodfriend, 2005),

9. Developing the bond market as a key component of the capital market, would establish a special funding alternative for important infrastructure projects, thus preventing and discouraging the export of capital abroad in the form of investment.

8. Conclusions

Companies in Albania are obliged to use the banking channel as the only funding source to finance their long term projects and activity. In this regard, they will, unavoidably, be faced with a cartel-like behavior by banks, without exploiting the opportunity of accessing cheaper funds, as compared to bank finance.

In the absence of bond markets, as part of capital markets, companies have to bear a big part of consequences deriving from the adjustment process, which usually follows any bank crisis situation, or complex situations within banking system, which heightens the systemic risk.

Actually, Albanian companies must consider corporate bond issuance as an important lever to ensure a sustainable and efficient financing for their own (long-term) activity. This could be a mutually profitable undertaking (business – banks), from the economic and financial standpoint, but in a broader picture, it could yield additional benefits, in the frame of developing the financial market and the overall economy in Albania. Finally, it could be of great help for them to increase their own negotiating power with banks, when it comes to long-term funding.

The Financial Supervision Authority (AMF) must consider taking legal and regulatory interventions to address the ambiguity which covers the issuance of corporate bond by private companies, thus enabling them to utilize the capital market for fresh funds.

References


Santo, A. (2012), „CORPORATE BONDS - The latest innovation in the Albanian banking system”, BANKIERI, Albanian Association of Banks, No.4, p.11.

Annex 1.

Exhibit 1: Credit to business in Albania, Q4 2008-Q3 2011 (ALL million)

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<td>Overdraft</td>
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<td>97.762</td>
<td>97.673</td>
<td>98.17</td>
<td>114.42</td>
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Source: Bank of Albania

Exhibit 2: Problem loans in Albania, Q4 2008 – Q4 2012 (in %)

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<td>14.7</td>
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<td>18.8</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>22.5</td>
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Source: Albanian Association of Banks (AAB) - (as per NAS - National Accounting Standards.)

Chart 1: Credit to Business Q4 2008 - Q3 2011

Source: Bank of Albania
Chart 2

Chart 31: Share of financial system entities in total assets

- Banking system assets
- Assets: Non-banks
- Assets: Insurance companies
- Pension funds
- SLAs

Source: Bank of Albania
Information Literacy in Top Schools of Business Evident to the Outside World?

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Abstract

Maintaining a competitive advantage in the business world has become an increasingly daunting task. As high-stakes big-business decisions raise equity in sections of the globe not seriously tapped before, companies look to their employees as assets to help make a difference. Those that are tasked with making unique and significant contributions to the bottom line are more often than not leaders who are equipped with a MBA from an accredited university. As much as having this type of credential may help graduates enter a new career, it does not necessarily indicate that they are equipped with the skills necessary to move a company into a higher tax bracket. The skills needed to obtain, decipher, analyze and plan around various pieces of vital information are fundamental aspects of information literacy. Is it safe to assume information literacy is part of the core curriculum of today’s top MBA programs? Is it even safe to assume information literacy is an overall element found in most American Universities? Even if the answers to both these questions were a resounding “yes,” how can we tell? The research conducted in this study examined the “search” functions on both Business and University-level web pages of institutions in U. S. News & World Report’s Top 25 MBA Programs to determine if the presence of information literacy could be confidently acknowledged. Along with examining the state of information literacy in business programs across the country through peer review, we hope to come to a conclusive determination of where present-day programs stand.

1. Literature Review

The current state of the Information Literacy literature across the globe shows a strong congruence of understanding and acceptance of this concept among various disciplines and stakeholders. LILAC, the Librarians Information Literacy Annual Conference, defines information literacy (IL) as the ability to “find, use, evaluate and communicate information” which is a “cornerstone of learning and an essential skill in this digital age and era of life-long learning” (LILAC, 2011, para. 3). Most would agree that professional organizations and media coverage of reports on IL research often demonstrate and remind users that these skills are essential for all, and are useful for work in a variety of occupations and fields. Similar definitions have been recognized as the essential “capacity to recognize the need for information, and then identify, access, evaluate and apply needed information. An information-literate person is a person who has learned how to learn” (Bundy, 2000, p. 5). The American Library Association (1989) also explains that IL is a set of skills mandating individuals to “recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information” (ALA, 2010, para. 2). As both examples above reiterate, information literacy states that a person is cognitive of the fact that they are able to decipher information appropriately, and knows when those skills are necessary to take advantage of the information for a variety of purposes. The businessman or businesswoman, in training for the profession just as a doctor or a lawyer, needs to obtain these information skills before moving onto the rigors of their chosen career. The tasks required of an ever-changing business career require, if not demand, an individual to become extraordinarily fluent in information literacy to produce results, sustain company growth, and increase revenue for shareholders. As one scholar noted “No graduate -- indeed, no person -- can be judged educated unless he or she is ‘information-literate’” (Candy, 1994, p. 102). The key term in this statement is the word “graduate.” Graduates need to have this ability under their belt if they can even begin to take full advantage of the MBA they have obtained.

Research in the use of information literacy within business student circles has considerably increased over the last 10 years. Earlier in this topic’s progression, scholars noted that “observation research studies have been conducted to determine the information-seeking behavior of users in various disciplines ranging from historians to scientists, but few studies identify the norms of behavior among business students in an academic environment” (Atkinson & Figueroa, 1997, p. 59). This type of examination is a relatively new area of study among those who monitor information literacy. How can this be? MBA programs have existed in universities for decades. Beyond the different veins of business
The ability to act and react based on information surely must be prominent in the most successful of programs. The burden may not be what the business school is providing but what the business community is asking for. Klusek and Bornstein (2006) note “research further demonstrates that despite the failure of the business community to embrace the concept of information literacy skills, IL skills are in fact highly valued in the field” (p. 19). Still others argue that perhaps these IL skills are just not being named properly by fields outside of librarianship. Yet research continues which acknowledges that some of this incredulous ambiguity can influence university values. Klusek (2006) argues that “when the business community does not explicitly acknowledge the importance of information literacy, faculty are slow to integrate the teaching of information literacy skills in their classes, and business schools do not build information literacy into their curriculum goals” (p. 7). It appears a paradox has been exposed. While James Culley noted as far back as 1977 that “students must become sophisticated researchers if they are to succeed in an information-sensitive business world” (p. 293), there seems to be no proactive -- or for that matter systematic -- commitment by the business community to require it of its MBA employees, even though it is still essential for success almost 30 years later.

While information literacy is an essential addendum of any university librarian’s Hippocratic Oath, there may be some confusion beyond the realm of campus life. The business community and higher education have what Klusek (2006) describes as the lack of a shared language. Corporations and businesses around the world have trouble even determining the difference between information literacy, library literacy, media literacy and technology literacy (Klusek, 2006, p. 4). The fact of the matter is that information literacy is neither library nor technology based at all. This confusion may lend credence to the theory that the business community may know what they want, but may be unable to adequately acknowledge what their modern high raking employees need in academic terms. The missing connection between academia and corporate stewardship may be the link to determining why information literacy is not highlighted in some MBA disciplines. The business community has some culpability in the lack of openly discussing their IL needs, but some blame may need to be shifted to the nature of information literacy as course content.

Applying information literacy to a business construct is not the simplest of feats to accomplish in this day and age. With many types of businesses inhabiting the global stage, it is quite easy to see how one industry’s needs may not parallel the next. This “similar but different” notion also greatly pertains to business information literacy. In other words, being information literate in one business area does not necessarily mean being information literate in another -- even if both can be categorized as essential business functions in every sense of the word. Business programs face this obstacle everyday. How can they possibly prepare a student to be ready for all the types of endeavors he/she face will face in a lifetime when there are literally thousands of professions a MBA degree can offer? The enormity of opportunity complicates information literacy efforts further. Lavin’s (1995) study found business information to be inherently abundant and diverse, while also being highly specialized and complex in terms of business resources & inquiries (p. 80). These quandaries have not only strained the curricula of business programs for years, but also put into question the explicit application of information literacy at all. Most scholars and librarians agree though, “as knowledge becomes outdated very quickly, students need information literacy skills to access, understand, and use current knowledge of their discipline…a graduate ‘cannot even be considered to be, even embryonically, a well-rounded person, unless he or she possesses a degree of information literacy’” (Feast, 2003, p. 81). The challenge seems to be derived from both business and school arenas, but what about those programs who have attempted to educate their business students specifically on information literacy, and calling at as such?

Exploring the values and tendencies of today’s students yields important information about positive and negative trends in the academic community. In terms of information literacy and the problems it poses to business students, scholarly work has uncovered some interesting understandings about those receiving this so-called IL instruction. The first revelation is that business students are extremely task-oriented as compared to students in the fields of social science & the humanities (Simon, 2009, p. 250). This frame of mind easily strays from the complexities which information literacy instruction can present. The theory that business students are extremely demanding of target information and not prone to browsing or discovery also complements these findings. Another revelation about business students is their uncanny ability to overrate their own IL abilities, in similar quantities to today’s general university populations. Even as far back as 1972, Lee and Read’s work on business students concluded that “confidence in one’s ability to use the library is not necessarily an indication of one’s real ability” (p. 406). Here, not only is there evidence that the business student lacks properly fostered research skills, but also there is data which shows that he/she believes in already having adequate knowledge to proceed with research-driven assignments.

Similarly, teamwork around information-seeking and decision-making is a skill needed throughout school and into professional life. A majority of life’s lessons, even beyond the business world, revolve around working together. Business students strongly believe in the idea of teamwork as it is promoted in many MBA programs (Atkinson 1997, pg. 69)). The problem with their teamwork in lieu of information literacy is the bastardization of the research assignment
itself. Many business students elect a “research specialist” to handle information gathering in a group project, when in reality, assignments within a team framework require an entire group to work simultaneously with their varied IL skills to extract the most benefit from the project. This finding compliments theories that state business students are looking for immediate trade-offs via time spent inquiring and researching (Atkinson 1997, p. 69). Potential issues in obtaining information immediately have been found to stir up dissonance in business students. As Atkinson (1997) expounds, “if the student’s expectations of an outcome do not match the actual retrieval, a form of dissonance may occur. Dissonance is defined as user recognition of the inability to achieve planned objectives” (p. 71). What may be more astounding is the rationale of contradictory messages from the faculty and curriculum of a business program itself - the push vs. the pull. The faculty and librarians constantly push the MBA student to use the available resources ready at their disposal to achieve maximum results. This emphasizes the major correlation to students between time and cost, as well as value (Atkinson, 1997, p. 69.). These competing forces, whether subconscious or not, strain the student’s connection to the time and work necessary to attain true information literacy. A familiar situation thus results, as students do the minimum needed to get the project done, at the expense of learning skills well which will serve them in their future career paths. The message of IL as practice leading to expertise in the student’s subject field is often thought to be so convoluted that “today’s business students knows far too little about literature of his/her profession” even with an MBA degree in hand (Culley, 1977, p. 293). Is it possible that thirty years of work on this problem has not yet produced results?

The role of establishing information literacy as a core aspect of a business student’s curriculum would usually be directed towards the caretakers of such knowledge, the university professors. These individuals develop coursework that intends to open an individual’s mind to the possibilities of future scenarios. The question needed to be posed is whether or not their teaching methods embrace the tools available which support information literacy. In a study by Fiegen et al. (2002) at California State University San Marcos, researchers examined collaborative techniques between librarians and faculty on information literacy, and startling results were unearthed. Their work concluded that “throughout the process, professors often indicated a sense of being overwhelmed by the vastness of the information literacy outcomes” (p. 314). How can students possibly be able to accept arguments validating proven information literacy practices when their professors, who have been studying business-related subject matter for the majority of that student’s natural life, are unable to grasp its capabilities? It appears as if these well-trained business-acclimated masters have just as much trouble as their apprentices in formulating business goals around information literacy matrixes. We must help the academics retain the public’s confidence in their ability to prepare future businesspeople, and help alleviate the pressure they feel at keeping up with business needs while not working themselves in these new environments.

Change, especially at the university level where professors are known to their students as the be-all/end-all of foundational knowledge, does not always yield itself to new ideas so gracefully. As with anyone, human pride and job security play a role here. Culley’s (1977) research uncovered a certain disposition amongst many professors in the early days of information literacy study. Many academics responded to librarian proposals by commenting, “I’m not going to get lousy student ratings by having my class do a library research project” (Culley, 1977, p. 296). This irony is not lost on modern users, either, although this comment came from business professors over thirty years ago. If simple research earlier can identify business students’ shortcomings in relation to information literacy, surely professors who interact with these students on a regular basis must recognize the magnitude of the problem so much so that they dismiss the idea of information literacy all together. It all may seem too overwhelming to tackle. The epidemic of uninformed business students may not be solely contingent upon student predisposition to avoid IL, but to professor stubborness, university bureaucracy, and public perception. In the mix, our shared goal of student skill development over time gets lost.

2. Methodology

The initial purpose of this research was to identify the presence of information literacy on graduate business school websites and their university level counterparts to determine areas of engagement in IL teaching and research. In October 2010, the researcher identified U. S. News & World Report’s Top 25 United States Master of Business Administration (MBA) programs of 2010, and located their main university presence on the World Wide Web. Over the course of several days within the same month, the homepages of each University’s main and graduate business school website were searched for evidence of information literacy activities. Upon finding the search box, the researcher and a partner independently entered a series of terms and compiled the number of hits received (see Table #1).

The terms information literacy (without quotes), information literacy (within quotes as a phrase) and literacy alone were entered as separate searches in the search boxes of the graduate business school and then of the university’s main site. All results were compiled and entered on a spreadsheet for data analysis. For the past 20 years, websites on the World Wide Web have become the virtual face of universities and companies alike. Websites can help promote, explain,
and display who an institution is and what their main values are. Additionally, websites help organizations reach a broader audience they otherwise would have trouble contacting. Initially, by conducting such research, the researcher hoped to magnify those MBA programs that appeared to embrace information literacy and pinpoint those that lack such a commitment. Google results pages thus provide a month-to-month snapshot of an organization’s web site, specifically those aspects of the organization which are meant to be seen by the outside world.

3. Results

3.1 Graduate Schools of Business Website Study

This pilot study of the top 25 business schools found the highest combined search results for Carnegie Mellon University with 1747. The school with the lowest IL search results was Dartmouth College with 2 hits. The average total result for all 25 schools was 208 hits. In searching the term “information literacy” (without quotes) the highest result came from Carnegie Mellon again with 870. The lowest result for the same search revealed Washington University at St. Louis with 1 hit. The average here was 101 hits, thus indicating information literacy returned in any near-word combination according to current Google settings. For the term “information literacy” (with quotes) the most hits came from Carnegie Mellon again with 870, thus indicating additional setting parameters. Searches of twenty of the twenty-five schools resulted in absolutely no hits at all for the phrase “information literacy.” The average across all schools of business was 35 hits (obviously skewed greatly by the Carnegie Mellon results, as discussed later). In regards to the term “literacy” as a single word, the top business school was Stanford University with 437. The same search resulted in two business schools with zero results, those being Dartmouth and the University of Texas at Austin. The 25 business schools here saw 72 results on average for the term literacy in any context on their business school websites.

3.2 University Website Study

The university website with the highest combined tally of hits for all information literacy searches of the entire university website was Columbia University with 11,744. The lowest recorded hits came from Dartmouth College with 238. The average of all 25 university websites was 1844. Searching under the specific term “information literacy” (without quotes) found the highest tally from Columbia again with 5550 hits and the lowest with Dartmouth again at 51 results. The average for this category was 778 hits per site. In terms of searching “information literacy” (with quotes as a phrase), the University of California at Berkeley listed the most with 397 results. The lowest result came from Washington University at St. Louis with 11 hits. The average here was 110 results. The term “literacy” alone found Columbia at the top again with 6160 and Dartmouth at the bottom with 159. The average university website count of results for this single term was 956 hits.

3.3 Combined Business School & University Website Information

The business school with the highest percentage of hits per total combined hits was Carnegie Mellon with 68.7 percent. This school was the only one of the top 25 that found a majority of its hits coming from its business school site as opposed to its university website. In fact, Carnegie Mellon’s business school had 33.2 percentage points more than the next business school, Stanford University at 35.5 percent, which was almost double the number of hits on these terms in any context. The business school with the lowest percentage of total university web hits was Washington University at St. Louis with 0.3 percent. The highest total business and university website hits came from Columbia University with 11,902 and the lowest from Dartmouth University with 240. The average total hits of both business and university websites for all 3 searches was 2052.

4. Analysis and Discussion

Naturally, any in-depth analysis of these search results must begin with a discussion of the search engine that drives these business school and university websites. And although the flaws of this methodology are clear, it is alarming that so many major U.S. universities do not display on their websites any details about information literacy as defined in and by librarianship. Google search engines are used on nearly every single one of these fifty university websites. When universities use Google, they are provided with a search engine that is able to accommodate fast and “good enough” queries of keyword counts, but at the expense of content and contextual matches. These are significant issues that need
to be brought up among those interested in properly marketing their IL successes and offerings. Many universities adopt the Google search engine for ease of use; while this is a familiar tool for users, the results are at times skewed due to pre-programmed frequencies, settings and algorithms. Nevertheless, universities with minimal mentions of IL will take note of this common searching feature and its potential to misrepresent their work.

If the user is not careful, the same result can be duplicated many times during a single search, as is the case with several of the results reported here. Certain searches cannot be distinguished from one another; in other words, many duplications of sites listed as “hits” occurred at various universities despite differing search terms. This presents even greater cause for alarm; if three or four page hits are returned from the same search -- which may in fact be the same exact web page with multiple uses of the terms in subsequent paragraphs -- then even fewer true mentions of information literacy activities are actually offered by these website counts. As with certain uses of the Google algorithm settings, while “information literacy” (with quotes) resulted in a certain number of hits, the same count was returned for “information literacy” (without quotes). What may be further troubling in this example is the neglect of the system to recognize quotations marks, completely undermining the integrity of countless searches, as well as revealing interesting staff choices and limitations of the engine itself.

The anomalies found in this study bring to light an issue that all other twenty-four schools experienced during this research. Most schools provided no more than 2 true search results of the term “information literacy” in quotes, and a majority did not have any at all. When searches were made with “information literacy” (without quotes) on the business school sites many revealed substantial instances of these terms near each other but not indicated as a phrase. Clearly, a basic search of this kind is disappointing even at the early stage of finding peers interested in IL efforts -- having the term “information” and “literacy” in a document does not necessarily mean they have any relation to each other. What becomes increasingly troubling is that these two words occupy the same lexicon in many disciplines; we must ask ourselves, how is it possible that a profession which organizes information allows its own advocacy to be diminished in this way? No matter how the searches were performed or how the results were analyzed, “information literacy” at the top universities returns paltry results at best.

The revelation of IL at university level web searches naturally would help foster a faculty and community opinion about its importance and usefulness across disciplines. If an institution as a whole is familiar with and open to a certain idea, but this idea is not found in all facets of its school culture, it would be safe to assume that many of those neither recognize nor accept it. Much of the present discussion confirms valid concerns about information literacy’s presence in business curriculum, and perhaps university-wide. However, these findings are hardly corroboration of the lack of IL at these institutions; simply put, we must make sure the outward representations of such work are not only clear but plentiful.

This study confirms one truth if no other-Google based search engines on university and business school websites have the potential to either greatly help or greatly harm our communication with present and potential constituents. Perhaps these schools are invested in long-term information literacy but standardize it under the guise of a different label. Possibly they do not feel comfortable exposing such proprietary characteristics of programs to fleeting passers-by. While our literature review discloses that the battles of information literacy are still being fought in today’s business schools, the websites reviewed do not reveal one way or another as to the present stake which business schools may have in IL. While micro searches may help users experience an institution quickly and easily, a concerted effort to make the online presence of IL skills as essential to success in various fields would provide exponential evidence of the worth of this concept to business schools and throughout the academy.

5. Conclusion

The search for comprehensive information literacy within the corridors of business institutions is still a topic of great debate. While the literature reveals that IL is still in its infancy by most accounts, the magnitude of information literacy both needed and used outside the classroom cannot be denied. Many business schools seem to have an idea of what IL can do for their students, yet they are either unable or unwilling to make the wholesale changes required for full incorporation. Librarianship has, for the most part, taken control of placing IL at the steps of other disciplines, having allowed and encouraged them to embrace it over time. Surety, a combination of efforts including curriculum reform, pedagogical change, and marketing approaches should continue, and librarians and educators should as well continue to seek those conditions which best exploit these synergies. If the contemporary language and formulas of information literacy neither accurately translate to the modern business student nor to his faculty, this must become a priority for a field so reliant and masterful at scholarly communication. This conflict can be ameliorated through careful and consistent collaboration between librarian and professor, even if we continue to find that library scholars are, at times, unable to
reach beyond the parameters of their field. Teaching the tactical language of IL to the business professor regardless of his or her individual barriers can help build important life skills in maturing business students who will become the leaders of tomorrow.

This study of the Top 25 business schools concluded that search engines available at their corresponding websites revealed little about how these schools truly were imparting information literacy to their students. While results produced by Google-powered inquiries netted substantial results in some cases, most schools’ outcomes produced more questions about the validity of the search engine’s abilities than answers about the presence of information literacy. If information literacy efforts were indeed taking place, they were not returned at the top of most, if not all, university’s search results lists for the term. Broad explorations in this round of investigation revealed troubling inconsistencies about the ways library efforts are portrayed on university-sponsored web pages, and indeed the lack of overall user-friendliness for finding this IL information is apparent to even experienced searchers. While disconcerting, the original intent of these search functions were not meant to allow the user to perceive the values, techniques or traditions of institutional learning. These keyword-only manifestations may be inappropriate for proper library advocacy and useful public website exposure to help the cause of IL and of librarians as instructional partners. Whatever the reasoning, this brief investigation showed that many of the finest business schools in America do not either actively or passively make information literacy efforts evident to the outside world; although we may suddenly want to ask the question “why?” we must also now consider our own roles in the answers to “why not?”

Table 1.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Business School Website</th>
<th>Math School Website</th>
<th>Total Hits</th>
<th>Information Literacy</th>
<th>Total Hits</th>
<th>Information Literacy</th>
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References


Gender Differences in Negotiation

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Abstract

The topic I have chosen to discuss is often underestimated; however it prevails in these hard times for our society - in a world where velocity is overruling, where the work stress is increasing and where thoughts often go in favor of appearance. In this work I have tried to show a world where those who show to be active are rewarded. My work is an empirical research performed in two countries, Italy and Albania. It consists in distributing surveys simultaneously to women and men of different age and social status. In Albania, apart from surveys I have performed even direct observation research. As far as negotiation at workplace is concerned, my work is focused in two aspects: the negotiation at workplace and the negotiation at home, given the present gender differences. The works concludes with highlighting the gender differences that exist for various reasons and the cultural distinctions between both countries, which often provide for such gender differences.

1. Introduzione

L'occupazione femminile è in notevole crescita, ma le donne, seppur con alte competenze, continuano a essere discriminate rispetto agli uomini nella retribuzione e nella gerarchia professionale.

Infatti, si nota che i posti più importanti sono occupati dagli uomini. Anche se i rapporti tra uomini e donne in diversi ambiti della vita sono cambiati, sono sempre loro, le donne a essere discriminate quando si deve scegliere per un posto di lavoro importante o per un incarico altrettanto efficace.

Qual è la soluzione, come si devono comportare le donne per prendere quello che meritano e per di più di essere ringraziate per quello che fanno? Devono negoziare o no. Oppure devono imparare a chiedere.

In diverse situazioni vediamo che le donne non chiedono quello che meritano. Perché succede questo fenomeno? Le donne aspettano sempre che sono gli altri a mettere in risalto le loro capacità il loro contributo. Nel mio studio ho voluto fare notare le differenze di genere ed età. Un altro aspetto dove mi sono concentrata è quello delle diversità delle culture mauguaglianza delle donne.

Ho valutato la situazione della donna nel mio paese, Albania e il confronto con la situazione in Italia. Un altro aspetto del mio studio riguarda la negoziazione della donna in ambiente casalingo. Per le donne chiedere è un atto che loro considerano fatale perché temano che possa danneggiare le loro relazioni.

Loro hanno imparato che la società accoglie male la loro assertività e volitività mentre questo è ciò che ci si aspetta dagli uomini. Quando ho preso in considerazione la situazione delle donne in Albania e ho voluto evidenziare le differenze trans culturali, ho reso evidente anche che le donne sono uguali perché hanno un gap di autostima da colmare, elemento che, insieme con altri, lo porta a non combattere per il proprio tomaconto.

Le cause che sostengono questo fenomeno si muovono in due universi sia quello organizzativo sia quello individuale. Ho usato la frase brave ragazze (Linda & Laschever, 2004) per evidenziare il fenomeno che porta le donne a seguire modelli comportamentali sempre più definite e segmentate sin dalla loro infanzia rispetto ai maschi. La via verso l'autorità è molto ripida e una volta giunte in cima si trovano in un letto di spine.

Un altro argomento di una certa importanza che ho trattato sono gli stili di leadership. Questo ho voluto confrontare con gli aspetti culturali e sono giunta in conclusione che questi aspetti influenzano sullo status di leadership occupato dalle donne. Le donne sono molto meno portate degli uomini a negoziare per ottenere quello che vogliono. Loro non chiedono mai un aumento di salario non chiedono mai un aiuto in casa e per di più una promozione. Sono loro che permettono gli altri di pensare che siano imbattibili che ce la possono fare sono loro che aspettano che gli altri riconoscano il loro contributo nella società. Negoziare è un talento importante, che possedere può essere utile soprattutto
nella situazione di lavoro ma è stata a lungo un campo prettamente maschile: un dominio competitivo in cui gli uomini eccellevano e le donne si sentivano meno capaci. Negli ultimi anni, i requisiti di una negoziato riscita sono cambiati. Più che una battaglia tra avversari, la negoziato è spesso idealmente considerato come un processo di collaborazione che mira a trovare le soluzioni migliori per ciascuno delle pari in causa. Raggiungere gli scopi predefiniti da parte di una donna usando la negoziato e una strategia troppo efficace la volta che la donna osa di essere competitiva è vista da parte degli altri con una certa ostilità.

E' proprio per questo motivo che è difficile vedere la negoziato come un processo collaborativo. Ma anche se è visto, in questo modo è sempre importante negoziare e farlo ora è altrettanto importante.

Le donne che sono usate la negoziato e una strategia non troppo efficace la volta che la donna osa di essere competitiva è vista che mira a trovare le soluzioni migliori per ciascuno delle pari in causa. Raggiungere gli scopi predefiniti da parte di una donna è spesso idealmente considerato come un processo di collaborazione eccellevano e le donne si sentivano meno capaci. Negli ultimi anni, i requisiti di una negoziato riuscita sono cambiati. La situazione di lavoro è stata a lungo un campo prettamente maschile: un dominio competitivo in cui gli uomini tendono sempre a negoziare per lo stipendio, per un incarico più importante per ottenere sempre quello che loro pensano che sia più opportuno e conveniente. Le donne non lo fanno mai o lo fanno raramente o con un certo riguardo.

Un altro aspetto molto importante di questo studio è la suddivisione in base d'età la differenza d'idea tra uomini e donne, era maggiore con l'aumento d'età, ciò significa che le donne più anziane trovarono più difficile negoziare di quelle più giovani. I fatti hanno dimostrato che alle donne si è negato sempre il potere economico e quello politico e la maggior parte della loro vita è stata sempre controllata dagli altri. Lo squilibro di potere tra uomini e donne - da adulti determinano le percezioni su di chi detiene il controllo, e influenza le convinzioni in proposito che si vanno formando nei bambini.

Lo studio è concentrato in un confronto tra donne e uomini in due paesi sia nell'ambiente lavorativo sia in ambito casalingo. Dai numerose questionari somministrati durante lo studio e uscito fuori che gli uomini tendono sempre a negoziare per lo stipendio, per un incarico più importante per ottenere sempre quello che loro pensano che sia più opportuno e conveniente. Le donne non lo fanno mai o lo fanno raramente o con un certo riguardo.

Un altro aspetto molto importante di questo studio è la suddivisione in base d'età la differenza d'idea tra uomini e donne, era maggiore con l'aumento d'età, ciò significa che le donne più anziane trovarono più difficile negoziare di quelle più giovani. I fatti hanno dimostrato che alle donne si è negato sempre il potere economico e quello politico e la maggior parte della loro vita è stata sempre controllata dagli altri. Lo squilibro di potere tra uomini e donne - da adulti determinano le percezioni su di chi detiene il controllo, e influenza le convinzioni in proposito che si vanno formando nei bambini.

Da bravi osservatori i bambini studiano i diversi comportamenti che le donne e gli uomini assumono in diverse situazioni, i diversi ruoli che loro assunno nella società, le diverse preferenze e capacità. Una parte importante del loro sviluppo mentale e sociale deriva proprio dall'organizzazione di queste informazioni. I bambini creano dei cataloghi mentali di come percepiscono la femminilità e la mascolinità. Questo catalogo si può chiamare diversamente anche un"schema di genere" (Linda & Laschever, 2004) un catalogo mentale che tiene conto degli attributi fisici, gusti, interessi e talenti che caratterizzano i due sessi. I bambini formano questo schema fin dalla tenera età. La donna è cresciuta con la convinzione che la sua vita è controllata spesso da forze esterne. Lei è sempre vista fragile e debole destinata a rimanere tale, è vista più portata a fare i lavori dentro casa che fuori a badare ai figli, invece di fare carriera. Loro imparano a essere più riluttanti dei maschi. Le donne non devono mai mettere in discussione le regole invece i maschi sono sempre abituati a farlo per loro è naturale sbagliare per imparare. Questi schemi sono formati fin dalla loro infanzia inconsciamente dagli stessi genitori. Le donne imparano a comportarsi in maniera molto più strutturata mentre gli uomini no. Loro imparano di affermarsi il più possibile per arrivare a ottenere quello che vogliono. Le donne non sanno valutare loro stesse oppure non lo vogliono fare perché hanno paura di essere giudicate dagli altri.

Un altro ragionamento importante e che le donne hanno delle aspettative minori rispetto agli uomini. Loro entrambi nel mondo del lavoro già con l'idea che vengono pagate meno degli uomini così no rimangono mai deluse. Dagli studi è rilevato che le donne hanno dimostrato di avere aspettative inferiori a quelli degli uomini (MANNETTI, 2002). Nel ambito lavorativo le donne erano sempre soddisfate del loro stipendio anche se erano pagate sempre meno dagli uomini per lo stesso ruolo. Ovviamente questo fatto ha le radici nella convinzione delle donne che i maschi verranno pagati sempre
più di loro. Uno dei problemi principali è che le donne non hanno ancora imparato a chiedere il loro giusto posto nella società ingiusta.

Lo stesso risultato è stato arrivato quando si tratta delle aspettative delle donne per la carriera. Le donne non ci pensavano troppo invece gli uomini dopo il primo anno di lavoro pensavano subito alla loro carriera futura e a occupare posti e incarichi sempre più importanti. Le donne hanno sempre la sensazione di riuscire in tutto ed sono sempre soddisfate di quello che fanno.

La maggior parte delle donne riferivano di non aver mai voluto fare qualche cosa che stava sopra delle loro possibilità. Queste donne hanno delle aspettative moderate sula loro esperienza lavorativa e anche della loro vita e tutto questo avviene per la sola ragione che le aspettative moderne sono più facile da realizzarsi e le donne vengono soddisfatte più facilmente.

Le donne non hanno mai capito come la società funzioni, veramente, non vuol dire che non chiedere rende una persona migliore ma per andare avanti nella vita uno deve chiedere quello che è migliore per lui e questa cosa lo sanno fare benissimo i maschi. Una donna è molto soddisfatta anche se per molte meno del maschio nello stesso posto di lavoro basta che lei lavora e si prende cura degli altri.

Le donne non si sentono deluse per il loro stipendio e ne anche per quello che hanno perché uno si sente delusione solo quando si tradiscono le loro aspettative, e per le donne avendo sempre aspettative minori e tropo moderate tendono a essere soddisfatte. Le donne sono la fascia meno portata ad avere delusione. Le donne entrano nel mondo del lavoro senza fare calcoli per il loro tempo o per le loro abilità in termini economici. Loro si comportano sempre con l’attenzione di non fare male a nessuno e di lavorare per trarne dei piaceri e quelli economici sono i primi a pensare da parte loro.

Anche quando conoscono il loro valore di mercato tante donne si sentono in disaggio a usarlo come leva in una contrattazione, loro non sfruttano mai le loro potenzialità ma sempre tendono a sottovalutarsi. Tutte queste grazie a una mancanza di consapevolezza da parte delle donne circola il loro valore del mercato e la divisione del lavoro tra uomini e donne. Per un lungo periodo il potere di un maschio consisteva largamente nella sua capacità di dirigere e amministrare e quello di una donna il controllo nel suo regno domestico. Le femmine vedono assegnare mansioni che vanno svolte su base più routinaria, mentre i maschi stimolano la loro indipendenza e tendono a comportare prestazioni più salutari.

I maschi si comportano più da egoisti rispetto alle donne. Loro usano qualsiasi forma di contrattazione per prendere alla fine quello che loro pensano che sia migliore e di meritarla. La donna si è sempre identificata con i lavori domestici dentro la casa mentre i maschi per i lavori dentro la casa assumeva un altro da fuori pagando sempre per ogni prestazione.

Dallo studio si è rilevato che la donna non attribuisce mai un valore economico al suo lavoro oltre che sentimentale, invece il maschio lo fa sempre.

Questa definizione della realtà comincia a diventare parte nostra fin dalla infanzia, quando tutti noi abbiamo pensato che era giusto che la mamma restasse a casa e il papa portasse i soldi. La percezione dei ruoli dentro e fuori casa cominciano sin da bambino e ti seguono per tutta la tua vita e influenzano nel tuo futuro carattere. Per questo motivo le bambine crescono impacciate a dare poca attenzione alla loro lavorazione e diventano le donne di oggi che lavorano per amore no per denaro che aspettano che siano gli altri a giudicare e riconoscere il loro merito e il loro contributo.

Le donne devono valutare il loro potenziale di più devono contrattare di più; non devono avere paura dalla loro voce e che le loro parole vengano frantese dagli altri e si devono confrontare più con il prossimo solo così avranno quello che veramente desiderano.

Nella differenza di genere un ruolo importante hanno le differenze transculturali. L’altro punto importante del mio studio è l’influenza della cultura nella negoziazione. Ho confrontato i risultati dei questionari somministrati in Albania e Italia. Ho rilevato che la situazione nel mio paese è più grave in confronto alla situazione in Italia.

L’Albania è un paese piccolo ma di grandi potenzialità. La donna albanese è sempre stata vista come la mamma della casa e in casi di non avere figli o di non essere sposata doveva cercare di essere attenta in ogni suo passo in ogni parola che usciva dalla sua bocca per non essere giudicata dagli altri. In Albania per tanto tempo le ragazze o le donne che volevano affermarsi volevano fare carriera erano viste come un elemento negativo per la società. Nella tradizione albanese le regole della società sono molto dure.

Al centro della società albanese resta l’uomo che è lui che dice l’ultima parola sia nella vita politica, sociale ed quella economica, le donne la maggior parte di loro si occupano della famiglia e dei lavori domestici.

La realtà albanese è dura perché viene da un regime isolante che anche se sono passati vent’ anni ancora le donne stanno lottando per avere i loro diritti per avere pari opportunità in famiglia e lavoro. Il problema della nostra
3. **Risultati della Ricerca**

Il mio studio si è concentrato in due paesi: Italia e Albania. Ho somministrato questionari a un gruppo di cinquanta persone nei rispettivi paesi negli istituti come ospedale, tribunale, questura, municipio, università. I campioni erano di età compresa tra venticinque e sessanta anni di generi diversi e di status sociale diverso. Ho fatto una altra valutazione tramite le interviste in Albania a un gruppo di persone compresi tra il 20-50 anni d’età. Allà fine della somministrazione dopo che ho raccolto le risposte sono arrivata in conclusioni importanti per la nostra società: la situazione delle donne era quasi uguale sia in Albania sia in Italia. Le donne disponevano aspettative minori rispetto agli uomini per quanto riguarda le loro competenze professionali, erano pagate meno degli uomini ma per loro importante era il valore morale piuttosto che economico del loro lavoro.

Nella carriera le donne negoziavano di meno loro tendono a essere sodisfatte del lavoro che fanno mentre gli uomini tendono ad arrivare nei gradini più alti della loro carriera. Le donne si preoccupavano più degli uomini per le relazioni sia con i loro familiari sia con i loro collegi di lavoro. Gli uomini tendono a essere più egoisti rispetto alle donne. Gli uomini hanno obiettivi più prefissati delle donne. In Albania l’80% degli uomini risultava di avere un livello alto di fiducia in loro risultano più egoisti tendono a trattare di più e non vengono influenzati dagli giudizi degli altri. In Italia sono il 88% dei campioni presi esame. A volte la donna stabilisce obiettivi modesti da negoziare non per mancanza di fiducia in se stessa o perché pensi che domandare di più sia troppo rischioso, ma perché si prefiscono altri scopi, che non sono meno importanti di quelli degli uomini, solo differenti. Tra questi scopi è compreso ottenere un orario di lavoro flessibile, o ridotto, così da poter soddisfare desideri personali, come essere una buona madre. Questo tipo di traguardi è talmente importante per molte donne che, per ottenere quello che vogliono, sacrificerebbero obiettivi professionali, come accettare più responsabilità sul lavoro o una paga migliore o più opportunità di avanzamenti nella carriera. È importante riconoscere che le donne introducono una più vasta gamma di obiettivi personali nella negoziazione del lavoro, ma in molti casi sacrificano più di quanto sia necessario.

L’aspetto casalingo: le donne anche in quest’ambito erano meno portate a negoziare perché per loro chiedere un aiuto in casa metteva a rischio le loro relazioni personali. Le donne italiane chiedevano di più in confronto alle donne albanesi ma sempre senza abbasstanza. In tutte e due le culture, la fiducia che le donne avevano e la loro autostima che era a livelli bassi gli impedia di chiedere di avere un aiuto in casa e perché no anche una valutazione delle loro capacità professionali. I risultati in percentuale: il 76% delle donne il primo pensiero di loro andava alle loro relazioni con gli altri tendono ad essere più influenzatedai giudizi degli altri. Trovavano difficoltà nel coordinare il loro lavoro con il ruolo da donna. Questo percentuale per quanto riguarda l’Albania. In Italia la situazione cambia con il 64%.

Per quanto riguarda la situazione nell’ambiente casalingo il 64% degli uomini albanesi pensano che il ruolo della donna nell’ambiente casalingo è primario. Loro vedono la donna più come mamma che come manager o in qualsiasi altro ruolo. Il 48% degli uomini italiani pensano che la donna è più portata per il lavoro dentro casa ma credevano che una collaborazione tra partner è importante.

Le differenze d’età: per quanto riguarda questo punto le donne tendono a negoziare di meno sia in ambiente...
delle aspettative migliori chiedevano di più volevano migliorare di più la loro situazione sia sociale sia familiare. Questa loro posizione e non volevano cambiare la loro situazione invece quelle che erano al di sotto i quarantacinque, avevamo delle aspettative migliori chiedevano di più volevano migliorare di più la loro situazione sia sociale sia familiare. Questa differenza è a causa delle differenze culturali come ho già citato sopra la cultura albanese e una cultura collettivista per questo l'affermazione delle donne e più difficile in confronto ad un paese come l'Italia.

La cultura albanese vede la donna prima come mamma poi come donna in carriera. Quest'affermazione diventa più forte con l'aumento d'età. In Italia la situazione è diversa come dimostrano i risultati della ricerca il pensiero di essere mamma e a pari passi con il pensiero di essere dona in carriera anche se in entrambi i paesi negozia per un posto da leader per un salario più alto e sempre difficile se si parla delle donne. Il 76% delle donne il primo pensiero di loro andava alle loro relazioni con gli altri tendono ad essere più influenzate dai giudizi degli altri. Trovavano difficoltà nel coordinare il loro lavoro con il ruolo da donna. Questo percentuale per quanto riguarda l’Albania. In Italia la situazione cambia con il 64%.

Diversità negli status sociali: la situazione risulta non diversa anche per questo punto della ricerca.

Le donne con uno status sociale più alto tendono sempre ad arrivare obiettivi prefissati tendono a stabilire un rapporto di parità tra la famiglia e la loro professione. Nell’ambito casalingo chiedono più aiuta condividono di più il lavoro con il partner o con la loro famiglia. Invece per le donne con status sociale più basso era più importante dedicarsi alla famiglia che al lavoro. Per loro era più importante il giudizio degli altri che il loro. Hanno delle aspettative minori delle donne con status sociale elevato.

4. Conclusioni

Abbiamo parlato delle donne e degli uomini che fin dalla loro infanzia producono dei schemi mentali di come comportarsi nella vita. Le donne erano quelle che gli veniva imparato a comportarsi entro ogni regola sociale e in maniera strutturata invece i maschi erano sempre stimolati ad affermarsi di più perché erano loro che dovevano avere tutto sotto controllo. Questi affermazioni naturalmente sono sbagliati e possono danneggiare la società dove viviamo.

La situazione deve cambiare e quelle che devono cambiare questa situazione sono proprio loro le donne, devono imparare a chiedere a negoziare di più, a sentirsi più importanti per la società.

Alcuni passi si stanno facendo se vediamo le donne giovani oggi loro si mettono subito in competizione con l’altro sesso sia in rapporti di lavoro sia in rapporti personali. Ma questo cambiamento è più notevole nelle donne di vent’anni cioè l’età influenza il grado di negoziare delle donne. Quelle più anziane trovano molto più difficile ribellarsi e negoziare per ottenere quello che vogliono .Questa situazione risulta più o meno in entrambi i paesi con piccole differenze. Anche in Albania la società sta cambiando le regole anche se con passi molto più lenti dell'Italia. Esistono ancora oggi le donne che pensano che non devono dedicarsi alla famiglia senza pretendere niente in cambio. Ovviamente questa opinione delle donne deve cambiarsi deve aumentare la fiducia in loro devono credere che anche loro sono brave a dirigere ed ad essere mamme, moglie, figlie e amiche nello stesso tempo. In Albania il cambiamento si vede ma si deve fare di più i modelli che sono delle donne in carriera o affermate sono pochissimi in confronto alle capacità e i potenziali che hanno le donne albanesi. Loro devono chiedere di essere valutate di più senza avere la paura che dopo aver chiesto verranno giudicate. Non devono temere che chiedere una collaborazione a casa danneggia le loro relazioni personali. Il pensiero degli uomini nei loro confronti deve cambiare la collaborazione tra partner deve aumentare.

Una cosa deve essere certa che questa situazione cambia se cambiano le regole della società, se fin dalla nostra infanzia ci viene insegnato che i maschi e le femmine possono fare le stesse cose posso giocare insieme possono dirigere e possono partecipare nella vita economica e politica con grande successo. Se fin dall’infanzia i bambini vengono insegnati che sia la mamma che il papà può ugualmente portare i soldi può occuparsi di loro. Tutto questo può cambiare se si informano di più. L’informazione è molto importante perché riduce l’ignoranza delle donne e aumenta sempre di più la loro forza di pretendere sempre di più ad essere valutate. Speriamo che le donne imparino ad apparire di più anche dall’altro sesso. Prima devono imparare a valutare loro stesse poi di confrontarsi con l’altro sesso. La donna ha delle grandi potenzialità, può essere un leader può essere una mamma e una moglie in modo uguale come gli uomini. Il solo problema è che devono smettere di fare “le brave ragazze” (Linda & Laschever, 2004) devono imparare a chiedere a negoziare per arrivare a pari passi agli uomini. Le donne non devono dimenticarsi che loro sono più avvantaggiate in questo processo solo devono imparare a trasformare al loro favore. Trattare significa ottenere. È ora di farlo!
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Researching Inclusive Education in Albania:
Using Mixed Methods in School/Educational Psychology

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Abstract

This paper examines the current state of the art of the debate on mixing methods in education and social sciences. A brief review of the philosophical debate is presented, followed by an illustration of mixed-methods research in inclusive schools in Albania. The author argues for the benefits of mixing qualitative and quantitative research not only for pragmatist researchers conducting academic research, but also for school/educational psychologist who have embraced a scientist-practitioner approach in their everyday practice.

Keywords: qualitative; quantitative; mixed methods; paradigms clash; pragmatism; inclusive education

1. Introduction

The qualitative–quantitative distinction is built into nearly everyone’s vocabulary in the social sciences, and it serves as a common point of reference for distinguishing different kinds of work. Quantitative methods are better known, and the quantitative culture is, no doubt, the more dominant of the two cultures within most social science fields. Nearly all scholars speak of qualitative versus quantitative research, though they may not understand that contrast in the same way. Furthermore, social scientists have organized themselves—formally and informally—into quantitative and qualitative research communities (Goertz & Mahoney, 2012).

There is growing interest in the possibilities, as dissatisfaction grows with the limitations of traditional mono-method studies – all very well in their way but unable to address fully the most complex research questions – and with the methodological schism and internecine ‘warfare’ that divides educational and social science research (Gorard & Taylor, 2004). With qualitative research now accepted by educational researchers, and with quantitative research long established as an approach, mixed methods research has become popular as the newest development in research methods and in approaches to “mixing” quantitative and qualitative research. The basic assumption is that the uses of both quantitative and qualitative methods, in combination, provide a better understanding of the research problem and question than either method by itself. Also, mixed methods research is not simply collecting two distinct “strands” of research—qualitative and quantitative. It consists of merging, integrating, linking, or embedding the two “strands.” In short, the data are “mixed” in a mixed methods study (Creswell, 2012).

Quantitative data, such as scores on instruments, yield specific numbers that can be statistically analyzed, can produce results to assess the frequency and magnitude of trends, and can provide useful information if you need to describe trends about a large number of people. However, qualitative data, such as open-ended interviews that provide actual words of people in the study, offer many different perspectives on the study topic and provide a complex picture of the situation. For example, by assessing both academic (e.g. grades) and social outcomes (e.g., pro-social behaviour, bullying, friendships) of children with SEN in the general education classroom using archival data, teacher reports and questionnaires, (i.e., quantitative) as well as the process of inclusion by means of observations and interviews (i.e., qualitative), we can develop “a complex” picture of social phenomenon (Greene & Caracelli, 1997, p. 7). Qualitative data can be collected simultaneously or in different phases, depending on the aims of the researcher (for details see Creswell, 2012).

2. The debate on mixed-methods

According to King, Keohane, and Verba, “the differences between the quantitative and qualitative traditions are only
stylistic and are methodologically and substantively unimportant" (1994, 4). These two traditions, according to them, share a single logic of inferential that characterizes all social science. The differences between the two traditions that they identify concern surface traits, especially the use of numbers versus words. Researchers from various fields in the social and behavioral sciences have advocated the combining of quantitative and qualitative approaches. Campbell and Fiske’s (1959) seminal article is credited for formalizing the idea of using multiple research methods. By 1973, Sieber suggested the combination of in-depth case studies with surveys, creating a “new style of research” and the “integration” of research techniques within a single study and a few years later, Jick (1979) used the combination of surveys, semistructured interviews, observations, and archival materials to provide a “rich and comprehensive picture” of anxiety and job insecurity during organizational mergers (cited in Creswell, 2012). In designing a questionnaire, standard textbooks advocate the prior use of in-depth approaches, such as focus groups, to help identify and modify the relevant questions (Oppenheim 1992). Qualitative work has traditionally been used in several fields as the basis for the preliminary phases of other quantitative studies, perhaps to generate hypotheses to be tested by subsequent larger-scale work (Erzberger and Prein 1997).

However, mixing methods is not considered by many “traditionalists” a good idea, or even scientifically acceptable, especially among qualitative and quantitative researchers who try to preserve qualitative and quantitative traditions that exhibit all the traits of separate cultures, including different norms, practices, and tool kits (Goertz & Mahoney, 2012). According to Sale et al. (2002: 43) such a mixing is not to be recommended: ‘Because the two paradigms do not study the same phenomena, quantitative and qualitative methods cannot be combined for cross-validation or triangulation purposes’. These traditions contrast across numerous areas of methodology, ranging from type of research question, to mode of data analysis, to method of inference; these differences are systematically and coherently related to one another such that it is meaningful to speak of distinct quantitative and qualitative research paradigms or alternative cultures, each with its own values, beliefs, and norms, each associated with distinctive research procedures and practices. At its core, the quantitative–qualitative disputation in the social sciences is really a clash of cultures. (Geortz & Mahoney, 2012). Despite this powerful statement, these authors concede that, “the two cultures are not hermetically sealed from one another but rather are permeable and permit boundary crossing.”

Another reason supporting the scepticism regarding mixing methods in social sciences is that the epistemological assumptions of quantitative and qualitative approaches to research are radically different. A quantitative research perspective assumes that knowledge is “out there” to be discovered; there is a physical, knowable reality that can be observed and measured, whereas, a qualitative perspective assumes that knowledge is constructed through communication and interaction; as such, knowledge is not “out there” but within the perceptions and interpretations of the individual. In short, knowledge is constructed or created by people; you cannot analyze and understand an entity by analysis of its parts; rather, you must examine the larger context in which people function and socially construct their reality (Van der Stoep & Johnston, 2009). In fact, the increased popularity and acceptance of qualitative methods in the social sciences in the past 25 years is to some extent the result of a reaction against quantitative research assumptions.

Quantitative and qualitative methods could “just” be possible choices, chosen to tackle certain psychological problems; instead they have become rather entrenched ideological or epistemological positions, also called paradigms. From the standpoint of those who choose quantitative methods, which are themselves modelled on and compatible with methods used in the natural sciences, using qualitative methods means debasing psychology as a “science”. From the standpoint of those using predominantly qualitative methods, modelled on and compatible with methods used in the humanities, those who adhere to the quantitative “camp” devalue the human being which should be at the centre of psychology as a discipline (Todd, Nerlich & McKeown, 2004). Many psychologists seem to remain entrenched in their respective positions. Whereas qualitative researchers accuse quantitative ones of positivism, reductionism, determinism, and objectivism, quantitative researchers accuse qualitative ones of fuzziness and subjectivity (Todd, Nerlich & McKewon, 2004).

However, this worldview incompatibility argument—also called the paradigm debate—has largely diminished – there are researchers that contend that mixed methods research has its own philosophical worldview, pragmatism, which philosophically justifies the use of various procedures that “work” for a particular research problem (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), for example, when one type of research is not enough to address the research problem or answer the research questions, or you want to provide an alternative perspective in the study (Creswell, 2012). It makes sense that a mix of methodologies, maximizing the benefits of both approaches, will provide the richest and most complete understanding of the phenomenon under study (Van der Stoep & Johnston, 2009). Combined approaches can be particularly useful when the background theory for an investigation is minimal, and where one of the main purposes of the study is to generate usable theory. In addition, other philosophies have emerged as a foundation for mixed methods research, such as the transformative research perspective advancing the need for addressing issues of social justice for underrepresented
groups (Creswell, 2012). This supposed distinction between qualitative and quantitative evidence is essentially one between the traditional methods for their analysis rather than between underlying philosophies, paradigms, or even methods of data collection (Gorard & Taylor, 2004).

3. **Illustration of a mixed methods study of inclusion outcomes in Albanian primary schools**

This author (in press) conducted, for more than a year, a mixed-methods study focused on the academic and social outcomes of children with SEN in 7 Albanian primary schools. The study had quantitative components (social outcomes survey for teachers, a teacher-student relationship scale, observation of academic engagement in the classroom, archival data of progress on maths and reading), and qualitative components (structured conversations with teachers, descriptive observation of the classroom climate and physical characteristics). A fully mixed concurrent equal status design was adopted – i.e. quantitative and qualitative phases occurred at approximately the same point in time, with both phases being given approximately equal weight and mixing occurring within or across the data collection, analysis, and interpretation stages (Powell et al. 2008).

Most children with SEN (n=30) who participated in the study did not have a SEN statement, that is, they were not officially identified by the teachers, school psychologists and/or the school medical staff as having additional needs or needing an IEP (individual education plan). Identifying them accurately was an important task, related to the sampling procedure and data collection. Teachers were asked to describe the academic and behaviour difficulties of the students without statements in their classes that stood out, in their view, as “atypically behind” and/or “problematic” compared to their peers’ academic progress and social behaviour.

At least two reasons, contribute in the Albanian context to the problem of (non) identification of the students with SEN: (a) stigma associated with labelling in general in the culture, and; (b) hesitation of school staff to identify more children with SEN than they can actually accommodate (e.g., reduce number of students per class, etc.). These two factors may be considered as serious neglect, considering that the additional needs of the child are not addressed and dealt with professionally. There have been cases when school psychologists have been threatened by influential middle-class parents with losing their job, for “approaching, or talking to” their normal children. Such children do not receive additional support not only at school, but even at home or in special centres. Three selected cases are given below to illustrate the utility of using mixed-methods during the data collection and analysis phases.

A.B., a 7 year old Albanian boy with ADHD and problematic behaviour. A.B. was initially labelled by his 1st grade teacher, who had recently read a book on autism, as having Asperger’s. After a brief description of his main difficulties and a 30 min direct class observation, the Asperger’s label was dropped and he was considered to be displaying hyperactivity (moving around the classroom, chasing the teacher around, approaching and talking one student sitting at the opposite end of the room) associated with poor attention, especially after the first two hours in class, and occasionally aggressive behaviour (verbal and physical) towards his peers.

The structured conversation with the teacher revealed that she had given up on him a few weeks ago and asked the head to either get someone to help her in the classroom, or ban him from her class. She talked about a climate of fear among the other students who would relax and resume normality, only after he had left the classroom. The mother agreed to sit with him, in a seat in the last row - in a position where his movement could be more easily controlled, in order to reduce disruption of the teaching and learning activities in the classroom. After a few days of trial, the teacher considered the situation as acceptable.

The social outcomes survey completed by the teacher, showed that A.B. showed a high level of aggression (which has been reduced since the mother joined him in class), however, no sign of pro-social behaviours towards no-one but another student with attention problems (without hyperactivity) whom he probably considered as the only friend. Progress in reading and, especially, maths was very poor.

The teacher displayed an authoritative style, she was very experienced in managing disruptive behaviour or conflict in the classroom, using verbal and nonverbal skills very efficiently. She tried to design a “special educational” plan for A.B., which never materialized though, due to his mother’s refusal to collaborate.

The mother of A.B. told me while leaving the classroom, that ‘this (referring to her child condition) is a death sentence for me’. She hadn’t admitted to anyone before, such feelings of desperation and possibly shame – she desired and insisted that her son be educated in a “normal” school with other “normal” children, however, upon the condition that no-one considered her son “abnormal”. Understanding stigma in a certain cultural context is as important as measuring the academic and social progress (or the lack of it) of A.B. and students like him in the general education classrooms in Albania. In the UK, a mother might go to court to ask for a statement of SEN for her child which means additional funding and support in an inclusive classroom – in Albania, a mother, because of the stigma, may deny her child whatever
additional help that may be available, such as an assessment of needs by the school psychologist and/or the family doctor.

Using only quantitative methods to assess outcomes, most likely, inaccurate values would have been obtained regarding A.B.’s outcomes. Without further investigation (using qualitative methods), this participant would have been classified with Asperger’s, with poor outcomes in reading and maths, as well as high level of aggressive behaviour at the end of the 1st grade, after spending a year in an “inclusive” setting. This assessment would not be sensitive to significant facts such as the recent change of the level of aggressive behaviour due to the mother’s presence (and support) in class, as well as, the poor progress in academic subject, probably due to the mother’s resistance in being consulted by the teacher for a special plan to implement at school and at home, or seeking help in special education centers.

R.B., a 7 year old Roma Albanian boy with serious emotional/behavioural disturbance and poor academic skills. In the same school hall as that of A.B.s, only a few doors away, I was introduced to the case of R.B. a Roma boy, with fair skin and long blond hair. He was enrolled in school when he was six, initially displaying wild unrestrained behaviour (running away from teachers in class, through the halls screaming, swearing), physically attacking peers in and out of class, and inability to pay attention to teachers, as well as making very little to nothing academic progress in reading and maths.

Quantitative observations (measuring academic engagement) revealed that he spent a considerable time off task, moving around the class to get the attention of the teacher, by showing his work to her or to other children. However, further qualitative observation revealed that his kind of off-task behaviour was the norm in that class, rather than the exception. Most students, boys in particular, would finish their work, leave their seats to follow the teacher around, begging for her attention. Most pupils would speak without raising their hands first. A few would hit and kick each other, while the teacher was busy checking the work of other children.

According to the teacher (she was interviewed after the observation), after spending 8 months in different classes at the school, his behaviour seemed to have improved considerably; during my observation, he would raise his hand to answer the teacher’s questions, or to ask a question, he didn’t display any sort of aggressive behaviour. He paid attention to the tasks assigned by the teacher in class, put real effort to complete them as quickly as possible, and tried to get involved with other pupils nearby in group work.

The teacher interview revealed a few important data: (a) the teacher had only a few months of experience of working with children and wasn’t very skilled at managing the disruptive behaviour of so many students at the same time; (b) her class received the most problematic (in terms of academic performance and social behaviour) pupils of the 1st grade – this phenomena is well-known in the Albanian context- established teachers choose most of their pupils, while the new teachers are “given whatever is left”. This is not the same as ability grouping, since children have not yet displayed their skills or behaviour, rather decisions are made on socio-economic status (parent education, migrant rural v.s. urban background), ethnicity (e.g., Roma) or simply on first impression.

The teacher reported (in the completed outcomes survey) that R.B. would bully other children (often girls) and be bullied (often by boys of Roma background, or others from a low SES rural-migrant background). He wasn’t liked by other children and was not admitted in group work (e.g. reading, drawing), especially by girls, since his behaviour was often unpredictable. However, his behaviour towards the teacher was (recently) always positive. This relatively positive behaviour with adult figures, apparently, was not transferred outside the classroom – R.B. would display extremely aggressive behaviour towards his mother (e.g., throwing things at her, screaming and cursing/swearing at her in public).

His progress in maths and reading was very poor, as reported by the teacher; in the interview, she said that she had set some minimal learning objectives, such as learning all the letters of the alphabet, reading simple sentences slowly but correctly – however, she had had neither training, nor any help whatsoever from the school psychologist, or any other specialists. In addition, R.B. would also attend an after-school club for Roma children (with some of his class bullies), where with free lunch, support with academic subjects was offered in small groups. This club could be seen as a protective factor, where more socializing opportunities and academic support were offered, contributing to modest, but nevertheless positive, changes in social behaviour and learning of basic skills such as reading.

This mix of quantitative and qualitative methods illustrate, in the case of R.B., on the importance of understanding the impact of various factors (e.g., teacher experience, class climate, additional support) on the academic and social outcomes. If qualitative data are ignored or neglected, these outcomes may be seen as static values (objective indicators of the (in) efficacy of inclusion), whereas, the opposite is true. Gains in academic skills, however little, should be appreciated and valued as significant, especially if the type of “classroom” is considered – i.e., a dumping space in the school for low achievers and problematic children– and despite the fact that these skills could have been partially developed outside the regular classroom (i.e., in the afterschool club). Social outcomes have gradually become less negative (those related to adults, in particular), despite, and their non-transferability outside the classroom (i.e., with
mother) and the continuity of bully-victim roles of R.B. in the classroom.

D.S., a 11 year old boy with dyslexia and serious behavioural problems. Another case, from a different primary school – a 4th grade boy identified for more than 3 years with dyslexia who displayed serious behavioural problems in the classroom (stealing lunch from his peers, damaging the property of other children and the teacher’s). According to the teacher, he would steal food from his peers, because his family was so poor that they couldn’t provide enough food for him. Occasionally, he would steal food only to share it with other children, as an attempt probably, to make friends and be liked by his peers.

His academic progress was very poor – he could recognize most of the letters of the alphabet, however, he could not read or write. An IEP was designed by the school psychologist when he was in 3rd grade, without consulting the parents or teachers. He passed the grade with no progress at all, and the IEP was passed on, in the same identical form and content to the 4th grade teacher, who didn’t even hold a copy of it in her classroom.

At first look, this boy should have been considered advantaged in comparison to the previous cases discussed, he had a statement and an IEP, and was assessed/supported by the school psychologist. As a matter of fact, an interview with the teacher clarified that accommodations (such as the IEP), were of no use at all, i.e., being identified as having SEN and having a statement proved to be, in this case, of no advantage at all. In fact, this could be a perfect illustration of the lack of accountability in the inclusive education project of children with SEN in Albanian primary schools.

4. Conclusions

For practitioners of school/educational psychology, the integration of qualitative and quantitative methodologies is not a new or unique concept. In fact, by definition, assessment, whether for purposes of program planning or treatment, necessitates the consideration of multiple sources of data, such as measurement tools such as standardized tests, rating scales, self-reports, symptom checklists, or personality inventories that typically entail the assignment of numbers in order to quantify certain attributes. Alternatively, they may take the form of direct observations, interviews, social and medical histories, analyses of permanent products, or various informal strategies, techniques that could be characterized as being primarily “qualitative” in nature. Indeed, only such a comprehensive approach permits the practical evaluation of the infinite array of biological, cognitive, social, and interpersonal factors affecting an individual’s behaviour (Powell et al., 2008).

When researching complex processes, such as inclusive practices, academic and social outcomes of children with SEN in the general education classroom, mixing methods, can become a necessity. In the same school, two children with SEN, may experience different types of inclusions: different classroom climates, teaching styles, accommodation of the curriculum and forms of additional support. All these factors (which are analyzed qualitatively) contribute to the academic and social outcomes, which in the author’s study were measured quantitatively. Besides this academic pragmatist argument, a school/educational psychologist should take the role of the problem-solving scientist-practitioner, a role which requires open-mindedness, flexibility and critical thinking regarding diverse philosophical and theoretical traditions, and is facilitated (where necessary and/or possible) by an eclectic approach to research methods and professional practice.

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Influence of Sex on the Hematological and Morphometric Parameters of Cyprinus Carpio (Linnaeus, 1758) from Shkodra Lake

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Abstract

The aim of the presents study was to obtain the influence of sex on some parameters of Cyprinus carpio (Linnaeus, 1758). The study has been carried out during spawning migration in the period March 2011 - May 2011 and involved 60 healthy individuals of fish, randomly collected. The specimens were weighed and measured. Blood samples were taken to determine hematocrit, hemoglobin, erythrocyte count and erythrocyte indices: mean corpuscular volume, mean corpuscular hemoglobin and mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration. The mean values of blood indices and morphometric parameters were determinate annually for male and female. Comparison of blood parameters was performed according to sex differences. The results of this study showed that male fish have higher values of hemoglobin, hematocrit, and erythrocyte count, than female. Statistical analysis revealed that differences in hematological and morphometric parameters between males and females were significant.

Keyword: cyprinus carpio, hematological indices, morphometric parameters.

1. Introduction

Cyprinidae are a large family of freshwater fishes that comprise the carps, the true minnows, and their relatives. Commonly called the carp family or the minnow family, its members are also known as Cyprinids. It is the largest fish family and the largest family of vertebrate animals in general, with over 2,400 species in about 220 genera. Common carp is hardy and tolerant of wide variety of conditions but generally favor large water bodies with slow flowing or standing water and soft bottom sediments. They are omnivorous feeding mainly on aquatic insects, crustacean’s annelids, mollusks. Common carp is a hardy fish and adapted almost to all the environments.

The important place of cipriniculture in aquaculture is gave by the big quantity of Cyprinids realized in hatcheries, the number of species, the improved natural trophic recourses, the plasticity and the rigidity at medium conditions, the good capitalization of folder, the quality of food’s input and the low cost price.

The studies about Shkodra carp and its forms present scientific interest for researches of the region. There are few studies about normal hematological and biochemistry indices of Shkodra carp, so the evaluation of them in Cyprinus carpio will serve as a good tool of monitoring stress situates diagnostic of pathologies. (Golemi and Lacej, 2012.).

Sex of the fish may also influence the blood parameters. Studies on sexually matured gold fish (Carassius auratus) (Summerfeld, 1967), brook trout (Salvelinus fontinalis) and brown trout (Salmo gairdneri) (Sniezsko, 1960) showed that males consistently had higher packed cell volume values than the females and suggested the need to separate blood component data on the basis of sex to avoid attributing sex differences to other factors.

The goal of this study was to determinate the effect of sex on hematological indices and morphometric parameters of Cyprinus carpio form Shkodra Lake with the hope of providing some useful information on this aspect of its biology.

2. Methods

2.1 Biological indices

Common carp (Cyprinus carpio) used in this study were captured from different station in Albanian side of Shkodra Lake. Sixty fish were weighed and measured 28 males, 2598 ± 124 gram and 43.3 ±3.2cm and 32 females, 2954±0.22 gram
and 45.4 ±0.36 mm (mean values and standard deviation).

Morphometric indices measured were body weight (W), maximal length (L), length till the tail bifurcation(I), length till the end of scales (C) and maximal body height(H).

Blood samples were collected from 28 males and 32 females. The collection was done by caudal vein of 60 fish specimens with 5 ml sterile syringes and kept at ice-could tubes to with heparin (70 IU ml⁻¹ had been added (according to Ballarin et al., 2004). samples have been taken after anesthesia with MS 222; 0.1⁻¹ water (according to Handy & Depledge, 2000).

2.2 Haematological analysis

The analysed of haematological parameters have been: RBCc, Hb, Hct, MCV, MCH, and MCHC WBC, lymphocytes, monocytes, granulocytes. Haematological parameters were carried out using the HumaCount 30TS is a fully automated 3-part differential cell counter. Reagents that used analyser supplied by Human GmbH. Reagents are: HC-DILUENT: Isotonic saline solution used to dilute whole blood specimens and to rinse the fluidic system between measuring procedures. HC-LYSE: Used to prepare blood hemolysate for 3-part WBC differential and for total WBC and HGB measurement. CLEANER: Used to perform cleaning process of the fluidics. Significance level was defined as p<0.05.

Figure 1. Investigation area

2.3 Statistical parameters used.

Differences in hematological parameters between males and females fish were statistically analyzed by student's test (p<0.05). Means and standard deviation (SD) were calculated for each parameters measured. Each parameter was determined using MINITAB 16.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Basic changes hematological of common carp Cyprinus carpio regardless of sex

The result of the hematological indices for males and females are shown in table 1: Age 5+, mean hemoglobin (Hb) 9.55±0.25 and 6.54±0.56g/dl; mean hematocrit (packed cell volume, Hct) 32.27±0.2%; 25.35±1.2, and the number of red blood cells (RBCc) 1.95±0.42, 1.56±0.24cells/ml; the number of leucocytes (WBCc) 11.92±0.18, 18.51±1.35cells/ml; MCV 165.48±4.2, 162.5 ±8.06fl; MCH 48.97±3.12, 41.92±2.08 pg; MCHC 29.59±0.30, 25.7±1.08%, lymphocyte 68.5±1.21, 72.8±2.13%; neutrophile 4.3±0.20, 7.6±0.20 %; monocyte 17.1±0.47, 18.5±1.32% respectively. There were significant differences.
Table 1. Hematological profile of *Cyprinus carpio* spawners (mean ± DS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>N Female</th>
<th>N Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RBC (10^6/mm³)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hb (g/dl)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hct (%)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCV (mm³)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCH (pg)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCHC (g/dl)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WBC (10³/mm³)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lymphocytes (%)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutrophils (%)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monocytes (%)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statically significant (P < 0.05)

Note: RBCc-red blood cell count; Hb-hemoglobin concentration; Hct-hematocrit, MCV-mean corpuscular volume, MCH-mean corpuscular hemoglobin; MCHC-mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration, WBCc-white blood cell count,

Mean values of *Cyprinus carpio* hematological indices are presented in histograms below and they represent their relation by sex. Hct is higher in male (32.27±0.2%) than female (25.35±1.2%) as shown in Figure 2. The result obtained by different authors are the same, so this metabolic index is higher during all over the year in male than female (Etim L, et al. 1999, Ballarin, L, et al 2004, Beqiraj D et al 2011). They recommended in consideration the sex to avoid its influence from other factors.

High level of Hct is result of higher metabolism in male than female (Jawad et al, Kori-Siakpere et al 2005, Beqiraj et al 2009). These differences on hematological data depend by different needs of oxygen in male and female, especially in reproduction period.

Figure 3 shown that value of RBC, is higher in male (1.95±0.42 x 10^6/mm³) than female (6.54±0.56 x10^6/mm³) while value of WBC is higher in female (18.51 ± 1.35 x10³/mm³) than male (11.92±0.18 x10³/mm³).

Higher values of some hematological indices for male than females are caused by varying activity of erythropoietin. Testosterones, the male sex hormones, stimulate its production while estrogens, the female hormones, have a suppressing effect (Trojan, 2003). This conclusion is in accordance with other authors (Kori-Siakpere, 2005) they are comparable with ones of the other species as well as.

3.2 Sex-related changes on morph metric data of common carp *Cyprinus carpio*.

Total weight, maximal length, length till the tail bifurcation, length till the end of scales and maximal body height were determined in common carp *Cyprinus carpio* the result of them are presented in table 2.

Table 2. Morphological indices level in freshwater fish *Cyprinus carpio*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>N Female</th>
<th>N Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age(year)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight (W)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length (L)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length till the tail bifurcation (H)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length till the end of scales (C)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximal body height (l)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Higher values of morph metric parameters of *Cyprinus carpio* (body weight, length, length till the tail bifurcation, length till the end of scales, maximal body height) were observed in females than males, as we have shown in table 2, figure 4 and 5.
Figure 2. Comparison between males and females in hemoglobin concentration (Hb) and hematocrit value (Hct).

Figure 3. Comparison between males and females in red blood cells (RBC, x 100) and white blood cells (WBC).

Figure 4. Comparison between males and females in morphometric parameters.

Figure 5. Comparison between males and females in weight.
Sex has an important in growth of *Cyprinus carpio*. It has good correlations with metabolic activity and the oxygenation of the water. Authors reported that female’s hypothalamus – hypophyse system has an important role in growth and reproduction of them. On the other hand, there are different environment factors influenced in it (Beqiraj z., et al 2009). The results of this study showed that sex (condition factor) has an important influence on average value of weight, length, maximal body height, in carp. There are significant statistically differences of weight, length, maximal body height mean values between two sexes of *Cyprinus carpio*.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion:
- Sex has effect on Hct, Hb, RBC and WBC in *Cyprinus carpio*.
- Male fish have higher values of parameters than female, and there are significant differences between the sexes.
- Suggest that such differences between sexes may be related to the genetic differences to the metabolic rates which are higher in males than in females.
- Sex factor has an important effect on morph metric parameters.

This study revealed that the sex of fish may exert some degrees of influence on some of hematological characteristics and morph metric parameters of *Cyprinus carpio* and hence the need to reckon with these factors in the assessment and reporting of the hematological indices of this fish species. Hence, this gives valuable information on health of economically important fish species *Cyprinus carpio*.

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Amrit Sanskar (Baptism) and the Challenges in the Sikh Community in Malaysia

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Abstract

In the Malaysian context, the Sikh community is still categorized as the minority ethnic as compared to other ethnic groups. Their arrival in Malaysia (previously named Malaya) mid-19th century had formed a Sikh community with their own identity. This identity is known as panch kekaar or 5K’s comprising of five symbols which are Kesh (long hair), Kara (metal bracelet), Kirpan (small sword), Kachera (shorts) and Kangha (comb). All these five symbols are formed through a baptist ceremony called amrit sanskar during the leadership fo the last Sikh master named Guru Gobind Singh (1675-1708). Those who have undergone this amrit sanskar are accepted to become the solidarity members of Khalsa; those who are regarded as pure in the Sikh religion. However, in the Sikh community in Malaysia, this ceremony of amrit sanskar that seeks to form such an identity does have its own challenges and issues. Taken from several selected writings, there are three challenges that need to be resolved by the Sikh people in order to form their own identity. The challenges include the weakness of the Granthi Sahib, the weakness of the gurdwara management committee (JPG) and the clash of the local cultures. Among the objectives of this paper work is to share some information on the religion of the minority in Malaysia. This paper also concludes that the challenges that prevail in the formation of the Sikh identity will continue through amrit sanskar especially among the younger generation as long as the three issues remain unresolved.

Keywords: amrit sanskar, Sikh, Malaysia, identity

1. Introduction

In the context of the plural community in Malaysia, the Sikh community is still categorized as a minority. They have different history, religion and language from the Tamil community although both originate from the Indian continent (Azharudin, 2002:1). As of today, the Sikh community in Malaysia has contributed in almost all of the professional fields either in the fields of medicine, services, education and others. Although with the population of 80,000 people, they are able to compete with other groups in various fields in which they embark (Darshan S. Gill, 2009:57).

Just as every ethnic groups has their own characteristics that epitomize their identity, same goes with the Sikh. The Sikh identity is formed through the determination of the Sikh religion and it is collective by nature. This identity is very much linked with the definition on a Sikh follower. Shiromani Gurdwara Parbandhak Committee (SGPC), a body that is responsible in administrating the affairs of the Sikh religion centered in Amritsar, Punjab India has defined a Sikh follower as follows:

A Sikh is any person whose faith consists of belief in one God, the ten Gurus, the Guru Granth Sahib and other scriptures of the Sikh religion. Additionally, he or she must believe in the necessity and importance of amrit (the Sikh Conformational ceremony)

Based on this definition, it shows that the true Sikh will be manifested through amrit sanskar ceremony (Sarjit S. Gill, 2008:30-31). Rooted from this, there is the emerging Khalsa group, who specifically portrays the identity of the Sikh religious followers. The adopt the 5K namely Kesh (long hair), Kara (metal bracelet), Kirpan (small sword), Kachera (shorts) and Kangha (comb) as their identity (Aman Daima, 2001:84). The elaboration of these five symbols is as follows:
1.1 Kesh

Kes means hair and the hairs found on the human body. Sikh followers believe that Kes is granted by God, and it marks the highest achievement and position of Guru Gobind Singh (1675-1708) and the final Sikh Guru (Ganga S. Gyani, 1962: 2). This explains why the Sikh does not allow its followers, men or women, to cut their hair or shave the hairs on their bodies and that they must be kept clean (Aman Daima, 2001: 57). They also believe that long hair and beard will make it more convenient for them to obey God’s orders. It is based upon this belief that all ten Sikh masters have kept their hair and beard long. It is also in their belief system that before they open themselves to the teachings of the Sikh gurus, they must first have some resemblance with the teachers’ form and physicality. Long hair and beard is also one of the terms juga merthat must be adhered by the Sikh people in order to become true followers. Thus, those who cut their hair and beard are called ‘Patit’ which means ‘traitor’ (Sikh Naujawan Sabha, 1969: 27).

1.2 Kangha

Kangha means a wooden comb and must always be placed in the turban. This comb must be respected by the Sikh people as it is closely knitted with Kes. With the presence of the comb, Sikh followers will always look neat and clean all the time. This is why they are encouraged to comb their hair at least twice a day. By doing that, they believe that they will be able to remember that their hearts must also be cleansed so that it will become clean and pure all the time (Agus Salim, 1985:188). Here, the relationship between Kangha and Kes is complementary between one another as ruffled, uncombed Kes will make the hair untidy and knotted. It is also obligatory for the Sikh followers to put the Kangha on their heads as a symbol of living in discipline and with rules and regulations (H.S Singha & Satwant K., 1994: 108).

1.3 Kara

Kara means metal bracelet and it is compulsory for Sikh men and women to wear it. This adornment is to show that they are followers who are loyal to the Sikh teachings and they should remember doing good things with their hands like working hard, helping people in difficulty and in need of help (Aman Daima, 2001:64). Philosophically, Kara carries two meanings in the life of the Sikh people. The first is that the circle of the bracelet implies the condition where there is no beginning and there is no ending. This brings us to the concept of universality, that is characteristic of the community’s social condition. Those who wear Kara are thought of as individuals who tolerate all creatures, other than believe in human solidarity. The second meaning lies in the metal itself, one that is very useful in human life. Its rough and hard nature, shows that they are not going to succumb and surrender to any form of threat and torture (Sahib Singh, 1967:108 &109).

1.4 Kachera

Kachera points to the shorts worn by the Sikh people down to their knees (Khuswant Singh, 1963:84). They are almost similar to the ones worn by the soldiers and they are cut and sewn specially for the Sikh people. It symbolises nobility and purity in one’s married life or which is called in the Sikh religion as Gristi Jiwan (Ganga S. Gyani, 1962:109). Kachera as a main symbol of the Sikh community serves as a clothing for the Indians since some time back, but its form and fashion had changed after being influenced by the changing era. Other than serving as a form of clothing to the Sikh people, Kachera also signifies the soul and mind that are liberated from traditional ways of thinking (H.S Singha & Satwant K., 1994:109). Symbolically, behind this, a husband or a wife will always be faithful to his or her spouses. It is also a show of brevity and heroism, in defending oneself and religion from enemy (Sikh Naujawan Sabha, 1969:28).

1.5 Kirpan

Kirpan is double-edged sword and is used by the Sikh people on their belts (Archer, 1971:196). It is a symbol of strength and a precious weapon for Sikh followers. Those who carry this shall be regarded as a loyal follower and have strong faith (Sikh Naujawan Sabha, 1969:28). Kirpan will remind them about why they are brought to this world, which is to preserve justice, help the weak and the incapable (Aman Daima, 2001:60). Every Sikh person carrying Kirpan will see it as a gift from Guru Gobind Singh. It will not only be perceived as a weapon for defence, but serves as an external symbol for the soul and spirit who are never lost and disappointed (Ranbir Singh, 1965:265).

All these five symbols are inextricably linked with the psychological elements experienced by Guru Gobind Singh.
when he was nine years old, after hearing about his father, Guru Tegh Bahadur being beheaded by the Moghul Ruler in Chandni Chauk, Delhi. Thus, the founding of the Khalsa group with the five symbols has changed the status of the Sikh people from the image of a sparrow to a hawk. In other words, the emergence of Khalsa is yielded by Guru Gobind Singh’s resentment and revenge on the Moghul government. Therefore, he had instructed his followers to wear all five symbols as the uniform identity of the Khalsa (Sardar Singh Rataul, 1964:27).

Now, the time has changed. The concept of Khalsa is no longer based on revenge to the Moghul rulers, but more to the formation of the Sikh identity which denotes those who are loyal to the teachings of Sikh which is suitable to the passing of the era. This identity is prioritised in their daily lives. Thus, in a Sikh marriage, if one of the spouses is not from the Sikh descent, then he or she must first become a member of the Khalsa by undergoing the amrit sanskar ceremony (Sarjit S. Gill, 2001:19). Therefore, the wearing of these symbols has placed the Khalsa at high position in the Sikh religion and this has automatically become their identity.

Nonetheless, the identity formation through amrit sanskar in the context of the Sikh community in Malaysia today does have some shortcomings. The first issue lies in the weakness of the granthi sahib in giving religious messages to the Sikh community. The second issue is the weakness of the management committee of the gurdwara (JPG) in handling the gurdwara and its operations. The third issue lies in the clash of the local and the western cultures, also the influence they have on the formation of identity of the Sikhs in Malaysia.

2. The weakness of the Granthi Sahib

To undergo amrit sanskar, first of all every member of the the Sikh community should have an understanding on the teachings of the religion. Without an understanding on the religious teachings, they will not be prepared to undergo amrit sanskar. This is due to the fact that amrit sanskar will be held when there is a request from the Sikh community. At this point, Granthi sahib is one held accountable in delivering religious messages to the Sikh community in religious centers called the gurdwara. However, reality has it that the granthi sahib shows weakness in delivering religious messages as contained in the book of Guru Granth Sahib to the Sikh masses. Nonetheless, according to Charanjit Kaur (2002) and Sarjit S. Gill (2005), the role and the duties of the granthi sahib have become more and more of a challenge following several reasons. The first is the intervention of the Gurdwara Management Committee (JPG) in deciding on the roles of the granthi sahib where some have been appointed as normal employees and guards of the gurdwara, and not as religious experts. They are often made the target, should there be any matters arising at the gurdwara.

The second reason is that in Malaysia, most gurdwaras have to depend on the granthi sahib imported from Punjab, India. In Malaysia, they are only paid the salary of RM800 to RM1200 only without special provisions, such as allowance, annual leave and medical facilities. Thus, they are forced to make Malaysia a transit to other places which happen to pay them more. They only come to earn their living and fill in the vacancy. The majority of the granthi sahib from India do not even have the suitable ‘package’ with today’s challenges, in terms of their intellect and understanding in the field of comparative religion. They also do not give religious talk in series and only read messages from the book of Sri Guru Granth Sahib Ji without so much caring if the Sikh community understands it or not.

The third reason is the fact that the granthi sahib is not able to interact in English or Bahasa Malaysia but is much comfortable interacting in the Punjabi language, whereas the Sikh community especially the younger ones are still lagging behind in mastering the Punjabi language. Thus, as Sarjit S. Gill (2008 :41) puts it, the dependency on the granthi sahib from India will continue to happen and will in fact, leave a long-term effect to the Sikh community living in Malaysia. In turn, the younger generation would not be interested in getting involved in this field, due to the salary and pressure exerted by the JPG.

3. The weakness of the Gurdwara Management Commitee (JPG)

The members of the JPG are selected by the votes obtained by the Sikh community through the electoral system held at the gurdwara premise. Those who are chosen as the members of the JPG ahve a great role to play, in executing the programs beneficial to the Sikh community either in the form of the organization of the religious activities, religious classes, financial manegment and so on. To render the activities a success, the cooperation between the members of the JPG and the Sikh community is pivotal. According to Sarjit S. Gill (2005), JPG itself contains three kinds of weaknesses. The first rests in the fact that the JPG does not give room to the Sikh community to speak up and give comments, while they have the rights to do so, let alone declining and refusing any decisions that have been made by the JPG. This lack of space for the Sikh community to voice their concern, has caused the JPG to have full power and
authority in determining the running of the gurdwara. Thus, annual meeting held has often become ‘heated’ with arising issues, that subsequently do not get the attention of the JPG frontmen throughout their administration.

Next, most of the JPG members are monopolised by the elder generation and that only few youths tend to get selected. This provides the right condition to the fact that new ideas from the younger generations have not been able to brought forward to the JPG, and this is added by the ‘trend’ whereby the older generation is inclined to have a dispute among themselves and fail to become the role model to the younger counterparts, especially in terms of the religious practice. This stems from the younger generation’s restrictions in becoming the members of the gurdwara to enable them to be qualified as members of the JPG. Although the gurdwara membership criteria are open to individuals aged 18 years and above, without accounting for the socio-economic status and gender, university and college students are not allowed to become members, except if they have obtained the permission from their learning institutions.

The lack of cooperation given by the members of the JPG appointed stands out as the third reason. This cooperative attitude is important because the individuals selected in the JPG are not given any compensation or rewards, and as a matter of fact they have to be prepared to sacrifice their time and energy voluntarily when their help is needed by the Sikh community. What really happens is that not all members of the JPG are selected based on the spirit of cooperation, but due to other factors such as having wealth, high status in the society and also forming close political relationships with the Malaysian Indian Congress (MIC) which represents the Indians in Malaysia. Those selected begin their agenda by recruiting new members for their own party (Savinder K. Gill & Nirmala Devi Gopal 2010:144). According to the study done by Sarjit S. Gill & Charanjit Kaur (2008:250), Gurdwara Sahib, Petaling Jaya in Selangor and their agenda by recruiting new members for their own party (Savinder K. Gill & Nirmala Devi Gopal 2010:144). According to the study done by Sarjit S. Gill & Charanjit Kaur (2008:250), Gurdwara Sahib, Petaling Jaya in Selangor and Gurdwara Sahib Tatt Khalsa Diwan in Kuala Lumpur are two gurdwaras which have a close relationship with the MIC.

Thus, these issues have left an impact to the Sikh community as they are trying to develop an understanding on the teachings of Sikh religion in the gurdwara and prepare themselves to undergo the process of amrit sanskar.

4. Clash of Cultures

The meeting of both the Western and the local cultures not influences the formation of identity of the Sikh community especially its younger people, but also the younger generations of other ethnic groups. In the pluralistic society in Malaysia, the Sikh community is surrounded by the Muslim community, of which the majority are Malays. The work of Aman Daima (2001) demonstrates not all Sikh people in Kelantan practise 5K the identity of the Sikhs and prepare to accept amrit to become members of the Khalsa group. Among the excuses given especially by the youths is that they are embarrassed to face the Kelantanese, and their culture- this is so since the majority of the Kelantanese are Muslim Malays.

Tis is in line with the study of Sarjit S. Gill (2005) which has concluded that the majority of the Punjabi mixed-community in Kota Kinabalu, Sabah are still practising their own traditional culture be it the cultures of the Kadazan, Murut and Cina. Although the mixed-community of Punjab still embraces the Sikh religion, the Punjabiembrace Christianity and Islam. There are even a number of Sikh followers who have become part of Khalsa and wear 5K, but still fail at following the basic teachings of Sikh religion, so much so that they have disobeyed the religious laws and further ruined the identity of the religion.

Their failure at defending the culture of the Punjab and simultaneously maintaining the traditional culture, actually has a lot to do with the weaknesses shown by the JPG and granthi sahib in performing their own duties. This link is evident through JPG’s attitude which does not seem to have an interest in empowering the Punjab culture in the gurdwara. The Punjab language classes have not been done, as planned. In effect, they have not been able to understand the Punjab language, although it is this language that has been used by granthi sahib in religious affairs held at the gurdwara. Additionally, there is the problem of the scarcity of Sikh religious books in the Malay version which is in the language that they understand. Consequently, the Punjab descent has become distant with the gurdwara and choose the shorter and simpler way out by leaving Sikhism altogether or return to their original traditional culture.

It is because of this that Khoo Kay Kim (2002) points out that the collision of cultures among the Sikh people for about 40 years’ back has raised a great concern among the elderly. They are not only exposed to the western culture which carries varying lifestyles, values and life philosophies, but also to the the cultures of other groups in Malaysia, causing the gap to widen in the fundamental teaching of Sikism. With this in mind, the meeting of both cultures, the Sikh culture and those of the pluralistic society in Malaysia has aumatically influenced the Sikh community to stand by their own identity and which pushes them to become part of Khalsa through the amrit sanskar ceremony.

5. Closing

Based on these three challenges, the Sikh community in Malaysia today needs to exercise more effort and work harder in
order to celebrate the solidarity of the Khalsa as their identity and as to prepare the younger generation to undergo amrit sanskar sees one of the vital demands of the Sikh religion. However, their struggle is still on an unpredictable path, at least as long as the challenges are not dealt with as properly as they should be.

Reference

Home Qualities that makes it as a Health Supportive Place
“Long-term Patients’ Perception and Preferences”

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Abstract
Attention to the quality of spaces and places has been increased between architects and designers. Planning, as a tool has come to be essential in the creation of a secure and pleased environment covering human needs. Medical geographers have increasingly articulated the importance of place and space in the context of health and health care. However, the social effects of architecture as a mean of ordering space have largely been underexplored. Focusing in the quality of health care place for those who has to spend more time in these kind of place is necessary. In the first step, this paper try to find the place that patients feel more relaxed according their lifestyle. Also, it try to explore which qualities of this place makes it as a health supportive place in long-term patients’ viewpoint and which physical and mental elements make this qualities. Additionally, their preference in transition of this quality to hospital setting is investigated. The starting point of the research was the patients and their habitual lived experience through an exploratory study. A mix of quantitative and qualitative methods was chosen for this research. During the research, through questionnaire and interview, some Iranian long-term patients were requested to share detailed description of their feelings, thoughts and opinions. The results of the study stated home as the first place that feel relaxed for most of patients. In addition, some characteristics of home such as comfort, privacy, freedom, security and belonging, personal identity and self-expression were the most important items that make it as a health supportive place that were provided by some elements such as memories, family relationship, friendly environment and furniture and its arrangement. Although, they believed that the transferring of some qualities such as comfort, privacy, freedom, security and family relationship to hospital setting will provide a better place in quality for them.

Keywords: long-term patients; quality of place; patients’ preference; home quality; sense of place

1. Introduction
Places have been defined as location (Cresswell 2004), as concentrations of social relations and social practices, as zones of experience and meaning. To this effect, they influence our way of thinking, our conscious-ness, the course our life takes, our social structures and our health and well-being (Lengen and Kistemann 2012). It is said that the place we live and spend most of our time in can be the focus of attention and we can build a strong emotional bond with it, as Relph (1976) claims: “there is for virtually everyone a deep association with and consciousness of the places where we were born and grew up, where we live now, or where we have had particularly moving experiences”. Therefore, home as a place that is attached with humans’ daily life experience is crucial to investigate.

2. Literature review
2.1 Place in context
The concept of place is a hub of subjective meanings built by human experience. As suggested by Tuan (2001), “what begins as undifferentiated space becomes place as we get to know it better and endow it with value” (p.6). Spaces are more general and broad with indefinite meanings, while places are more specific and concrete and evolve from human
experiences and interactions (Tuan 2001). Social relationships and various personal experiences happened during a
period of time in a place will lead to developing emotional attachment toward a geographic space (Leith 2006). When
defining the concept of place, one encounters quite a big task as there are many definition theorists and they all have
their own angle to discuss this theme (Aksli 2009). One statement tries to define place on a basic level in that places can
be as big as town or country and small as a house or a single room (Altman and Low 1992). The place becomes
meaningful, when a person has a unique connection to that specific place (Aksli 2009).

Researchers are still ascertaining how setting management can best instill place meaning and, hence, attachment
2012).

2.2 Home as a place

For most people home as an important place has a prominent role in day to day life and owns rich historical, social and
cultural significance and holds great number of psychological meanings, which has significant importance to form
people’s identities (Moore 2000). Natural symbol of home related to these meanings is a place to preserve the privacy
and people emotionally bond with it since it contains our memories of loved ones and represents feeling of security and
excitement (Chow and Healey 2008).

The physical framework of a house is usually considered as a home by architects, what they think to be true is
people expressing themselves and others via what they say and how they perform as well as through their ownships
and physical environments (Goffman 1959, Hauge and Kolstad 2007); in some people’s mind home is considered as a
focus of emotional feelings and belonging though they indeed believe seriously in the symbolic significance of home
(Sixsmith 1986, Southgate 2005).

As some researchers have indicated, “home” is often used as a spatial metaphor for relationships to various
places, along with one method of being in the world (McIntyre 2001, Manzo 2005). In recent studies the concept of “at-
homeness” has been investigated as the “usually unnoticed, taken-for-granted situation of being comfortable in, and
familiar with, the everyday world in which one lives, and outside of which one is visiting” (Seamon 1979).Home is place
and a space too, where relationships are developed, activities take place and that inhabited by people, family, what they
have in possession and their things. Based on what I believe, what we call as home is an imaginary place, an archive for
our experiences in the past and of the lived spaces (Mallett 2004).

2.3 Inter-connection between home and health

Certainly, the personal health and well-being of persons take effect by the home environment through its mediating
supportive function in daily competence and its role in nurturing and supporting the psychosocial process (Lawrence
2002, Gitlin 2003). This means that a diversity of factors directly related to their living place can influence in their physical
and psychological health (Holmes, Beissner et al. 2003). To attention the whole range of dimention that explains the
correlated nature of home and health means to regard health as bounded within its “residential context” (Hartig,
Johansson et al. 2003). A significant aspect of this context is the incidence and exposure to the events of life and other
requests, or stressors, and their relationship to health. Finding shows that this is a reciprocal relationship (Wethington,
Krut et al. 2003).

On the other word, one’s environment and it’s differnet stressors effect the one’s health; and one’s health effects
one’s environment (Hartig, Johansson et al. 2003). The way in which people’s health relates to his or her home’s quality
and to to how well his or her physical, psychological and social needs links to the physical form of home and available
resource in its environment. Althought, the social networks connected to the home, the strong sense of attachment to it
and the strong sense of identity obtained from it are effective (Leith 2006).

3. Research methodology

3.1 Instrument

Mix method includes using of more than one approach to investigate a research question in order for promoting
confidence in the ensuing findings (Bryman 2006, Johnson and Christensen 2007, Bryman 2008, Bryman 2012). The
present research described here is a phenomenological exploratory research, using a mix research design; this is a
procedure for gathering, analysing and combining both quantitative and qualitative data in one study for understanding a
research problem (Hanson, Creswell et al. 2005, Creswell 2008, Creswell 2012). Phenomenology is the explanatory study of human experience and it tries to investigate and elucidate the situations, events, meanings and experiences related to human and their daily life but typically unnoticed beneath the level of conscious awareness (Seamon 2000).

Also, as explained by Yin (2011), the case study is one of numerous methods that is used in social science research. The case study method is an approach to studying a social phenomenon through analysis of an individual case (Kumar 2010).

Therefore, the questionnaire survey (De Vaus 2001) and interview were conducted to explore in which place people can feel more relaxed and which characteristics and key elements can help them to make this feeling. Also, Iranian long-term patients was chosen as a case study. At first a pilot study has been done and the results showed reliability (Cronbach's alpha .830).

The data from quantitative part were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Version 18.0).

3.2 Participants

For quantitative part, the procedure of sampling was conducted based on Trost's (1986) recommendations for strategic non-representative sampling. In this approach we look forward to acquire a large amount of variation in the participants using the strategic consideration of variables or factors which are expected to yield variation in the phenomenon under investigation and not providing a statistically representative sample. The questionnaires were distributed between 120 long-term patients in some hospital in Tehran, Iran.

In the qualitative part, a purposive sampling was used to select interviewees from patients that involved in questionnaire survey for semi-structure interview. Twelve long-term patients (DeCuir-Gunby 2008) between 20-70 years old were chosen and was considered in sampling process according to their interest and demographic status (Table 1). Difference in some factors such as culture, religious, education were not considered in sampling process.

Table 1. Demographic Discriptors of Samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-70</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Findings and discussion

The results of questionnaire for the question “Are there certain places that you feel especially relaxed” showed around 91.7 percent of respondents believed home is the first place that they feel more relaxed, while they might feel relaxed in another place such as their private office, 6.7 percent, or parents’ house in the second choose.

5.8 percent of respondents mentioned that they “don’t feel relaxed anywhere” and 8.3 percent “feel relaxed in other places”.

When interviewees were asked the same question, majority of them had a similar answer that it was “home”. Few interviewees mentioned they feel relaxed in other places such as park or even hotel if they were with the people that they love (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Where the Patients Feel More Relaxed

Also, one of respondent said she did not feel relaxed anywhere. She was asked to explain about the reason and she mentioned that she had to change her house last year because of her problems such as decrease of her sight ability and
her husbands’ disease, and in the new house she missed her husband and also because of sight problem, she could not make a relation with new environment.

A home is more than a dwelling; it is ‘a way of weaving up a life in particular geographic spaces’ and ‘the most important center’, and such is a complex multi-dimensional concept (Smith 1994). Lawrence (1995) suggested that the concept of home is based on cultural, socio-demographic, social, and psychological dimensions.

Therefore, to find which characteristics of home caused it’s supportive health feeling, they are asked with this questions, “What does a home mean to you?” and continued with “which of them help you to feel relaxed at home?” Also, they were asked to choose in order of importance for them.

Table 2. Home Qualities that have Health Supportive Role

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Comfort</th>
<th>Safety</th>
<th>Privacy</th>
<th>Freedom</th>
<th>belonging</th>
<th>Personal Identity</th>
<th>Self-Expression</th>
<th>Family relationship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency (percent)</td>
<td>90.8</td>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>78.3</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For most of respondents the essence of ‘home’ is created by the feelings and emotions what create comfort, security, privacy, freedom, belonging, personal identity, self-expression, love and family relationship for them.

The results showed that comfort with 90.8 percent was known as the first and most significant characteristic of home that caused people to feel relaxed. In their mind, a comfortable place can be considered a place to relax. Although the role of other factors should be considered in creating a comfortable place.

However, privacy with 78.3 percent, family relationship with 75 percent and security with 70.8 were in the next steps in respondents’ point of view. A sense of being safe enabled the people to feel relaxed. While, privacy with decreasing interrupts and promoting comfort help users to feel relaxed.

Family relationship make a place allowing entertainment and enjoyment of other people’s company such as friends and relatives, which creates an atmosphere of social understanding whereby the persons own opinions, actions and moods are accepted, if not always welcomed (Hayward 1977). In this environment, mental support have been provided by others help to decrease stress and to feel more relaxed.

Other characteristics such as freedom 47.5 percent, belonging 44.2 percent, personal identity 22.9 percent and self-expression 27.5 percent, even though were in less importance in comparison with others but needs to be concern because they are more effective (Figure. 2).

Feelings of belonging help to feel as you are part of the place and its part of you, so you are not a stranger or anything and so you feel relaxed. It is part of your history. This type of total equation of self and home epitomizes the home as a way of ‘being’ in the world (Sixsmith 1986).

However, knowledge of the home and the important events people have experienced there are strong ties between that environment and the person. These can become integral parts of the person history and sense of identity and continuity (Sixsmith 1986).

Figure 2. The Patients’ Prefrences for Transition of Health Supportive Home Qualities

In the next step, to clarify the patients' preference in transition of home qualities, the study continue with this questions “Transition of which qualities of home can help you to feel more relaxed during hospital’s day”.

Comfort was choosen as the first in their preference with 90.8 percent and its continued with privacy with 78.3 percent.
The greatest problem for most of long-term patients was sense of being alone. Around 75 percent believed more relation family can reduce their stress and help them to feel better. While, security with 70.8 and freedom with 47.5 in percentage were the next items.

However, other elements such as belonging, personal identity and self expression have been explained less in their preference for transition (Figure 2).

In the last step of research, the interviewees were asked to explain about the elements that made this characteristics. To find which elements in this environment help them, the research started with the question “In your mind which factors are important in creating this characteristics of home?”

Figure 3. Main Mental and Physical Factors of Home

Affective relations with family members and other important people of their life were stressed much more, than any certain factor with 93.3 percent. Some of interviewees expressed that they felt the biggest attachment to their home where they had spent the majority of their childhood, relates back to what Relph (1976) wrote in an article: ‘the feeling that this certain place has endured and will persist as a distinctive entity even though the world around may change.

In addition, the concept of home meant for them where they grow up, where their family, friends and people who are very close to them live and where their memories belong to. So, they mentioned that memories with 55 percent is the second effective factors.

However, about 50.8 percent of respondents believed the warm and friendly environment is what created feeling of security and comfort for them through decreasing the pressure of workdays and stress (Figure 3).

Although the role of physical elements such as furniture and their arrangement according to users’ taste should be considered in promoting the comfort.

5. Concluding remarks

Home can be defined as nodal points that have a special role in psychological and social relations of people. The concept of home is taken to mean more than physical locality and ties with the physical world, the social, cultural and emotive worlds of people. Home can be considered as the most important place that have been influenced its users through its characteristics and qualities such as comfort, privacy, freedom, security, belonging and self-expression and others. Transferring of these quality to other places where people have to spend more time can increase the health supportive quality of that place.

Some important elements such as family relationship, memories related to home, it’s warmly and friendly environment, the furniture and their arrangement create and promote the the quality of home.

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Prohibition against Torture in International Law: United Nations Treaty Body

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Abstract

Article 5 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948 reads “No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment”. This Article is widely regarded as expressing customary international law. Within the United Nations framework, torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment are explicitly prohibited under a number of international treaties, which are legally binding on those States which have ratified them. Many treaties establish Committees, known collectively as the treaty bodies, which are mandated to monitor States Parties’ compliance with their obligations under the treaties. They do this by issuing General Comments or Recommendations, which provide detailed interpretation of specific aspects of the treaty. The purpose of this paper is to analyze the definition and the elements required for an act to be classified as torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, applied within the United Nations system, by considering the General Comments and jurisprudence of the treaty bodies, in particular the Human Rights Committee (HRC), which monitors compliance with the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), and the Committee against Torture (CAT), which monitors compliance with the United Nations Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (UNCAT). The paper focuses on States Parties’ obligations under the main treaties, by considering the scope of application of these obligations.

1. Introduction

International human rights law defines the limits of a State’s power over individuals, and imposes positive obligations owed by the State to individuals. States voluntarily sign and ratify treaties that recognize and ensure the rights of every person, and submit themselves to the control of judicial or quasi-judicial organs which accept complaints from individuals. The prohibition against torture in international law is, like that against slavery or genocide, absolute. Torture is impermissible under any circumstances, including war, public emergency or terrorist threat. The prohibition is so strong and universally accepted that it is now a fundamental principle of customary international law.

This means that even States which have not ratified any of the international treaties explicitly prohibiting torture are banned from using it against anyone, anywhere. However, there is no forum at the international level to which an individual can make a complaint based solely on a violation of customary international law, so such violations often carry consequences only where there is political will among other States to hold one another responsible. The extent of all States’ obligations to prevent torture is therefore largely determined by international treaties, and the bodies that interpret them.

At the international level, the United Nations’ Human Rights Committee and Committee against Torture interpret State obligations under the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and Convention against Torture, respectively.

Finally, it should never be forgotten that, however strong the legal prohibition on torture, reality has yet to conform to the strict letter of the law. Additionally, non-judicial mechanisms are required to ensure that agents of the State do not resort to or tolerate torture, that violations are detected, and that victims receive treatment and compensation.

2. United Nations Treaty Body

In contrast to the regional bodies, neither the Human Rights Committee nor the Committee against Torture have found it
necessary to make stark distinctions between torture and other prohibited ill-treatment. The 1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) was the first universal human rights treaty explicitly to include a prohibition of torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment, which aims to protect both the dignity and the physical and mental integrity of the individual. The two provisions of the ICCPR particularly relevant to this prohibition are Articles 7 and 10.

Article 7 ICCPR reads:

“No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. In particular, no one shall be subjected without his free consent to medical or scientific experimentation.”

While it forbids them in absolute terms, Article 7 does not contain a definition of the prohibited acts. In its General Comment on Article 7, the HRC stated that it did not consider it necessary to draw up a list of prohibited acts or to establish sharp distinctions between torture and the other forms of ill-treatment, though such “distinctions depend on the nature, purpose and severity of the treatment applied.” Therefore, in its jurisprudence, the HRC often does not specify precisely which aspect of the prohibition has been breached, but simply states that there has been a violation of Article 7.

The HRC has indicated that the assessment of whether particular treatment constitutes a violation of Article 7 “depends on all circumstances of the case, such as the duration and manner of the treatment, its physical or mental effects as well as the sex, age and state of health of the victim.” Elements such as the victim’s age and mental health may therefore aggravate the effect of certain treatment so as to bring it within Article 7. However, it is not sufficient that treatment be capable of producing an adverse physical or mental effect; it must be proven that this has occurred in a specific case.

The second sentence of Article 7 ensures that the prohibition is understood to include any medical or scientific experimentation conducted without the free consent of the subject. This specific prohibition was a response to atrocities committed by doctors in Nazi concentration camps during World War II. In this regard, the Committee has stated that special protection is necessary for persons not capable of giving valid consent, in particular those deprived of their liberty, who should not be subjected to any medical or scientific experimentation that may be detrimental to their health.

Article 10 ICCPR states:

“All persons deprived of their liberty shall be treated with humanity and with respect for the inherent dignity of the human person.” Article 10 complements, for those who have been deprived of their liberty, the prohibition of torture and ill-treatment. Not only may detainees not be subjected to treatment contrary to Article 7, but they also have a positive right to be treated with respect. This provision means that detainees may not be “subjected to any hardship or constraint other than that resulting from the deprivation of liberty; respect for the dignity of such persons must be guaranteed under the same conditions as for that of free persons.” It therefore covers forms of treatment which would not be sufficiently severe to qualify as cruel, inhuman or degrading under Article 7. From the jurisprudence of the HRC, it seems that the Committee tends to apply Article 10(1) to general conditions of detention, reserving Article 7 for situations where an individual is subjected to specific attacks on his or her personal integrity.

To support a finding of a violation of Article 7, a detainee must show that he or she has been subjected to worse treatment than other detainees. In Pinto v Trinidad and Tobago, the author complained about appalling conditions of detention, but “failed to provide details on the treatment he was subject to, other than by reference to conditions of detention that affected all inmates equally.”

The HRC therefore concluded that there had been no violation of Article 7. In contrast, in Mukong v Cameroon, the fact that the author was “singled out for exceptionally harsh and degrading treatment,” including being “detained incommunicado,… threatened with torture and death and intimidated, deprived of food, and kept locked in his cell for several days on end without the possibility of recreation” led the Committee to find a violation of Article 7. It may be argued that a violation of Article 7 in respect of a person deprived of liberty automatically entails a violation of Article 10(1). In Linton v Jamaica, for example, the Committee considered that “The physical abuse inflicted on the author,… the mock execution set up by prison warders and the denial of adequate medical care after the injuries sustained in the aborted escape attempt… constitute cruel and inhuman treatment within the meaning of article 7 and, therefore, also entail a violation of article 10, paragraph 1, of the Covenant”.

In 1984, for the purposes of describing specific measures against torture, the UNCAT included a definition of torture: “any act by which severe pain or suffering, whether physical or mental, is intentionally inflicted on a person for such purposes as obtaining from him or a third person information or a confession, punishing him for an act he or a third person has committed or is suspected of having committed, or intimidating or coercing him or a third person, or for any reason based on discrimination of any kind, when such pain or suffering is inflicted by or at the instigation of or with the consent or acquiescence of a public official or other person acting in an official capacity. It does not include pain or suffering arising only from, inherent in or incidental to lawful sanctions.”
The UNCAT also requires States to prevent "other acts of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment which do not amount to torture..., when such acts are committed by or at the instigation of or with the consent or acquiescence of a public official or other person acting in an official capacity."

However, the UNCAT provides no definition of such acts. The Committee against Torture has itself recognized that "In practice, the definitional threshold between cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment and torture is often not clear."

One common element of the definitions of torture and other forms of ill-treatment under the UNCAT is that all must involve a public official or someone acting in an official capacity. However, for the purposes of the UNCAT, cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment may “not amount to torture” either because it does not have the same purposes as torture, or because it is not intentional, or perhaps because the pain and suffering is not “severe” within the meaning of Article 1. It is therefore instructive to analyze these aspects of the definition of torture in Article 1 in more detail.

The purposes specifically named in Article 1 do not constitute an exhaustive list; “such purposes as” indicates that other similar purposes may be included. The element joining these purposes is perhaps best understood as “some connection with the interests or policies of the State and its organs”. Sufficiently severe pain or suffering inflicted by a public official purely sadistically, but for no other purpose, would therefore appear to be excluded from the definition of torture. However, it is likely that such behavior would come within the scope of the UNCAT if there was an additional element of punishment or intimidation, and acquiescence by the State.

Under both the UNCAT and the ICCPR, States parties have a duty to investigate allegations of torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment.

**Article 12** of the UNCAT provides:

“Each State Party shall ensure that its competent authorities proceed to a prompt and impartial investigation, wherever there is reasonable ground to believe that an act of torture has been committed in any territory under its jurisdiction.”

This obligation to investigate is complemented by **Article 13**, which provides that individuals shall have the right to complain to the competent authorities, and that the State shall take steps to protect the complainant and witnesses against reprisal. Articles 12 and 13 also apply to acts of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment.

Furthermore, the investigation must be effective, carried out by appropriately qualified individuals, and “seek both to determine the nature and circumstances of the alleged acts and to establish the identity of any person who might have been involved therein.” At least where it is necessary to ensure the right of redress, the alleged victim must be informed of the outcome of the investigation. **Article 2(1)** ICCPR requires that the State ensure Covenant rights to all individuals within its territory and subject to its jurisdiction, and **Article 2(3)** provides that persons whose rights are violated shall have an effective remedy, with their right thereto to be determined by the competent authorities. Taken together with **Article 7**, these provisions mean that “Complaints [about ill-treatment] must be investigated promptly and impartially by competent authorities.”

Furthermore, the right to lodge complaints against ill-treatment must be recognized in the State’s domestic law. The HRC has held that investigation should not depend on the receipt of a complaint, but should be initiated as soon as there are grounds for believing that ill-treatment has occurred. The UNCAT explicitly obliges States to enact and enforce legislation criminalizing torture, while a similar duty may also be inferred in the ICCPR.

**UNCAT....**

**Article 4** of the UNCAT provides:

1. Each State Party shall ensure that all acts of torture are offences under its criminal law. The same shall apply to an attempt to commit torture and to an act by any person which constitutes complicity or participation in torture.
2. Each State Party shall make these offences punishable by appropriate penalties which take into account their grave nature." This Article is limited in its application to torture, and is not among those listed in **Article 16** as applying also to other forms of ill-treatment.

The CAT now systematically asks States Parties about domestic criminal law, and has repeatedly emphasised that **Article 4** requires States to “incorporate into domestic law the crime of torture and adopt a definition of torture that covers all the elements contained in article 1 of the Convention.”

Where such a law has been adopted, the Committee will consider both its compatibility with the definition in **Article 1** of the UNCAT and its enforcement in practice.

**Article 2(2)** of the ICCPR provides:

“Where not already provided for by existing legislative or other measures, each State Party to the present Covenant undertakes to take the necessary steps, in accordance with its constitutional processes and with the provisions of the present Covenant, to adopt such laws or other measures as may be necessary to give effect to the rights
recognized in the present Covenant.”

This is broader than the requirement in Article 4 of the UNCAT, both in terms of the wider range of measures to be taken and the broader scope of treatment potentially covered. For present purposes, however, as Article 7 prohibits torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, Article 2(2) specifically requires States to adopt laws or take other measures against all of these forms of ill-treatment.

The HRC clearly considers that the necessary steps to prevent violations of Article 7 will include criminalizing acts of torture and other ill-treatment, and, in its General Comment on Article 7, stated that “States Parties should indicate when presenting their reports the provisions of their criminal law which penalize torture and cruel, inhuman and degrading treatment or punishment, specifying the penalties applicable to such acts, whether committed by public officials or other persons acting on behalf of the State, or by private persons.”

The Committee will consider not only the adequacy of such laws in addressing torture and other forms of ill-treatment, but also their enforcement in practice. Furthermore, the HRC has stated that “[t]hose who violate Article 7, whether whether by encouraging, ordering, tolerating or perpetrating prohibited acts, must be held responsible.”

Both the UNCAT and the ICCPR impose an obligation on States Parties to grant redress and provide adequate compensation to victims of torture or ill-treatment.

Article 14 of the UNCAT provides: “Each State Party shall ensure in its legal system that the victim of an act of torture obtains redress and has an enforceable right to fair and adequate compensation, including the means for as full rehabilitation as possible. In the event of the death of the victim as a result of an act of torture, his defendants shall be entitled to compensation.”

The CAT considers that “the right to an effective remedy for a breach of the Convention underpins the entire Convention, for otherwise the protections afforded by the Convention would be rendered largely illusory.” The HRC and the CAT have both generated a rich jurisprudence on the extent of State obligations related to the prohibition of torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment beyond the ‘traditional’ view of preventing the use of torture in interrogations. Related with the conditions of detention, both the HRC and the CAT recognise that conditions of detention may themselves constitute ill-treatment or, in extreme cases, torture. However, the wider detention system may also create conditions conducive to torture or ill-treatment, or, on the contrary, an environment in which such acts are not tolerated. Given their reduced autonomy, prisoners and other detainees are particularly vulnerable to abuse.

The ICCPR therefore includes an article explicitly requiring that detainees be treated with humanity, and the Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment aims to “establish a system of regular visits undertaken by independent international and national bodies to places where people are deprived of their liberty, in order to prevent torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.”

3. Conclusion

The conclusions, recommendations and decisions of the treaty bodies are not legally binding in the strictest sense; they have only advisory power. However, treaty bodies have, over time, come to make fuller use of the flexibility inherent in this relatively limited power, expanding the definitions of torture and ill-treatment, the extent of State obligations, and scope of application of the prohibition. This is also a reflection of the progress made towards entrenchment of a human rights culture in every region of the world.

The HRC, as the older of the two bodies, has been noticeably braver than the CAT in a number of the areas discussed above. The treaty bodies meet for only a few weeks per year, and therefore, while their influence is of vital importance, they can make only a limited contribution to the international jurisprudence on torture. Just as the treaty bodies inspire the regional mechanisms, much of the jurisprudence of the treaty bodies reflects standards developed by the regional mechanisms. The treaty bodies have made a particularly high number of references to decisions of the European Commission and Court of Human Rights. This is to be expected; the European regional mechanisms were the first to be established, and the system has a much higher turnover of cases than the other bodies. Thus, it has arguably developed the most detailed jurisprudence on the prohibition of torture and other ill-treatment.

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News Agencies in the System of Modern Mass Media

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Abstract

The article is devoted to studying the role of news agencies in the modern media, new trends in their development that appear in increasing interactivity, multimedia, news personalization, multi-formatting material, increasing the share of entertainment block.

Keywords: News agencies, news, personalization, multimedia, content, multi-formatting

Modern mass media in comparison with other institutions of communication and culture now occupy a leading position worldwide. However, globalization, the progress of new technologies, the challenges of the modern era put before the mass media more and more complex problems and tasks. The emergence of new media, the restructuring of the functioning of traditional media, the decline in demand for print media – all these trends have not yet received their full comprehension. And the increased internal competition of professional mass media is complicated by the activity of bloggers and regular visitors of Internet portals.

In terms of the global challenges of modern civilization, followed by large-scale changes, mass media are also subjected to a heavy shake-up and awareness of the need to find new ways of organizing its structures, methods and techniques in work. This process in Kazakhstan’s mass media is just beginning while in foreign mass media we have long observed a massive process of adaptation to the new challenges of reality.

It turned out that under current conditions we can observe an increase but not a decrease, in contrast to other types of media, in popularity and demand for news agencies, those efficient and structured system is also subject to change today.

Since the beginning of the 1990s, news agencies are actively using the Internet not only to collect and disseminate information, but as basic platform for the activities, as a media environment. There are now Internet-agencies appearing which bypass intermediaries for the dissemination of information and turn themselves into full-fledged mass media with a set of individual typological features.

In the capital of Kazakhstan, Astana, on 21-22 November 2011 there took place the sixth Forum of European and Asian Media (FEAM) under the motto “20 years of independence: mass media and society”, organized by the constant media holding RIA Novosti.

The history of the Russian International Information Agency “RIA Novosti” began with the formation in the early days of the Great Patriotic War of the Soviet Information Bureau (Soviet Information Bureau) with the Council of People’s Commissioners of SSSR and Central Committee of all-USSR Communistic Party (of Bolsheviks) based on the resolution of the Council of People’s Commissioners of SSSR and the Central Committee of all-USSR Communistic Party (of Bolsheviks) “On the establishment and objectives of the Soviet information Bureau.” RIA “Novosti” is an actual socio-political, economic, scientific, financial information in Russian, main European and Arabic languages, which is distributed via electronic communication, as well as printed newsletters, bulletins and handbooks. The Forum was attended by over 250 media representatives from the CIS countries, Baltic states, Georgia, as well as media executives and leading media industry executives, bloggers, experts, analysts.

RIA Novosti is a News Agency of a new type, which is actively developing and successfully promoting new technologies and forms of work. The Sixth Forum FEAM remembers not only the use of modern technologies, but also new formats: electronic voting on the subject of the next forum, a discussion format “wall to wall” about the responsibility for the content of their posts of social networks users, tweet-walls, and screens which display messages of Twitter users dedicated to the Forum and its subjects, and they were being discussed immediately.

The basic material of news agencies is the news, main methods and principles of broadcasting – speed, brevity, timeliness, objectivity, all of these like nothing else corresponds to the spirit of the era of speed, when there is no time to...
analyze and comment. News has always been unique for its pace of obsolescence. If before the news became obsolete within 24 hours, today in happens in 3-4 hours. News is in a hurry to cancel and oust the prior news. Kaleidoscopic ability and redundancy of informational noise are supplemented today by a clearly marked discourse of simulacrum of forming images of reality.

It is difficult to deny that we are now fully under the influence of the reality, which is made by mass media. The product of news agencies in a more visual form demonstrates the ability of mass media to create our own reality from the fragments and base on the principle of the simulacrum. The war in Iraq or in Afghanistan is presented to us, one would think, in real time and exactly as we have seen it (on TV) or just the way we read about in the news media outlets. But all that is left over or behind the text, as if it does not exist.

Today, news agencies can successfully complement their text materials with photographs, videos, informational graphics, but still the test number (тестовый ряд) of news agencies dominates in materials, in comparison with TV.

But, unfortunately, news agencies as well as all mass media are now actively constructing a kind of reality which is different and simultaneously seeming more real than reality itself.

In the work of Kevin Robins called “Inside the image” it is said: “all the more we come to the fact that we see the world indirectly, and as this happens, we get a greater and greater opportunity to leave and withdraw from the contact with reality” [1, P. 44].

J. Baudriyard [2] in his article “The Procession of Simulacra” concludes that mass media have neutralized reality. According to J. Baudriyard, at the start mass media reflect reality, then mask and distort it, the next stage – disguising the lack of reality and at the last stage mass media produce a simulacrum of reality. Researchers believe that such simulacrum is the destruction of all values and all relationships with reality, death of discourse.

The visual media often use multiple methods of recognition, the truth of the events, referring to the identity of a situation, event, showing documentary footage. However, it often turns out that this is not a documentary photography, but gaming, imitating reality.

News agencies also tend to emphasize the authenticity, reliability of the reported news, their argument is now factual account, but the truth of the facts in the text material is difficult to be verified. Therefore, more and more often in today’s mass media, the reality is not what has actually happened, but what is presented as happened.

Thus, mass media almost always produce large and small simulacra (hyper-real), pushing the real attractor away and replacing it with a strange media attractor of the narrative recreation of events and facts.

Media-image of the event does not in all correspond to reality, primarily because the events do not coincide in time, the selection of important facts by a journalist, a news angle and degree of verbal narrative and the degree of verbal identity of objective comment.

Of course, text materials of news agencies to some extent are less prone to distortion of reality in comparison to television, where there is more and more use of external devices of pseudo-literary narrative, theatrical play, a visual perception of events, which promote creation of a huge ball of a strange media attractor.

However, textual materials of news agencies are willing to use such principles of postmodern as reflection of reality, as decentration, hybridization. This leads to a considerable diversity of major news, where each piece of news seems to cancel rather than complements the previous one, creating a flickering kaleidoscope of reality, where there is no center, no grounds, but there is a flicker of verbal shots that create excessive noise of information.

If television viewers are unable to actively discuss issues, interactivity has not become effective in the functioning of mass media, and information agencies can provide a platform for discussion of the information provided, but often there are few agencies interested in this, except for the content of those sections, which bring them profits, mainly related to economic and financial news agencies or to foreign news agencies that are actively reshaping the structure of broadcasting, focusing on the performance of those functions that promise financial profit.

Contemporary challenges civilizational changes induce the modern news agencies to focus on the multi-display world (personal computers, laptops, smart-phones, eye-phones, cell phone) so that the consumer had the opportunity to read news every minute from any screen.

Overseas 20 % of viewers read news today from a mobile phone, and earlier this number was only 2 %. This trend will also increase in the post-Soviet media space and over time in Poland and Kazakhstan.

We should point out expansion of possibilities, techniques and ways to enrich the content of news agencies as a varied use informational graphics, videos and photos.

Today, journalists of news agencies are not just providers of information, but very often service providers and advertisers.

There is a transformation of the semantic and style discourse in terms of singling out the two main areas of work of news agencies: news and consumer media. Today, due to reduced revenues from print advertising, many owners and
journalists of news agencies are paying close attention to the interests of online users. What they care about, what they read? Today more and more the worldwide mass media are guided by the interests and needs of readers, researchers call this phenomenon as the personalization of the work of news agencies.

Among the new trends in the work of information agencies we should single out a communicative function interactivity which is becoming more and more popular. Another news feature – website of news agencies are becoming more multi-functional, expanding in terms of multi-media, personalization, there are elements of relationships with social networks, more and more often information is provided in the form of multi-format material, which makes entertainment blocks of information wider and wider. All of this allows us to predict the increasing role of news agencies.

Abolition of censorship, the emergence of electronic publications of different types significantly stir up the content of news provided by news agencies of foreign countries and regions, all of which have special representative offices in our country, they are much more free in their choice of content and aspect of commenting events that take place in our country.

Moreover, it is important to emphasize that the speed, fractionality, sensationalism, and multidirectional feature of information about the same event is typical for news on the Internet. On the national television channels we can observe the wide use of clichés and a regular style in broadcasting news. And we should hardly blame the news agencies, which are the main source of supply of information. What is good enough for the news style of news agencies that limit themselves in news reports, does not justify the newspapers and TV channels that are not in a hurry to deepen the individual news investigation and an author’s commentary.

A serious problem of the media field of mass media is a shallow media coverage of the culture-creating flow of life. For example, journalists are often limited to the news about another film festival, and in Astana there is now an action festival of Timur Bekmambetov and his inner life seething with new everyday discoveries, and it often remains beyond the attention of viewers and readers.

So it turns out, that due to the growth of information flow the socio-political media field is narrowed, there is a basis for a manipulating perception of information, its substitution by rumors, unverified opinions.

Today’s news agencies have significantly more attention to the interests of the resistance of the consumer society, reviving attention to national culture, history and art.

Today’s news agencies pay significantly more attention to the resistance of interests the consumer society, reviving attention to the national culture, history and art.

References

Analysis of Corporate Web Sites as a Public Relations Tool, with Regards to Knowledge Management Process

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Abstract

The corporations that wish to create a successful web site and to perform their public relations activities on virtual environment, need to develop a system that can enable them to use the knowledge flow between the target audience and the corporation, the interaction among them and the knowledge inside and outside of the corporation effectively. For this purpose, a knowledge management system needs to direct the three important phases which are: knowledge sharing between the corporations and the target audience on web environment, knowledge acquisition and dissemination of the knowledge, in an interactive way. Implementation of an knowledge management process that includes aforementioned three phases will both enable the corporation to be in an interaction with the target audience and to obtain fast feedback. For this purpose, this study will examine the virtual public relations activities, that are implemented via their corporate web site, of first 20 companies who are chosen as Turkey’s most popular companies of 2012, by using content analysis, with regard to knowledge management process. So that, in order for the corporations to be distinguished from their competitors by gaining awareness before their target audience and to gain effective results in public relations activities, an establishment of a guide for the management of continuous knowledge flow that is generated inside and outside of the corporation, is aimed.

Keywords: Public Relations, Corporate Web Site, Knowledge Management Process

1. Introduction

With the internet usage, which is indispensable in today’s communication, becoming widespread in every field, public relations operators found the opportunity to interact with their target audiences on face to face basis (Jo and Jung, 2005: 25). One of the most efficient tools that enable this kind of communication between the corporations and target audience are the corporate web sites which enable the virtual presentations and are defined as the media of the new age. In this intense competitive environment, corporations having a web site, is as natural as them having a telephone number. For this reason, it is clear that establishment of a web site is necessary and important for the corporations (Er, 2008: 88).

One of the most important mediums of the intense communication efforts that are performed on corporate level are the web sites (Alan and Sungur, 2007: 131). Corporate web sites, which are also identified as corporations’ windows to the outside world, communicate to the target audience about the identity of the company, its history, the mission, vision, goal and purpose of the corporation, about the products/services offered, contact information of the corporation, the sale of products/services online and even have the structure to provide after sale services (Yeygel, 2005: 79). In other words, when the structure of the corporate web sites that offer different opportunities in one place, is analysed, it can be seen that promotional knowledge is presented. Due to these characteristics, web sites, for many corporations, carry the importance of a brochure and the web sites are seen as an promotion tool for the corporation. However, since there are no limits on Internet in terms of promotional opportunities, it is desired to take advantage of this interactive environment which can communicate with target audiences in effective and productive ways. In this regard, the ability for the corporations to use this knowledge flows with regard to knowledge that is within the corporation or outside of the corporation, interactions among the target audience, holds a critical importance in terms of success of public relations activity. Therefore, it is a fact that the corporations need a knowledge management system in order to accomplish these on a web environment.
In this study, by emphasizing the importance of knowledge management process in the establishment of corporate web sites to be used as a public relations tool, the virtual public relations activities of the most popular 20 companies of 2012 in Turkey will be analysed by using content analysis in terms of three phases of knowledge management process.

2. **Corporate Web Sites as Public Relations Tools**

Public relations is one of the fields of occupation that is growing increasingly popular. Public relations, which expresses the process of influencing the public opinion and being influenced by it, is the sum of the efforts that a corporation employs in order to become integrated with the society. However, the public, which every corporation interacts with, offer differences. For instance, for a government, public is every individual that reside in a country; for an institution they are its own members; for a sports club, they are its fans and for a company, public is all individuals and institutions that are within the organization and those who are outside of the organization, but have a link with the organization itself (Sabuncuoğlu, 1998:4).

The most basic function of the public relations is to establish a contact and to manage the communication between the corporations and the target audience. Whether it is informing the public or the need of connection with the managers, mutual dialogue, influencing individuals, being influenced by them, in other words, two-way communication and feedback constitute the essentials of public relations (Çanöz, 2008: 358). Even the medium and tools which are used for this reason in public relations emerge to be intended for the needs of different times, emergence of the Internet necessitated another train of thought in public relations and to rearrange the conventional public relations techniques. For this reason, Internet not only brought a radical change to the practice of public relations, but also enabled the testing and evaluation of old and new theoretical structures.

With the Internet being used in daily life, first Web 1.0 era, which has developed in 1989 by Tim Berners-Lee, had started, followed by the Web 2.0 era (interactive web), introduced by O’Reilly Media in 2004. The Web 1.0, which included only content host and content reader, was comprised of Internet sites which seem very visceral when compared to web sites of today. In this era when the users were in the position of data receiver, there was an unilateral communication between the web sites and the users and the content of the web sites could only be controlled by the web hosts. There were no interaction between the users and the web sites in Web 1.0 era and the inefficient technical substructure of Web 1.0 era sites led to the birth of more user-friendly Web 2.0. In a sense, this is a mutation in design and software technologies of the Internet world (Özkaya, 2012:357).

Internet, which is one of the most important building blocks of communication revolution and its usage technology Web 2.0, are not only mass mediums that can spread the knowledge and contribute without an intercessor, but also a natural medium which they can monitor the target audience and the chats that they contribute and gain feedbacks. (Özkaya, 2012: 358). And gaining feedback is the most appropriate starting point of two-way communication that can be established between corporations and target audiences.

The Internet and the web are important tools for public relations when appropriately planned to be used in the field of promotion. The messages which the corporations dispatch from different communication channels are collected at one address in the Internet medium. The web is a new communication tool in which millions of voices interact with each other in the multimedia communication environment. It is a powerful communication tool for the public relations experts and can be dangerous for the corporations. When used correctly, the web medium can be the most effective communication tool for the purpose of establishing a relationship between the corporation and the target audience and it involves all kinds of communication types, such as text, voice, graphic, photo, animation, music or video. Most importantly, web enables an establishment of information personalization and interactive communication for the large masses like never before. In the context of information technologies, all kinds of web based communication, such as e-mail, chat rooms, can be used to communicate effectively with employees, partners and volunteers (Saymer, 2008: 71).

Web sites are one of the most frequently used and most effective tools that serve to make connections and to maintain these with corporations (Taş ve Kestelioğlu, 2011: 12). For the corporations which need to shape their past and their future, a web site is one of the most crucial communication mediums. As a beneficial public relations tool, the web sites of corporations help to increase the awareness and understanding of the target audience in terms of corporations, product and services. More importantly, when its potential to improve the mutual communication is considered, it undertakes an important role in terms of communication management and even, knowledge management (Güçdemir, 2010: 61).

Corporations are able to convey all of their public relations activities to their target audiences with the presentations on their web sites. As corporations’ most effective public relations tools, the web sites, with their interactive features that enable two-way communication, are deemed as one of the most important indicators of institutionalization.
2.1 Establishment of Corporate Web Sites

The Internet and the web sites, without a doubt, provide endless possibilities for corporations. In this context, establishment of a web page means prestige, confidence and new customers for a corporation (Şencan, 2013: 105). Until today, the purpose of most of the corporations that has created a web site is to have a place in cyber space, to communicate with the target audience, to promote the business, to reach to the target audience swiftly and securely, to make sales online, to reduce their customer service and advertisement costs, to improve the communication with employees, to enter international markets, to reinforce corporate identity and corporate image (Okay and Canpolat, 2006: 448). In a study, made by Fortune magazine to determine the utilization purposes of the web sites of first 500 companies, it has been determined that many companies use their web sites to establish an internal communication and corporate image, to make direct sales or to reinforce their public relations activities (Hill and White, 2000: 31). However, there should be a difference between a web site that aims for promotional purpose and a web site that aims for sales purpose, in terms of design and content (Türk and Güven, 2007: 56-57). In the case of establishment of public relations driven corporate web pages, the goal is to make the visitors stay on the web page for a certain period of time, have a good time while surfing the site, interact with the corporation and make this process continuous. When a web site is created according to these needs, it can be stated that an effective communication with the target audience can be maintained via corporate web site (Alikılıç, 2011: 63).

The decision to be on cyber space and a creation of a web site should be managed professionally by the public relations experts. Accordingly, when corporations create web sites, they should try to make a positive perception by minding some of the basic principles (Sayimer, 2008: 90). These principles can be summarized as follows (Falk, 2000: 37-40; Er, 2011: 90-91; Yılmaz, 2011: 141; Theaker, 2006: 371; Güçdemir, 2010: 61-62):

- A web site should be genuine and easily accessible.
- The design of the pages should match the content and the purpose.
- All the links that are present on the web page should be accessible. In other words, there should be no dead links on the pages, because badly designed links might strike a negative impression for the user.
- The directional keys should be designed effectively and these keys should guide the users in a correct manner.
- Information should both be read easily and conveyed appropriately, with logic alignment. When read from left to right, the information which needs to be conveyed as priority should be located on the left side of the screen.
- Information should be presented as fast as possible on the screen. Because, this is the first time the user and the corporation meet and the web site should fully opened in 8 seconds.
- Should the user need more information, he/she should access these easily and inbound questions, requests and expectations should be answered in an absolute manner.
- Color schemes used on the page are highly important. Because they possess the characteristic to congest the time of the users, along with representing the corporation. It is important to prefer standard colour patterns that suit the computer best. When the format which the colours enable is taken into account, there shouldn’t be a one-dimensional tameness on the screen.
- All graphic and design works that are prepared should be understandable by the target audience. Generally, the users abandon the web sites which they find to have complex interfaces and prefer another web site that has a similar content. This affects the utility of some web pages in a negative way.
- An aesthetic and functional integrity should be presented between all the elements which are comprised on the design of the web page. Sites that have deranged designs and are unattractive, are not favoured by the target audiences.
- In terms of making an impact, sound and effects make a web site more effectual.
- Latest developments regarding the space should be regularly followed and the web sites need to be updated in certain intervals. There can be no success stories for the web sites that are not updated.
- Web site should be secure and should convey necessary security information. Since the users need to be certain that the information they enter on the forms or the credit card numbers will not be shared with others, the web site should include links such as privacy policy, security policy and security certification.
- In order to increase the visit times, interactive time spending times, there should be some elements are encouraging on the site, such as awards, games (like advergame) wallpapers, puzzles, competitions, etc.
- There should be a ‘what’s new’ section in order for the users to find new additions and access them directly.
For those individuals who wish to contact with the corporation, telephone, address and fax details should be included.

Users who surf on the web sites are engaged in more lively activities than the ordinary people of today. When this reality is looked upon from the perspectives of the corporations, the corporation which possess an ordinary web site is not deemed as ‘a corporation that exist in digital medium’. It is not sufficient enough for a corporation to create a web site and garnish it with attractive animations and thus, to attract Internet users. When we look at most corporate web sites, we see that they have good designs and possess attractive features such as colour, animation and photography. This is the main point which the public relations experts lose their bearings. The user, who has visited a corporate web site, in fact has found the site via search or has entered the site in hopes of finding information which he/she is curious about. However, when the Internet user cannot access this information or is bored due to slow web site and become distracted (Özkaya, 2010: 459), he/she abandons the site all together and never comes back. Therefore, the corporations should give the users a purpose to gain information, re-visit the site in the future, suggest the site to others, interact with each other and they should concentrate in this regard and make programs (Alikılıç, 2011: 65-66). In other words, in order to communicate with the target audience, they should motivate their target groups with regard to continuous web sites visits.

Halligan and Shah (2010: 12-13) have given their suggestions by drawing a successful analogy in creation of an active and successful web site. They have compared New York, which is a metropolis and has become a world city, has three airports, a large intercity bus garage and a metro connections with wide networks and two big train stations that connect the city to all other countries, with Massachussets state’s Wellesbey city that has only a highway within city limits and they have identified both of them with corporate web sites. Whilst talking about the circulation network of the city, the highways, planes, trains, busses are in fact search engines which has to other sites and not only they lead the traffic, but they also transfer passengers. For this reason, it is important for the corporations to decide between these two given cities and to choose the network of either city, in order to create a successful corporate web site. In addition to these, the public relations experts need to include understandable, creative, interesting, current and valuable content, in order to be attractive for the Internet users and they need to enable the partition and involvement of those contents, when they create the representative or even the showcase of the corporate image and brand value on the web (Yılmaz, 2011: 140). Moreover, there is the topic of different perception choices of target audience in regards to given contents. While some of them prefer reading, some will value visual content more. Thus, there needs to be appropriate image, audio or video content developed and the same content should be distributed to different groups with different formats (Güçdemir, 2010: 63). In this way, with their developed web site strategies, the corporations should enable continuous interaction and develop rich content that will attract the attention of the users, entertain them and more importantly, that will secure the continuity of these, in order to hold visitors in long term (Scott, 2009: 122).

2.2 Features That Need to Be Included in a Corporate Web Site

While the web sites, for the corporations, are tools that reduce the uncertainty, enable the communication with target audience and supervision of relations, for target audiences, there are tools that enable them to recognize and to understand the corporation in a better way. Therefore, web sites help corporations to conduct their public relations duties efficiently by enabling the publication of topics such as media relations, investor relations, human resources/career, institutive social responsibility, along with knowledge regarding the consumers and corporate knowledge. All these topics constitute the basic topics which the corporations need to include on their web pages.

In media relations, which is one of the topics included in the web sites, such knowledge like press releases, archive and photograph are included, which can be used in news creation process. Under investor relations, financial analysis, statistics, stock knowledge and annual reports for the investors, can be found which directly targets the investor group. Under human resources or career topic, there will be knowledge regarding online job applications intended at potential employees, corporate employment conditions and internship possibilities are included. Another topic, which is corporate social responsibility, includes the social responsibility attitude of the company and the social investment oriented activities are introduced. And the knowledge that is aimed at the consumers that visit the web site contain knowledge regarding the product, brands and services (images, graphics, campaigns, ‘what’s knew’ sections, etc.). The history of the corporation, its vision and mission, activity areas, its insignie/logo, contact knowledge (address, telephone, fax, etc.) employee list, messages from the administration, directors and partners, if any, will be under the corporate section and this section is specifically designed as to be a promotional section for the general public for the corporation. (Robbins and Stylianou, 2002: 207; Saymer, 2006: 169-170; Yurdakul, 2006: 209-210; Yılmaz, 2011: 140).

Today, as the most powerful tool with regard to self-promotion of the corporation, the other features that need to be included on the corporate web sites are: site map registration form, online survey form, contact form, PR contact name,
his/her e-mail address, phone and fax number, chat rooms, site update time, online order/purchase form, frequently asked questions, number of visitors for the site, newsgroups, links for relevant web sites, links to social networks that belong to the corporation, etc. (Saymer, 2006: 163-164). Therefore public relations will be able to provide knowledge to news corporations, make contact with all target audiences, gain knowledge about different target groups, establish a status symbol for the corporation, make online sales, reach international markets, reach many people who are surfing the net and to perform other public relations tasks through the web site that has the abovementioned features (Türk and Güven, 2007: 55). If the corporations, that wish to perform public relations activities on virtual platform, consider the abovementioned features when creating web sites, they will be rewarded with a sustainable competitive advantage. As is seen, due to combination of different contents in an integrated platform, public relations on the Internet require a strategic and attentive planning.

3. The Importance of Knowledge Management Process in Establishment of Corporate Web Sites as Public Relations Tools

In today’s constantly globalizing world, both constant and swift alteration and uncertainty and economic, social, political and technological alteration and development make it hard for the organizations to stand tall in this fierce competitive environment. In such an environment, the success rate for the corporations to reach their targets and to seize on their intended successes will depend on their ability to manage the knowledge. Because, knowledge has become the most important production factor in today’s world (Çetinkaya, 2012: 157). For this reason, this age is referred as knowledge age, the society is referred as knowledge society and the individuals are referred as knowledge employees. In such a period, it will not be a mistake to see the knowledge management as the most important element of the corporate management (Selvi, 2012: 202-203).

In the new society, which the new economy has given birth to, factors such as the capacity to access knowledge, the opportunity and the ability to adhere to knowledge and the ability to benefit from the knowledge, will determine the socio-economic positions of individuals and corporations (Clarke, 2001: 189). In such an economic and social structure where the knowledge plays a central role, the corporations that exist in this structure will only survive if they are successful in determination and evaluation of knowledge sources, production of organizational knowledge, procurement and development of knowledge, sharing and usage of knowledge. Therefore, the corporations need to manage their knowledge efficiently.

3.1 Knowledge and Knowledge Management

In today’s business world, the speed of alteration is gradually increasing and this makes it essential to learn and to gain knowledge. Knowledge is information that is organized in a personalized way. It is integrated with previous knowledge which has been obtained by learning and experience. In other words, knowledge is the enriched state of information through comment, analysis and context. Information, on the other hand, is the state of associated, organized and process data. Just like the way information is created from data, knowledge is created from information. The information flow between the people enables the creation of knowledge. If gained information carries a value, it is integrated with the fund of knowledge of the person who gains it and is added to the knowledge storage. If it does not carry any value, it is rejected and erased (Barutçuğil, 2002: 58).

Knowledge shows itself in routine works, processes, applications and norms in the corporations, not only in documents or folders (Davenport and Prusak, 2001: 27). In order to survive and to maintain their competitive edges, the corporations need to manage their knowledge efficiently. In this context, the organizations that are able to manage their corporate knowledge in a certain system not only reach their goals easily, but also achieve the opportunity to compete and resist the competition in this constantly developing world. The corporations which comprehend the importance of knowledge and develop and use these, can see that these short term steps are returned to them as added values. For this reason, many corporations that desire to improve their organizational performances make an effort to produce, to share and to use their corporate knowledge sufficiently. In exchange for this effort, the corporations transform into more productive and procreative organizations and they are able to implement structural changes that satisfy their employees and the individuals who they provide services to (Odabaş, 2003: 367).

For the corporation, knowledge management is a system that paves the way for acquisition, storage and sharing of knowledge. It is possible to reach different goals regarding the usage of a knowledge management system in a corporation. These can be listed as: measurement, establishment of a synergy between faster work processes and employees, revealing hidden accumulations and knowledge for the benefit of organizational performance and increasing
the intellectual capital of the corporation (Yalçın and Ene, 2008: 245). Intellectual capital is a concept which is comprised of correlative interaction of three components: basic human capital (the sum of knowledge, ability and behaviour of employees), structural capital (the sum of tools, means and processes that the corporation possess) and customer capital (the value that is attributed to the relationship between the customers and the company) (Göksel and Baytekin, 2008: 81).

Generally, the knowledge management expresses an organization process that possesses a perspective which aims an efficient usage of the information for the targets of the organization and an organization process which possesses efforts with regard to this perspective. According to another description, knowledge management is the act performed by the organization, to classify, analyse, interpret and include the data which the organization have or acquired externally, to the organization processes. According to Zaim (2005: 80), knowledge management is the development of a conscious and systematic strategy that enables to share and to organize the correct knowledge, at the right time, with the right people.

In order to understand knowledge management, it is required to analyse the basic steps and the basic acts in the application. Here, four basic steps, like conceptualizing, reflection, action planning and inspection, are discussed (Barutçugil, 2002: 71).

- **Conceptualizing:** To perform an investigation and classification study, in order to find which knowledge assets a corporation has. To investigate where the knowledge assets are located, in what form they are discovered, how accessible they are and their benefits.
- **Reflection:** To analyse to see what kind of a benefit can knowledge bring to the corporation. To analyse the opportunities of using knowledge assets, to determine the usage impact.
- **Action Planning:** To determine the necessary acts in order to obtain more added value. To resolve the way that the practices will be planned, started and followed in order to use knowledge assets. To integrate knowledge existence with relevant activities.
- **Inspection:** To evaluate the knowledge usage in order to provide added value. To determine if the knowledge existence provides the added value and to resolve the means to store for repetitive usage. To evaluate if the usage creates new opportunities.

3.2 Knowledge Management Process

Knowledge represents a dynamic process, not a static entity. Many corporations across the globe, having many different characteristics, have recognized the importance of knowledge as the source and the importance of knowledge management as the process itself. Discussion of knowledge management as a corporation process is an approach which has been widely accepted since 1990s. This can be also expressed as a process in which the corporations establish their own corporate and collective knowledge. In this context, it can be said that the knowledge management is an applicable and extensive process for many different organizations, from private sector to public sector, from universities to military institutions.

Filius et al. (2000: 287-288), have stated that basic activities, such as adoption (procurement and development), internalization (storage and protection), sharing (transfer and generalization) and usage (application, evaluation) of knowledge, are virtually contained in the knowledge management processes of all organizations, if not by name. As for Wiig (1997: 6-14), knowledge management processes are expressed as collection of knowledge from various sources, procreation, transformation to different knowledge, dissemination within the corporation and operation of knowledge and finally valuing its significance. And Malhotra (2003: 68), has determined six steps, in order to benefit from the knowledge management process as much as possible. These are, being conscious of knowledge, determining the purpose of knowledge gain, storage of knowledge, dissemination of knowledge, interpretation and application of knowledge.

There are three basic forces which support the consecutive phases of knowledge management process and enable these phases to materialize successfully or fail them. These are technology, processes and culture (Barutçugil, 2002: 71; Şencan, 2013: 27):

- **Technology:** It is a platform that compiles, cultivates, publishes all information of customers, employees and corporation - so that it also includes the sub structure of communication and information processing center. It represents Internet, intranet, multimedia tools and technology. The importance of technology is that it enables everyone to access information 24 hours a day, 365 days a year, from anywhere.
- **Processes:** They are standards, reporting systems, decision making and problem solving processes, performance evaluation and awarding systems that support the corporation culture and provide its adaptation
Culture: The context of attitude and behaviour patterns, beliefs and values system, management styles, folkways, the vision of the corporation and its long term goals should be reflected in terms of culture.

Knowledge management owes its development (in terms of instrumental), mostly to information technologies. Many organizations have recognized the necessity of knowledge management in application and along with swift developments in the communication and information technologies, the sensibility of these organizations to knowledge management studies have increased.

3.3 Corporate Web Sites as a Public Relations Tool, in the Context of Knowledge Management Process

The Web is a knowledge platform that provides various kinds of services that make life easier (Şencan, 2013: 100). Since the first step of establishing good relations with target audience and developing them, is to provide them knowledge, it is important to emphasize the importance of the web, in the context of public relations.

The environments, in which the knowledge exists intensely today, are the Internet and the web sites which are integral parts of the Internet (Uçak and Çakmak, 2009: 279). With their knowledge transfer and sharing functions, the active usage of the web sites, which are one of the most effective tools that enable communication between corporations and target audience and provide virtual presentations, by the target audience, provides an important role in determining the activity of public relations (Fırlar, 2010: 154). Particularly today, the corporations make great efforts, in terms of time and cost, to establish a positive image. For this reason, corporate web sites are one of the most important image creation tools of the corporation in 21st century (Gücüdemir, 2010: 61).

For those corporations who create a web site and desire to perform public relations in the virtual environment; it is important for them to establish a system where they can efficiently use inner and outer corporation knowledge, the interaction among the target audience and knowledge flow with the corporation, in order to be successful. In this context, the knowledge management system that is to be developed requires an interactive management of three important phases between the corporation and target audience in the web environment: “knowledge dissemination”, “knowledge acquisition” and “knowledge sharing” (Nah et al., 2002: 127).

3.3.1 Dissemination of Knowledge

Knowledge is acquired from the internal activities that are in organizational level or form external sources that have communications with the business structure. Companies transform the necessary information to knowledge when they require, using the relations with inner and external environments. (Selvi, 2012: 204).

Dissemination of knowledge is expressed as a process in which the information gathered from different sources is shared. To enable the distribution of knowledge from the corporation web site to the target audience, the web site should be configured according to the topics below:
- Different language option
- Site map
- In-site search function
- Update date of the site
- Link connection
- Media relations (press room)
- Corporate knowledge
- Knowledge regarding investors
- Knowledge regarding consumers
- Knowledge regarding the corporate social responsibility studies
- Knowledge regarding human resources
- Privacy knowledge
- Security knowledge

3.3.2 Knowledge Acquisition

To monitor and to gain knowledge of the impressions and experiences of target audience on the web site constantly, there should be a substructure of the web site with regards to some topics:
- Registration (i.e. registration information and password)
3.3.3 Knowledge Sharing

For the continuity of the companies, it is crucial to know the time of knowledge sharing, which knowledge is being shared, why and to what extent. Since possession of knowledge means possession of prerogative power, it can be said that sharing this power could induce power loss or gain (Selvi, 2012: 205).

The knowledge flow between the target groups and the corporation and the flow among the target groups is relatively important, in terms of the efficiency of public relations studies that are practiced on Internet environment. Instantly replying to written messages or replying via e-mail afterwards is an important indicator as to how the target audience is valued and an indicator of service aspiration and speed. And this will increase the satisfaction and confidence of the target group.

- Visitor count of the web site
- Service hotline
- Chat room
- Frequently asked questions
- E-mail link
- Forum and newsgroups (newsgroups are Internet discussion forums where the user groups that have fields of interest talk about many topics, ranging from technology to politics).
- PR contact (the contact person name, his/her e-mail address, telephone and fax number is rather a necessity for the press)
- Corporate blog
- Job application form
- Fun (i.e. advergame, awards, music)
- Links to social networks belonging to the corporation (i.e. Facebook, Twitter, Linkedin, Flickr)

4. Analysis of Corporate Web Sites as Public Relations Tool, in the Context of Knowledge Management System

4.1 Purpose of the Study

The corporations, who desire to create a web site and perform successful public relations activities on the web, need to establish a system where they can effectively use the knowledge inside and outside of the corporation, the interaction between themselves and the target audience and knowledge flow within the corporation. In this context, a knowledge management system that has been established, require an interactive management of three important phases – called “dissemination of knowledge”, “knowledge acquisition”, “knowledge sharing” – between the corporation and target audience on the web environment. The application of the knowledge management system, which includes the aforementioned three phases, will both enable the corporation to have constant interaction with the target audience and to acquire rapid feedback (Yağcı and Ene, 2008: 246). In the study which has been prepared with these objectives, the virtual public relations activities of the most popular 20 companies of 2012 in Turkey, which they have performed via their corporate websites, will be studied in detail in terms of knowledge management process. Thus, it is aimed to instruct the corporations in relation to efficient management of constant knowledge flow, from both inside and outside of the corporation, in order for the corporations to be differentiated from their competitors in front of their target audience and to deliver successful results in their public relations activities.

4.2 Method of the Study

In order to reach the goal of the study, the virtual public relations activities of the most popular 20 companies of 2012 in Turkey, which they have performed via their corporate websites, have been reviewed in terms of knowledge management process, by using inventional study model. The modelling of web analysis that is related to the study, is based on the studies of Nah et al. (2002) and Sayimer (2006) and a new model has been configured by expanding these studies. Afterwards, the virtual public relations activities of the corporations are analysed by using content analysis, in terms of
three phases ("dissemination of knowledge", "knowledge acquisition", "knowledge sharing") that make up the knowledge management process on the web.

Content analysis is a study technique that enables the communication content to be performed systematically, generally within the scope of predetermined classifications (categories). The most important reason of its popular usage is that the knowledge with rich content is revealed by means of standard labels (Altunışık et al., 2001: 226). Content can be all kinds of content, both textual; like the articles in the newspapers and visual; auditory, like TV and radio shows, movies and documentaries, group discussions, musical recordings, advertisements, video games and web sites (Kurtuluş, 2010: 51; Geray, 2011: 151; Bilgin, 2006: vii; Aziz, 2011: 135). Nevertheless, content analysis is a convenient tool for many descriptive and descriptive studies. Moreover, content analysis can be performed qualitatively and quantitatively and in the manner that it includes the mixture of both methods (Erdoğan, 1998: 81; Altunışık et al., 2001: 223-224).

The emergence of content analysis notion in the communication studies goes back a long way. In 1910, Max Weber, a popular sociologist, suggested to use this technique in order to determine how much the newspapers concentrate on social and political events. Weber’s suggestion can be the start of “making a current issue”, due to the fact that it tried to answer the question of what the newspapers put on the headlines (Gunter, 2002: 220-221). Therefore, content analysis has emerged, among social science study techniques, as a technique which has been used oriented at the content in mass media tools and later, contents, such as individual (psychological) and corporative (i.e. Education fields), have started to use this technique (Geray, 2011: 151). With this purpose in mind, this study has researched the virtual public relations activities of corporations by performing content analysis, in the context of knowledge management processes on the web environment.

4.3 Sample of the Study

For this study, it has been decided to consider the analysis sample of 2012 results of monthly business and economics magazine Capital’s study, which focuses on most popular companies of Turkey by conducting a survey with 1555 managers. In this study, which is limited with the 2012’s most popular 20 companies in Turkey, aforesaid companies represent different sectors and are among the biggest companies in Turkey, in terms of turnover and profitability. These companies are, respectively, as follows: Turkcell, Garanti Bankası, Coca-Cola, Arçelik, Koç Holding, Unilever, Türkiye İş Bankası, Procter & Gamble, Eczacibaşı Group, Turkish Airlines, Doğuş Group, Microsoft, Sabancı Holding, Borusan Holding, Ülker, Tümpraş, Mercedes Benz Türk, Vodafone, Akbank, BSH (Bayıksef and Fırat, 2012).

It will be presented how these companies, which are among the most successful companies in Turkey in terms of turnover and profitability, have managed to reach this level of success in interactive management of virtual public relations activities, performed via their web sites.

4.4 Content Analysis of Corporate Web Sites

In order to perform content analysis in the context of this study, Turkish web sites of the companies, which were listed under the Google search engine, performed between June 1st - 20th 2013, were found. Afterwards, the corporate web sites of 2012’s most popular 20 companies in Turkey were analysed in terms of specific features related to knowledge management phases and these findings are shown by putting an “X” mark across the web sites that possess these features on Table 1, Table 2 and Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Dissemination of Knowledge from the Web Sites of Corporations</th>
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<td><strong>Companies</strong></td>
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Table 2. Corporation Knowledge Acquisition via Web Sites
Table 3. Knowledge Sharing of Corporations

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<th>Companies</th>
<th>Visitor Count of the Web Site</th>
<th>Service Hotline</th>
<th>Chat Room</th>
<th>Frequently Asked Questions</th>
<th>E-mail Link</th>
<th>Forum and Newsgroups</th>
<th>PR Contact</th>
<th>Corporate Blog</th>
<th>Job Application Form</th>
<th>Fun</th>
<th>Links to Social Networks</th>
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<td>BSH</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage Rate</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 Findings of the Study

In this study, virtual public relations activities, which were examined by the means of their corporate web sites, of 2012’s most popular 20 companies in Turkey, were analysed in terms of knowledge management phases, as seen in Table 1, Table 2 and Table 3, by using content analysis. Relevant results regarding the dissemination of knowledge from the corporations’ web sites are as follows:

As seen in Table 1, 95% of the 20 companies include corporate knowledge, 90% of them include knowledge regarding consumers and human resources, 85% include in-site search function on their web sites and knowledge regarding corporate social responsibility, 75% of them include site map, link connection, media relations and knowledge regarding investors, 70% include privacy knowledge, 65% include various language options, 30% of them include security knowledge and 15% include site update knowledge.

Relevant results regarding the Corporations’ knowledge acquisition via their web sites are as follows:

As seen in Table 2, 95% of the 20 companies include contact forms, 50% include registration, 20% include online order/purchase form on their web sites. Survey form is found on none of the web pages of the companies studied.

And relevant results regarding the corporations’ knowledge sharing is as follows:

As seen in Table 3, 95% of the 20 companies include job application form, 80% include links to social networks belonging to the corporations (Facebook, Twitter, Linkedin, Flickr, etc.), 60% include frequently asked questions, 50% include service hotline, 25% include e-mail links, 15% include corporate blog and fun, 10% include chat rooms and 5% include forum and chat rooms and PR contact on their web sites. Visitor count knowledge is found on none of the company web sites.
5. Conclusion and Assessment

In the Internet environment, public relations increase the recognition of corporations and contribute positively to the corporation image. Therefore, the Internet, with its flexible structure, interaction environment it provides and diversity, present big opportunities for public relations. Herein, it is important for the public relations to apprehend the Internet with its dimension to communicate and to use this environment in the most effective way. In this regard, public relations pragmatists show interest to Internet environment and particularly to the web sites in recent years.

Corporate web sites provide opportunities, such as faster and easier dissemination of company knowledge, the ability to make research regarding the target audience, publication of corporate bulletin and means to act as a public relations tool with all these features (Sayimer, 2006: 164). Besides, making a connection with target audience through a corporate web site will help to align the corporate policies and public requests and expectations. Moreover, the target audience who are informed through the web sites will feel like a partner of the corporation due to this interactive environment. Consequently, public relations pragmatists will have to establish and develop web sites that put the spotlight on the corporation, enable a two-way communication with target audience and increase the awareness on target audience. However, the important factor here is to provide knowledge to the target audiences and to develop strategies that will improve the relations with them.

In this study, where the knowledge management structures of these sites’ overviews are presented and based upon the virtual public relations applications of 2012’s most popular 20 companies in Turkey, in order for the abovementioned corporations to recognize their positive and negative aspects, along with differentiating themselves from the competitors in front of their target audience and to gain efficient results in their public relations activities, it is intended to guide the corporations in terms of constant knowledge coming from inside and outside of the corporation. When compared in terms of dissemination of knowledge, knowledge acquisition and knowledge sharing, it is seen that 20 companies, which are analysed in the context of the study, place less emphasis on applications regarding the knowledge sharing and more emphasis on applications regarding dissemination of knowledge and knowledge acquisition. Therefore, it can be said that those corporations which desire to be more successful in public relations activities, need to place more emphasis on applications that are related to knowledge sharing on their web sites.

As a continuation of this study, corporate web sites, as public relations tools for the companies that exist on certain sectors, can be analysed with content analysis in terms of knowledge management process. Thus, it will be possible to specify in which sector the corporate websites, as a means of public relations, create more interaction with the target audience in terms of “dissemination of knowledge”, “knowledge acquisition” and “knowledge sharing”, which constitute the three significant steps of knowledge management process.

References


Cost of Non-Respiratory Drugs in Copd

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Abstract

Poly-therapy is often prescribed for the treatment of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) patients. The numerous drugs are needed to treat COPD and also its comorbidities. Medicines needed to treat comorbid conditions add to the daily cost of COPD care. This study evaluates the costs of all reimbursed drugs used from Albanian outpatients with COPD over a year, in order to highlight the impact of non-respiratory drugs. Methods The data on costs of all reimbursed drugs used in 2012 from insured COPD outpatients were obtained from Health Insurance Institute database. Drugs and their costs were divided according to the first level (main anatomical group) and the second level (main therapeutical group) of International Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification system. All the data are calculated with Microsoft Office Excel program. Results In 2012 non-respiratory drugs represented 45% of total drug reimbursement for Albanian outpatients with COPD. More expensive drugs were the ones acting on: Cardiovascular system (57% of non-respiratory drug reimbursement), Alimentary tract and metabolism (16%), Sensory organs (7%), Genito-urinary system and sexual hormones (6%) and Nervous system (5%). It was found no correlation between the number of COPD outpatients and non-respiratory drug reimbursement. Non-respiratory drugs used in insured COPD outpatients are associated with considerable cost and they should be considered when estimating economic burden of COPD. Drugs acting in cardiovascular system and those used in diabetes have the most increased cost among them.

Keywords: ATC classification, COPD, cost, drugs.

1. Introduction

Most Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) patients suffer from other chronic medical conditions as well.1,2 These conditions that are common at any severity of COPD3 are called comorbidities. Frequent comorbidities of patients with COPD include arthritis, cardiac disorders, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, lipid disorders, psychiatric conditions, gastrointestinal diseases, cancer, and osteoporosis (Table 1). Although it is widely accepted that COPD is associated with certain comorbidities the precise prevalence varies largely among epidemiological studies.2

Table 1. Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease and the prevalence of common comorbidities (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Arthritis</th>
<th>Cardiac</th>
<th>HTN</th>
<th>Diabetes</th>
<th>Lipids</th>
<th>Psych</th>
<th>Gl</th>
<th>Cancer</th>
<th>Osteoporosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>van Manen and colleagues (4)</td>
<td>1,145</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mapel and colleagues (5)</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soriano and colleagues (6)</td>
<td>2,699</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sidney and colleagues (7)</td>
<td>45,97</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walsh and Thomashow (8)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definition of abbreviations: — = no available data; Gl = gastrointestinal disturbances; HTN = hypertension
Unfortunately, the presence of both COPD and other comorbidities is often ominous and contributes significantly to poor health outcomes. In fact, numerous studies have suggested that comorbidities are a common cause of or contributor to COPD hospitalizations. In a study of over 45,000 patients with COPD, heart failure was the leading cause of hospitalization, followed by myocardial infarction and stroke. Kinnunen and colleagues found that comorbidities were associated with an increased duration of COPD hospitalizations; the mean length-of-stay in patients without comorbidity was 7.7 days compared with 10.5 days if a concurrent disease was present. So these comorbid conditions not only cause hospitalization, but also influence the length of hospital stay of patients with COPD.

Furthermore, some studies evaluating the cause of death in COPD suggest that patients with COPD are more likely to die of comorbid conditions rather than COPD, with most deaths from cardiovascular disease or malignancy (Table 2), although this varies with the severity of COPD.

**Table 2.** Reported causes of mortality in patients with Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Patients with COPD Dying</th>
<th>Cause: COPD (%)</th>
<th>Cause: Cardiovascular (%)</th>
<th>Cause: Malignancy (%)</th>
<th>Cause: Other Respiratory (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Camilli and colleagues (13)</td>
<td>Tucson</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huiart and colleagues (14)</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthonisen and colleagues (15)</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>&lt; 15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keistinen and colleagues (16)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>973</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vilkman and colleagues (17)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>1,070</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, comorbidities should be looked for routinely, and treated appropriately, in any patient with COPD, as they contribute to impaired clinical course and poor prognosis of COPD patients. COPD patients in general take a large number of drugs. Polypharmacy that characterizes these patients consists of respiratory drugs, especially inhaled ones needed for COPD treatment, and non-respiratory drugs used for the treatment of multiple extra-pulmonary conditions that accompany COPD.

Insured Albanian outpatients with COPD also are treated with numerous non-respiratory drugs. These medicines add to the daily-cost of COPD care. As the costs of reimbursed drugs are affordable totally or partially by the Health Insurance Institute, this study evaluates the costs of all drugs used from Albanian insured outpatients with COPD over a year and highlights the impact of non-respiratory drugs.

2. Materials and Methods

This retrospective study was conducted using Albanian Health Insurance Institute database. This institute was unique in Albania as a single-payer and involved all insured population. Its database contained data recorded from reimbursed medical prescriptions. The diagnosis codes, according to the International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision (ICD-9), insured outpatient codes, drug codes and drug costs were some important data of the reimbursed prescriptions which were recorded in every case in the Health Insurance Institute database. Drug code was created by Health Insurance Institute and it was associated with specific Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) drug code in the database. The costs of reimbursed drugs were initially calculated by pharmacists based on the prices of reimbursed drug list published by Health Insurance Institute. All costs were expressed in Albanian currency (Lek). The costs paid by outpatients' pocket for drugs which were partially reimbursed by Health Insurance Institute were not included in this study because of their little influence.

First of all, insured COPD outpatients were identified using ICD-9 codes. Information about reimbursement of all drugs used from these outpatients in 2012 was then analyzed using international ATC system classification.

This classification divides the drugs in groups at five different levels according to the organ or system on which they act and according to their chemical, pharmacological and therapeutic properties.

All reimbursed drugs and their costs were divided according to the first level (main anatomical group) and the second level (main therapeutic group) of ATC classification and the results were expressed as percentage of total costs. It was used Microsoft Office Excel Program for all calculations.

Furthermore, Pearson correlation coefficient was computed and a significance test was conducted to found out whether the number of insured COPD outpatients and the costs of non-respiratory drugs used from them were correlated.
3. Results

Total cost of respiratory and non-respiratory drugs reimbursed for Albanian outpatients with COPD was approximately 224 mln Lek in 2012. 124 mln Lek (55%) were expended for respiratory drugs and 100 mln (45%) was the reimbursement of non-respiratory drugs used in the same outpatients for the treatment of comorbidities (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Costs (%) of respiratory and non-respiratory drugs used from Albanian insured outpatients with COPD in 2012

Among non-respiratory drugs higher costs were for the ones acting on: Cardiovascular system with C code (57% of non-respiratory drug cost), Alimentary tract and metabolism with A code (16%), Sensory organs with S code (7%), Genito urinary system and sex hormones with G code (6%) and Nervous system with N code (5%) (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Costs (%) of reimbursed non-respiratory drugs used in ambulatory COPD in 2012 according to ATC anatomical groups

Drugs belonged to C09 and C08 therapeutic groups according to ATC classification had higher costs among cardiovascular ones (Table 3).

Table 3. Costs (%) of reimbursed cardiovascular drugs used in COPD in primary care in 2012 according to ATC therapeutic groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Therapeutic groups</th>
<th>Annual Costs (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C01 - Cardiac Therapy</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C02 - Antihypertensives</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C03 - Diuretics</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C07 - Beta Blocking Agents</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C08 - Calcium Channel Blockers</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C09 - Agents Acting on the Renin-Angiotensin System</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10 - Lipid Modifying Agents</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

80% of total cost of reimbursed medications acting on alimentary tract and metabolism belonged to antidiabetics with ATC code A10. (Figure 3).
Figure 3. Costs (%) of reimbursed drugs acting on alimentary tract and metabolism and used in COPD in primary care in 2012 according to ATC therapeutic groups

Only ophthalmologicals were used for the treatment of sensory organs diseases associated with COPD. Costs of alfuzosine, tamsulosine, terazosine and finasteride drugs reimbursed for the treatment of benign prostatic hypertrophy represented 70% of annual cost of drugs acting on genito urinary system and sex hormones prescribed in COPD outpatients in 2012 (Table 4).

Table 4. Costs (%) of reimbursed drugs acting on genito urinary system and sex hormones used in COPD in primary care in 2012 according to ATC therapeutic groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Therapeutic groups</th>
<th>Annual Costs (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G01 - Gynecological Antiinfectives and Antiseptics</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G03 - Sex Hormones and Modulators of the Genital System</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G04 - Urologicals</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G04B - Other urologicals, incl. antispasmodics</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G04C - Drugs used in benign prostatic hypertrophy</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among drugs acting on the nervous system, most costly were the ones classified in N05A therapeutic subgroup—antipsychotics. Antiparkinson and antiepileptic drugs also had high reimbursed costs, whereas all psychoanaleptics used in COPD were antidepressants (Table 5).

Table 5. Costs (%) of reimbursed drugs acting on nervous system used in COPD in primary care in 2012 according to ATC therapeutic groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Therapeutic group</th>
<th>Annual Costs (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N02 - Analgesics</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N03 - Antiepileptics</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N04 – Antiparkinson Drugs</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N05 - Psycholeptics</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N05A - Antipsychotics</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N05B - Anxiolytics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N06 - Psychoanaleptics</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N06A - Antidepressants)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was no significant correlation between the number of COPD outpatients and the reimbursement cost of non-respiratory drugs used for the treatment of COPD comorbidities.

4. Discussion

Albanian insured outpatients with COPD were exposed to many different non-respiratory drugs showing the presence of other coexisting conditions in the same patients. As a result, non-respiratory drugs had a considerable cost with 45% of the total drug cost reimbursed for COPD outpatients in 2012. In fact, concomitant comorbidities among COPD patients are associated with elevated healthcare costs. Medications used for the treatment of such comorbidities are only one of the components contributing to these elevated costs.
More than half of non-respiratory drug reimbursement was paid for cardiovascular drugs. Several studies suggest that cardiovascular diseases (CVD) are more frequent in COPD patients than in general population and may represent a burden greater than that of lung disease itself (Burney et al 2003; Holguin et al 2005; Huiart et al 2005).22 Cardiovascular co-morbidity existed in 13% - 65% of COPD subjects in different studies (Table 1) and is probably the main comorbidity in COPD (Fabbri et al, 2008; Soriano et al, 2005).

On the other hand, antidiabetics represented 80% of the cost of drugs acting on alimentary tract and metabolism, because diabetes mellitus frequently is associated with COPD. Large population studies show that there is an increased prevalence of diabetes among COPD patients (relative risk 1.5-1.8), even in patients with mild disease.23,24

Glaucoma, prostate cancer, Parkinson’s disease and mental disorders especially depression and anxiety are also other reported comorbidities of patients with COPD. This explains the significant costs of ophthalmologicals, drugs used in benign prostatic hypertrophy and drugs acting on the nervous system as medications used for the treatment of such comorbidities.

Mood disorders, including depression and anxiety, are more prevalent in patients with COPD than in the general population.25 However, anxiety and depressive disorders are underrecognized (< 40%) and undertreated (approximately 30%) in patients with COPD.26

So the results about most costly non-respiratory drugs used in insured COPD outpatients in Albania, in general are in agreement with findings of numerous studies regarding the patterns of non-pulmonary comorbidities in COPD and the drugs used for their treatment.

Studies often are focused only on the impact of drugs used for the main disease which is COPD in this case. In this context, the costs evaluation of reimbursed drugs used for treating associated conditions of COPD becomes important, as these costs have not been before the object of any study in Albania.

There appear to be a number of mechanisms by which co-morbid conditions arise in patients with COPD other than by chance. The first of these is sharing of common risk factors. These include poor socioeconomic status, smoking and age which are clearly risk factor for a large range of conditions. Another mechanism is the increasingly well described systemic effects of COPD (Fabbri and Rabe 2007). This systemic inflammation is now thought to impact on extra-pulmonary organs such the heart and blood vessels as well as the metabolic system. In addition, the effects of COPD increases the risks of other conditions with breathlessness, inactivity, and exacerbations resulting in depression, anxiety, and inactivity with resulting osteoporosis risk ad muscle loss. Finally, COPD treatment may in itself increase the risk of other conditions particularly those related to oral steroid usage.27

The absence of correlation between the number of COPD outpatients and costs of non-respiratory drugs used from them may be explained by the fact that prevalence of comorbidities varies considerably in different populations with COPD.

At last, it should be taken in consideration that only reimbursed drugs have been the object of this study. So it can be supposed that the impact of all non-respiratory drugs, reimbursed and non-reimbursed, and which are prescribed for all COPD outpatients, with and without health insurance, could be a little bit different from the results of this study. Moreover, relating to the limited healthcare resources, cost-effective therapies should be prescribed for COPD and its comorbidities as well. This suggestion is especially valuable for care management of COPD patients with specific and frequent comorbidities treated with most costly drugs.

5. Conclusion

Reimbursed non-respiratory drugs are frequently used for the treatment of COPD comorbidities in primary care and their economic impact is considerable. Cardiovascular drugs and those used in diabetes mellitus have the most increased cost. As a result, not only respiratory drugs used for the treatment of COPD as the main disease, but also non-respiratory drugs used for the treatment of COPD extra-pulmonary comorbidities should be considered when evaluating the economic burden of COPD. Moreover, considering the limited health care resources it is important to use cost-effective therapies not only for COPD, but also for the treatment of its different comorbidities. This suggestion is especially valuable for care management of COPD patients with specific and frequent comorbidities treated with most costly drugs.

References

549-555.


Categories of Multicultural Dialogue from the Point of View of Contemporary Communication

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Abstract

The perspective of intercultural dialogue seems to be extremely important, especially nowadays, for reflection on culture communication. The paper concerns the changes appearing in understanding of such terms as the Same, the Other, the Different, the Second—which constitute thinking on intercultural communication. It seems that the starting point of the discussion should become the perspective outlined by the outstanding Polish writer Ryszard Kapuściński in the volume of his essays “This Other”. The proposition of the interpretation described in the paper is on one hand connected with the perspective of the philosophy of dialogue, especially with the reflection of Emanuel Levinas and of Polish philosopher and priest Józef Tischner, and on the other—with transformations of intercultural dialogue implicated by new media, especially by the networked perspective of Internet. The paper describes revaluations appearing on the Internet and concerning categories important for this kind of communication. The Network emerges as the place of opening for “the Second” and simultaneously as the space of rejection and exclusion. The analysis of the phenomenon of inter culturally leads to the conclusion that the so-far understanding of categories constituting the intercultural discourse needs to undergo the fundamental transformations and reevaluations. On the place of so-far oppositions there appear new ones, formed i.e. by new technologies. One of them may be the necessity of dialogue between “young” and “old”, where only the first group seems to be completely competent participants of networked life, when the second group become “the Others” of cyber-world.

Keywords: dialogue, multicultural, us, them, different, the other

Conceição Lima, a poet of São Tomé e Príncipe, a former Portuguese colony, is the author of the following words which seem to define the original order of the world, in which everything was a unity and people appeared as a community:

The old man raised the child with its face to the east
"all your fathers"
And he slowly raised it with its face westward:
"all your mothers"

This world of “the earliest beginnings” is nothing but a memory now. The truth about the present-day world seems to be rendered better in a poem by a Mozambican poet rooted in Portugal Rui Knopfl, a poem titled “Authority”, in which he refers to his family roots, Mozambican and Portuguese, but also the roots reaching, so to say, the world of sedate Central European culture:

Of Portuguese things I have nostalgia
For what passes […]
Arabic flame in my eyes […]
Of Swiss things, I have an old pocket watch
Inherited from my great-grandfather, and a rare, weird surname.

Eugénio Lisboa, the eminent literacy critic, comments on Knopfl’s poetry with the following words: „The African and culturally but not geographically deeply European Mozambique has always been a place where the spiritual horizon becomes complete – due to Europe (Viegas, 2008, pp. 95-96).

The attitude of one man to another oscillates unceasingly among a few paradigms of behavior. Let me outline these patterns.

The first one is closely related to the fourth thesis of Lessing’s The Education of the Human Race which reads: “Education gives to Man nothing which he might not reduce out of himself; it gives him that which he might reduce out of
himself, only quicker and more easily.” This leads to the assumption that another man cannot shape our humanity and that everything can be achieved thanks to us ourselves. This attitude is marked then by distance from other people.

The second model is related to the notion of the Other. According to this model human understanding can come across insurmountable obstacles. The Other has a different language, culture and a place to live. “In modern times cultures, languages, customs and traditions alien to the victorious civilization perish on a grand scale. What is left (market, television, Internet) is well-known to anybody and as such it cannot be seen as a challenge from beyond the system. Globalization consists in the predominance of one system and a frantic attempt to tame the Other within the system. What is excluded by the system has no reason for existence”.(Czerniak, 2002, pp. XXVI - XXVII). This makes us realize how much the notion of the Other has dominated our perception of another man in the world.

The third way assumes that coexistence should be understood as dialogue. As Barth says “there is no humanity in loneliness” (Barth, 2002, p. 193) and adds a comment on the meaning of “I” juxtaposed with “You”: “What does 'I' mean? I say this word and by this I make a distinction and establish a relation. [...] By this word I distinguish myself from another man, who is not me but is not just "it", an object, but is someone who may assess and understand my announcing myself as "I", because he can announce himself to me in the very same way”. By distinguishing the other man from myself I assume, accept and establish – if it depends on me – a relation with him: with him as a one like me. By addressing this object as "I" I distinguish it not only from myself but also from all other objects, from every "it"; I put it with me myself [... in the same space I am not without him, my space is not only mine, but also his" (Barth, 2002, p. 135)

Also one of the outstanding philosophers of the 20th century Emmanuel Levinas, for whom the primary category was another man , the face of the Other, says: “The phenomenon of the Other manifesting himself, is face [...]. The epiphany of face is visitation [...]. The phenomenon of face is the primeval speech. Speaking is first of all a way of coming out from beyond a phenomenon, its form, an opening to opening” (Levinas, 1991, p. 107).

While discussing the issue of dialogue with another man, it is necessary to refer to the views held by a great Polish philosopher the Reverend Józef Tischner and his notion of “the philosophy of drama”. He stresses the importance of the unique experience of encountering another person. This experience is a kind of conclusive experience, ranking first in the scale of human fate. Actually, what is meant is the understanding of another man whatever differences there are between us. Tischner writes that “ Earlier the love for one’s neighbor manifested itself in the commandment you shall not kill your enemies. You must understand, because your enemy has much to tell you about you yourself, about your condition” (Tischner, 1994, p. 64). So the dialogue with another man, the understanding of another man in both senses of the word, can become a source of self-comprehension, can offer us a chance of defining ourselves in the world, can be an answer to the question about the sense of life. The intercultural dialogue perspective seems to be particularly important in the reflection upon cultural communication.

Ryszard Kapuściński, an outstanding Polish publicist, repeatedly drew attention to the issue of intercultural dialogue in the countries of postcolonial Africa and Ibero-America, of which most noteworthy were the essays in the collection The Soccer War (1978) (Kapuściński, 2008, p. 72). Analyzing the culture of Ibero-America he says: „This is a continent where you can notice cooperation between cultures, races and religions. It is a kind of syncretism, in which Catholicism mingles with ancient beliefs. And what most interesting and absolutely exceptional, there is no aggressive nationalism here. One can wander over whole Latin America and he will not find a single symptom of hatred or rejection. It can serve a good model for the twenty first century” (Kapuściński, 2007, p. 102). In Kapuściński’s opinion there will arise a new hybrid culture, which unites various elements of Amerindian, African and European cultures. It will involve a reorientation of the understanding of the term "nation", which should be then understood as the multietnic and multicultural community.

José Garza, a Mexican writer and journalist, commented upon these words of Kapuściński on the importance of transformations taking place in the countries of Latin America: “Kapuściński solved the mystery of Latin America; he discovered how the brusqueness resulting from the cultural variety of the continent, penetrates all spheres of the local life” (Garza, 2008, p. 198). This Mexican critic of Kapuściński’s work stresses also the fact that Kapuściński’s ideas are implanted extremely strongly in the search for truth about the Other, another person who ceases to be alien and becomes One of Us, implanted in the culture common to us all. “Kapuściński understood that every person whom he met on his way, the one spreading a Persian carpet and the one watching the sunrise in African desolation - desires freedom to be able to express himself; and that the spreading of the carpet and the watching of the sunrise expresses the hope of thousands of people forced to abandon their homeland to survive and look for a better life or simply for their own place on earth” (Garza, 2008, p. 196).

Among Kapuściński’s works we can find a book about the problem in question, that is, human dialogue. The book is titled “Ten Inny /The Other” (Kapuściński, 2006, pp. 51-63) Kapuściński analyzes in it the on-going anthropological breakthrough, the philosophy of dialogue and the breakthrough of multiculturalism. A special place is reserved there for
Emanuel Lévinas, who insisted that the difference, the otherness of the Other is a good that we experience when we encounter him.

The writer draws our attention to the changes in the understanding of the notions of “One of Us”, “One of Them”, The Other, The Different in the era of globalization. The revolution in communication brings the contemporary man dozens of cultures, as meaningful as his own national culture. As Kapuscinski says: “Once Marshall McLuhan said that the word Gould become a global village but today we can say that there will be space for a global world in each of those villages” (Kapuscinski, 2001, p. 102).

The traditional understanding of the categories constituting intercultural dialogue must undergo radical transformation and revaluation. The network society coming into existence in the days of the internet becomes a community of all network users, yet there can be observed the phenomenon of alienation from the community. This alienation can take different forms, as the basic issue is the issue of availability of the medium. Still, especially in the Third World countries, this availability is purely illusive. In this way technology generates the division into Us and Them. Another cause of this alienation stems from the division into generations, hampering the dialogue between the young and the old, of whom only the former seem to be competent participants in the network life whereas the latter become the Aliens in the digital world.

The intercultural dialogue is the foundation of cultural identity, which can be defined two ways. First, identity can be regarded as a historically shaped collective self. The other approach assumes that among a number of similarities, there can be observed significant and meaningful differences, which determine who we really are” (Fanon, 1985, p. 149).

A characteristic feature of the traditional identity was its constancy. It was place- and tradition-bound. Now the sense of continuity has become replaced with the momentariness determined by logging in and by a peculiar “suspension” of reality.

So what future is ahead of us? Will the category of national identity fade into oblivion? Authentic culture cannot be thought of in a different way than as a phenomenon based on individualized spiritual consciousness. Dispersed over a wide area, it rarely stays physically fit and subtle [...] By contrast, a general international culture is difficult to imagine [...] Culture will have to unite with relatively small social and political entities, which thanks to their size will be able to give room to the individual and to what for culture is “like water for a fish” (Whorf, 1982, p. 251). This idea of Whorf’s is well matched by an opinion expressed from quite a different standpoint by Zygmunt Baumann, who writes that: „The global certainty, justified or not, broke into pieces, but crumbling it broke into pieces of tiny local certainties, to which one clings even stronger the weaker they are and the more care they need to remain certainties” (Bauman, 1995, p. 325).

Perhaps we will see the growing role of “little homelands”, the places we are associated with at a given moment. Powerful evidence is provided, for example, by contemporary Polish noel set in local societies of Galicia, Lake District, Silesia and Gdansk. Perhaps the tale of “little homelands” will be taken over by the community of internet discussion groups.

Or perhaps it is Jacques Attali who is right, when in the entry “identity” in The 21st century Dictionary he writes: “Everyone will aspire to be unique [...] to have his or her own life, past, name, another identity and to continuous change through participation in the general carnival. Everyone will try to live in different ways, to take up different professions and belong to different families – simultaneously” (Attali, 2002, p. 223).

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Popular Protest in Portugal: 
The Douro Region in First Half of Nineteenth Century

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Abstract

In the 19th century in the Douro region (where port wine was produced) there were still social protest which were considered to be pre-modern, that is, they had typical features of the protests that occurred before the 18th century, such as banditry or millenary movements. These movements didn't have any organized structures such as political parties or trade unions and took place spontaneously and sporadically, having emerged as a reaction to the changes introduced by the new liberal politics and capitalist society.

Keywords: Douro, social protest, pre-modern, liberalism

1. Introduction

The Douro region situated in the North of Portugal is known for its famous Porto wine and because it became a world heritage in 2001. This region became a limited and regulated one in the 18th century. The demarcated zone established geographically along the Valley of the Douro River and some of its tributaries of the two banks, over 100 km. This area is subdivided into three subregions: Baixo Corgo, Cima Corgo Douro Superior (Pereira, 1991), and wavering between the Valley and the mountain, giving it a natural individuality that clearly distinguishes this from neighbouring territories of Trás-os-Montes and Beira with that limited, and that Portuguese geographers as well showed1. The idea of protecting this territory was born in the kingdom of King José I, when his Minister, Sebastião José de Carvalho e Melo, known as Marquês de Pombal had the idea of demarcating this territory, which for a long time had dedicated itself to the growth of vineyards2 and that nowadays still produces a wine whose quality is recognized all over the world.

The very first limitation of this region took place in 1756, due to the need of preserving a wine which since the 16th century had become a great source of wealth for our country and which was being adulterated by fraudulent practices and therefore losing its quality. As a consequence of this loss of quality one of its major clients- the English- no longer wanted to purchase this wine. This led to a commercial crisis and consequently to the poverty of a region whose source of wealth was the growth of vineyards.

The conditions for the State to interfere in this sector were therefore created with the appearance of new commercial companies that followed the pattern of the economic policy which had been put into practice since 1753. So, under the order dated 10th September 1756, Marquês de Pombal imposed the limitation of the region and created a dominating State company known as Companhia geral da Agricultura das vinhas do Alto Douro. This company controlled the whole process, from the production to the sale of the Douro wine (Pereira, 2010, p.12). This is how the oldest region in the world with limitations and rules was born3.

The wine and the vineyard growth ended up being what really defines and distinguishes the Douro region. This region in the Portuguese territory can be considered "atypical", by the extent of commercial wine production relations in it introduced. We could admit that this greater openness to the outside might have favored a more positive reaction to liberalism and capitalism by part of this rural area, but, as we shall see, did not happen and was reason for popular

1 Like Amorim Girão (1930); Orlando Ribeiro (1987); Vergílio Taborda (1933).
3 Although the Portuguese are pleased to think this was the first demarcated region in the world, in fact it wasn’t. There was one in Tuscany in 1716 and another one in Hungary in 1737. However, the Douro region was the first to be limited in this way.
led the country to a fratricide Civil War. This Civil War ended with the victory of monarchy. The younger, Tombo absolutism to liberalism. Protests, impossible to imagine nowadays, but a reality in Douro by that time.

In the 19th century the Douro region had to adapt itself to the political, economic and social changes imposed by Liberalism (Cardoso, 2007) namely the end of the protectionism and the liberalization of the vineyard sector which brought about big economic changes in the region that led to political and social contend.

The Liberal Revolution happened in Portugal in 1820, but it was only completely consolidated in 1834 (Bonifácio, 2002). However there were still fights between the ones who had the absolute power (that dominated for two centuries) and the ones who stood for the liberal ideology. This fights were particulary intenses in Douro (Silva, 2007). The political rivalry happened mainly between the sons of King João VI. The older, Pedro, was liberal and defended the constitutional monarchy. The younger, Miguel, was in favour of the absolute monarchy. After their father’s death these disagreements led the country to a fratricide Civil War. This Civil War ended with the victory of D. Pedro and the triumph of Liberalism in 1834.

The settlement of Liberalism, however, was characterized by conflicts due to the economic, social, mental and even religious underdevelopment in which the country lived. The changes made to develop the country affected the structures of the ruling power and people’s mentality, thus creating reactions which led to various popular protests in the Douro region.

In this article we will analyze the most “primitive” of the popular protest, those who happen in transition of the absolutism to liberalism. Protests, impossible to imagine nowadays, but a reality in Douro by that time.

It was based on the documents which can be found in the Central Archive of our country, known as Torre do Tombo, showing the letter exchange between the Civil Governors of the districts of Bragança, Vila Real, Viseu and Guarda and the Minister of the Kingdom that we tried to understand how the Douro region reacted to the implementation of liberalism and capitalism, searching in those documents for situations in which the social order was affected.

In this article we point out some of those pre-modern social protests that occurred in the Douro region in the 1st half of the 19th century and emphasize the importance of the studies of two English Historians, Hobsbawm and Thompson, who, with their innovative concepts, helped to classify and understand the type of “primitive” or “arcaic” protests that happened by that time in a liberal society, a supposedly modern one.

2. The problematic of the “primitive” popular protest

The studies of Eric Hobsbawm and Edward Thompson were very important for understand pre-modern popular protests. With their books “Primitive Rebels” written by Hobsbawm and “The Moral Economy of the English Crowd in the eighteenth century”, written by Thompson, the two historians became extremely important as far as the social historiography is concerned.

In his book “Primitive Rebels” Hobsbawm studied the peasantry, a social group that in spite of having been the silent leading figure of the European History, had been despised by the historians as elements of a past that was disappearing as times evolved. He also studied the pre-modern rebellions in contemporary times. That means that he tried to call people’s attention to a certain type of social protest expressed in an unconventional way that was beyond the organizational structure of the political parties or trade unions, no longer supposed to exist in that period of History, after the Industrial Revolution. Those types of social protests still occurred frequently and this fact led the author to classify them as “primitive” or “arcaic” ways of social agitation.

“The Primitive Rebels” aims to show the types of protest that were the result of the confrontations between the capitalist system and the traditional social organization. The social movements occurred due to the attempt of the people to adapt themselves or due to their inability to adapt to the new reality. Among those movements Hobsbawm studied the Social Bandit, revolutionary peasantry movements of the Milenarianism kind and rural secret societies. (Hobsbawm, 1978, p. 11)

This pre-modern agitation wasn’t either often analyzed, or recognized as having any kind of importance, because it can’t be included in the patterns of the modern social movements, the ones that took place in the last part of the 18th century. This kind of agitation could more likely be included in the occasional phenomena that happened in the Middle Age. But the truth is that it was a reality in the 19th and 20th centuries, happening at the same time as the modern protest movements. When the historians valued this agitation, what rarely happened, they understood it as a forerunner of the modern worker movement. What Hobsbawm actually did was to understand the function of this type of movement in the process of modern protests.
The ones who took part in those primitive protests hadn’t found a specific language to express their aims about the world yet and therefore their actions were considered pre-political. Their culture was mainly oral because they were illiterate in the majority (Hobsbawm, 1978, p. 12).

These people, who weren’t born or raised in a modern or capitalist world, had to face the production relationships and the capitalism logic that interfered with their traditional world. The confrontation of these two realities caused conflicts, expressed in pre-modern terms and with a pre-political language.

Douro in the confrontation with the liberalism and capitalist economy also generated this kind of pre-modern movements, with popular protests similar to those identified by Hobsbawm as banditry and millenarian movements.

When the peasants gained a major importance they started attracting the attention of the investigators of the anthropology area, rural sociology and social history. Hobsbawm had a crucial role in the spreading of these studies on peasants, since he was part of the editorial group of the Journal of Peasant Studies, and contributed with the article “The Peasants and Politics” in the first number of this Journal.

Edward Thompson in “The Moral Economy of the English crowd in the eighteenth century” (1979, p. 62-134) analyzed the type of the social classes fight in the pre-industrial society, although he didn’t study all the classes, only the crowd that took part in the market actions. As the author refers, the aim of his analysis was “the mentality or, as he preferred to name it, the political culture, the expectations, the traditions and the superstitions of the working class who frequently took part in the market actions; and the relationships, sometimes negotiations, between the crowd and the State that were classified as riots” (1995, p. 295-296).

It was in this context that Thompson got interested in the food riots that occurred in England in the 18th century (1995, p. 296) although he didn’t study them in a very detailed way, since they just interested Thompson as examples of their “moral economy”.

The food riot in the 18th century in England was a very complex way of direct popular action, which was disciplined and had clear aims (1978, p. 65). It is obvious that the quick rise of prices, incorrect attitudes of the traders or hunger were reasons for the food riots to happen (1979, p. 65-66). Thompson’s view contrasts with the one of many historians, who explained these riots due to “economical reasons” 4. Thompson doesn’t agree with this economic point of view, because in almost all the crowd actions in the 18th century it is possible to notice some legitimating reason (1995, p. 65), that is, men and women who took part in these riots believed they were defending right and traditional customs.

Thompson’s method consisted in rebuilding a paternalistic model of the food trading, in which there were institutional and protective measures and other exceptional ones in times of scarcity. To understand the actions of a specific crowd it is necessary to pay attention to certain markets and commercial practices. But to understand the “political” space in which the crowd could act and negotiate with the authorities it is necessary to make a more detailed analysis between both. In this way we can’t apply the conclusions of the “market economy” to other peasantry markets (1995, p. 296).

Douro region is an example of this, because there were a lot of economic crisis, some really critical has occurred in 1837, 1839, 1849, 1852 (Silva, 2007). In this periods the people have hungry, sometimes even starving, and they claim for governmental help but didn’t made riots, because the “moral economy” wasn’t broken. As Thompson said is necessary more than hunger to a group, a community or a social class response with a riot to a crisis (1995, p. 298).

Hobsbawm and Thompson work gave rise to a series of critical and pertinent historical literature (Molina, 1996; Alier, 1996; Mintz, 1982; Snell, 1985; Scott, 1976)), in spite of this they gave an important contribute to the social history, mainly to the historiography of social movements. In fact Primitive Rebels and Moral Economy introduced innovative concepts and solved a concept gap for social protests which were difficult to classify.

3. The pre–modern popular protest that occurred in the Douro region.

What we concluded on studying the Douro region was that in the middle of the 19th century not only in this region but throughout the country there were social protests that couldn’t be classified as typical conflicts of the 19th century. As Hobsbawm had noticed in his studies about Spain and Latin America, also in Portugal there were “primitive” or “archaic” ways of social agitation that could be included within his concepts of “primitive rebellion”: banditry and millenarian movements.

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The food riots became more frequent when the moral, pre-modern economy clashed with the new economy of the free market that was introduced by Liberalism, threatening the traditional regulation of the market, aiming only at the profit and not paying attention to the needs of the population. In Douro the riot that we will describe also followed the same dynamic of the riots studied by Thompson, in which it was much more than hunger what motivated them. It was necessary to break certain rules of the market regulation, based on customs and “paternalistic” traditions for the people to start a revolt.

In the first part of the 19th century in Douro in a time when Liberalism was gaining more importance, there were a great number of collective action, but not all generated violence or revolt. As Jean Nicolas (1984, p. 18) states, the contesting phenomenon must be seen in a group in which the violence is just one of its components.

3.1 The banditry

The first way of pre-modern agitation that occurred widely in Douro in the first half of the 19th century was banditry.

The banditry and the riots reflect a “primitive” way of social contest, precisely in a moment of social organization, a turning point from an Absolutist to a Liberal model.

The banditry happened most frequently in Douro in the first half of the 19th century. This region which was far from the sea, difficult to access and a stage of constant political fights was perfect as a hiding-place and quick escape for the ones who, with a “noble” or “vile” reason had decided to live outside the law.

We didn’t find much information about the Douro bandits. Only some of their names, nicknames, origin, place where they acted and were captured (Silva, 2007). Even so we gathered enough information to conclude that the bandits were people who belonged to the rural community, who dedicated themselves mainly to agriculture, although some of them were cobblers, blacksmiths and became bandits as a way of survival. They appear with much intensity in periods of economic crisis related to production or commercialization of wine, between 1834-1855 we count in Douro 21 conflicts of bandits (Silva, 2007, p. 261). But there were others, yet just a few, that became bandits because they faced injustice or were chased and acted that way to resist, like “José do Telhado”, a bandit who stole in the Douro (Silva, 2007, p. 94-96). These are the so called “noble” bandits (Hobsbawm, 1976, p. 44-65) totally different from the simple robber. Although for the authorities they were all the same - out-of-law men - in social terms there was a big difference. The social bandits stayed within the peasant society and were considered by their peers to be heroes who promoted the justice. That is why they were helped and supported. The actions of those bandits were acceptable within their values of behavior: they stole the rich to help the poor and they killed to honour themselves or any relative. It is this relationship between the peasant and the rebel that gives meaning to the social banditry and that differentiates these bandits from the “road thieves” (Hobsbawm, 1976, p. 10). The social bandit didn’t steal anything from the peasants. Just from the rich people. For that reason his popularity was only visible inside his regional social group. A man could be a social bandit in the place where he lived and a simple thief outside it (Hobsbawm, 1976, p. 10). This pre-political phenomenon disappeared gradually with the modernization, because it was supported by societies based on agriculture, fighting for the maintenance of traditional values (Hobsbawm, 1976, p. 24).

In Douro we acknowledged what Hobsbawm had stated in his book “Bandits” (1976), that the banditry was a typically rural phenomenon, mainly in rocky places with a difficult access. Besides that it was essentially a way of individual rebellion of a minority inside the peasant society (E. Inman Fox, p. 19). Historically it took place in times of political instability, economical crisis or between phases of evolution of the social organization, for example in the transition to the Agrarian Capitalism. Moreover, as banditry was a pre-political phenomenon, it lasted only until the individuals gained a political awareness or acquired more efficient ways of social agitation (Hobsbawm, 1978, p. 31).

Therefore the banditry in Douro is seen as a way of “primitive rebellion”, without any ideology or plans for a new society. Because of that it disappeared as a social phenomenon in the second half of the century.

3.2 Millenarism

Another type of social movement considered to be “primitive” was the Millenarianism, a messianic movement in which a character gives himself or the ones around him supernatural or at least exceptional powers and appears preaching the arrival of a new world (Queiroz, 1985, p. 59).
In Douro there was a Millenarian movement that can be integrated in the messianic European movements. It took place in Granja do Tedo, a small village situated on the left bank of river Douro.

There were numerous messianic movements throughout History. But, as Maria Isaura Pereira de Queiroz states, these movements had identical characteristics: a Messiah announces the arrival of a new world (1965, p. 59), as we mentioned before.

What happened between 1837 and 1840 in Granja do Tedo was clearly a phenomenon of a messianic type, whose causes may derive from the change in the balance of the peasants' life. The same happened with the community of Davide Lazzaretti, where the Messiah from Monte Amiata (southeast Tuscany) appeared, around 1870, in a particularly difficult political moment for the Italian reunion. This area faced bad crops and an industrial crisis, starting to suffer the effects of the penetration of the capitalist economy (1965, p. 100-101). The Douro movement also took place in a time of political, economic and social transition, with the settlement of Liberalism.

In Granja do Tedo the new religious movement was founded by Maria das Neves Custódio, the daughter of José Custódio, a local teacher. Influenced by a book that her brother had brought from the capital city- Lisbon- she started to preach her messianic gifts that had been detected during her childhood by a neighbourhood healer. As a Messiah, she had been sent by a Divinity to bring the victory of Good over Evil or to correct the world's imperfections allowing the coming of the Earth Paradise.

Due to her personal gift and charisma, she became a religious and social leader and because of her characteristics she placed herself above the existing hierarchies, subverting or disallowing them. The aim was to moralize and sanctify the population as far as political, economic and social aspects are concerned, thus revealing the divine intention by means of special rituals.

Her religious ceremonies had festive characteristics. They were animated with music and dances and the members who attended them wore flowers as if they were already in the kingdom of perfection.

In her rituals there was a reversal of the traditional references, a subversion of the social hierarchies, an allowed critics as the one which happened at Carnival, a time when, for a few days people lived in an upside down world, creating their own imaginative figures (Bercé, 1994, p. 75). In this movement there was also music, dance and extravagance: Even the most solemn rituals such as the mass, the sacraments and prays that they kept were adapted. In the prays, such as in the Lord's Prayer, Holy Mary or Credo the words were replaced by others similar to popular prays. In litanies the name of saints were replaced by names of plants. In the mass the listeners didn't face the speaker and the communion wafer was replaced by orange wedges.

The standard changes established by the prophetess also affected the personal and familiar life of her followers, for example, as far as new marriages were concerned. She annulled her own marriage and got married again with her uncle. Besides that women were encouraged to change their sexual status by dressing as men.

“Maria Coroada's” preaches were part of the practices of this movement. They were characterized by a social criticism, a radical one towards the dominating social classes, namely towards the monarchy. The modern influences of the sect were probably brought by her brother from the city, where radical theories circulated among the literate ones. The historian Fátima Melo Ferreira believes that maybe there was an inspiration in the radical Lisbon “September clubs" to organize the political beliefs of this movement (2002, p. 53).

These mysterious ceremonies with a totally pagan appearance led this sect to be accused of immoral practices and nudism and consequently chased by the authorities (Silva, 2007, p. 212).

This movement is supposed to have appeared as a reaction to the falling of a known world, to the emptiness left by the liberal capitalism when it destroyed the ancient traditions without replacing them by new ones. The disorganization that followed the settling of Liberalism wasn’t counterbalanced by the imposition of a new order and organization. Underlying this movement is the need of a reorganization of the peasants according to a familiar system reinforced by a religious foundation, similarly to what happened with the “Lazzaretists” (Queiroz, 1965, p. 120).

3.3 Food Riots

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6 According to Hobsbawm, “the start of modern capitalism in a peasant society, generally as liberal or Jacobin reorganizations (the introduction of a free agrarian market, the secularization of the Church properties, the equivalents of the closing movement and restructuring of common lands and forest laws, etc) always had apocalyptic effects over that society.” Hobsbawm, E. (1978). Primitive Rebels. Rio de Janeiro: Zahar Editors, p. 73.

7 This happened with all the ones who considered themselves to be “Messiahs”. Queiroz, M. I. P. (1965). O messianismo no Brasil e no mundo. São Paulo: Dominus Editora, p.5.
According to Thompson’s line of thought, the lack of cereals could lead to hunger and to the subversiveness of the market relationships ending in riots. In Douro we can find riots similar to the ones described by the author. The rise of prices of the food items usually caused food riots. The historians of social themes classified them as “pre-industrial movements”, even if they didn’t achieve the highest grade of conflict: the revolt.

The hunger that affected the Douro region in 1836 wasn’t caused by the vineyard crisis. This time it was due to the scarcity of cereals, which led the sellers to rise the price of bread, as it was written on the Ecco newspaper on 7th June, in the regions correspondence. This price rise led to popular manifestations in Mesão Frio.

The inhabitants of Oliveira, in Mesão Frio, demanded a meeting with the mayor to expose the hoarding of cereals by two or three sellers, that detained the cereals’ monopoly and then rose the price. The people felt they were being robbed, since the sellers bought the cereals in Spain for a much lower price than the one they sold them in Portugal.

Even more than the shortage what led the inhabitants of the village to organize a manifestation in front of the town council was the traders’ attitude of subverting the market rules in hard times. The town council scheduled a meeting which was attended by almost all the inhabitants of the parish. They were accompanied by the parish commissioner, so as to avoid any conflicts. They arrived at Mesão Frio “orderly and quietly”. However, they didn’t meet all the members of the town council, but only the President, who was the county administrator's brother, someone whom the inhabitants didn’t like. Although the people arrived orderly the president interpreted the arrival of such a crowd as a riot. When the people realized what the president thought about their gathering they started insulting the bread traders. The Administrator decided to call a military escort, so the people “went away quietly, yet angry about such unfairness.” According to the journalist the Administrator reported what had happened to the Civil governor as a sedition. Although the people only manifested against speculation in the price of grain, the rupture of what Thompson calls the “moral economy”, derived of the new political economy of the free market of cereals. In times of extremely high prices and scarcity the crowd could direct action to impose a protective control of the market and the regulation of prices, claiming sometimes the legitimacy that derived from the paternalistic model (Thompson, 1995, p. 296).

Many times the popular reactions were reduced to small manifestations of hostility towards the landowners, hoarders or the authorities, as it happened in the food riot of Mesão Frio, in an attempt to restore the market regulation rules that existed in the quiet times, related to traditions and culture.

4. Conclusion

These pre-modern social movements reveal a reaction or inability to adapt to the new liberal order.

The fact that these rebellion phenomena are considered “primitive” or “archaic” doesn’t mean that they appeared in communities that existed before the 19th century. On the contrary, these type of protests arose from the confrontation between the capitalist system and the traditional social organization. What led Hobsbawm to classify them as “primitive” is the fact that they were organized by social groups who valued the family ties or community solidarity (Hobsbawm, 1978, p.13), as it happened among our bandits who were able to subsist for a long time only that way. In the Douro region this solidarity was also visible in terms of territory.

Although the banditry wasn’t a typical popular protest, it had to be considered as a social phenomenon. In fact, although it was marginal in Douro region, it had its importance, as a collective action of a group of individuals who defied the established order, in an attempt to perpetuate the past, since their major difficulty was adapting to the new liberal and capitalist world. Therefore their acting is confined to the ending of Absolutism and transition to Liberalism.

As it happened with most of this phenomena in the countries analyzed by Hobsbawm, also in Douro, they didn’t originate modern social movements, politically organized. For that reason they were classified as pre-political and reformist and not revolutionary (Hobsbawm, 1978, p. 12).

Undoubtedly the bandits' movements that we found fall into the category of the most primitive way of social protest. As Douro and all Portugal walked towards a political stability, these movements disappeared. Besides that, they were common to all the countries which were developing and for that reason they could still be found in Latin America in the 20th century.

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8 In Spain there were various riots between 1895 and 1905. Arrieiro, Maria Luz (1984). The food riots in Spain, 1895-1905. Social History Studies, 30, 193-250.

9 “what this county is suffering because of two or three monopolists of that village that buy the bread at a price in Spain and sell it at a much higher one here in Douro.” Ecco, 7th June 1836.

10 Ecco, 7th June 1836
One of the reasons mentioned to differentiate the traditional ways of protest from the “modern” ones is that the former aren’t against the basis of the established social order and contribute to maintain and reinforce the traditional and paternalistic practices, as it is referred by Thompson. In Douro when the liberalization of wine economy were introduce in the region with the liberalism the popular protests growing, because certain market regulation rules based on traditions were broken.

The popular protests were intense at the stage of introduction of liberalism (1834-1855) because they were a reaction to the new economic model which left the production and trade in the region exposed to the liberalization of markets. The end of protectionism in the Douro was marked by intense economic crises and consequently by riots. However these ways of collective action were labelled as “traditional”, or “pre-industrial”, seeming a remaining of the past, they show in the first half of the 19th century a clear importance of the popular within the social protest. At the same time the economic, political and social changes led to new ideas and experiences that would affect the society in an intense and permanent way, changing the features and ways of conflict. The progressive political reforms, the rising of capitalism and the modernization of the country due to industrialization, although weak and late, determined the gradual disappearance of the old forms of protest, since the persistence of customs and rights of the past didn’t make sense in a world which was constantly changing. The local, spontaneous, sporadic and non-political manifestations were replaced by modern protests with national ideologies. It is yet obvious that this change from the old to the new wasn’t that simple. It had different features according to each region. The transition from the traditional to the contemporary society took place at least throughout the whole 19th century.

References

Alcohol Consumption and Life Satisfaction: Evidence from Russia

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Abstract

Alcohol consumption is known to have an impact on various aspects of individual's life. This paper is based on the idea that the alcohol consumption is very likely to influence on subjective well-being. Using data from the Russia Longitudinal Monitoring Survey of HSE (RLMS-HSE) in this paper the links between alcohol consumption and subjective well-being is examined. RLMS-HSE data shows that a significant number of individuals consumed alcohol in the last month in Russia, the proportion of men drinkers is extremely high, and is around 60-70%. Two sources of endogeneity are discussed in the paper: individual characteristics, such as one’s value system and traits of character; and the existing environment, for example, a negative macroeconomic situation. Empirical estimates are obtained using probit adapted OLS approach. Results suggest that reasonable consumption of alcohol improves the level of life satisfaction. However, alcohol abuse produces negative effects on life satisfaction.

Keywords: alcohol consumption, subjective well-being, probit adapted OLS approach

1. Introduction

Alcohol consumption is known to be one of the most important problems in today’s society. The concerns are obvious: according to the World Health Organization, about 2.5 million people die every year because of alcohol abuse.

Alcohol consumption has an impact on various aspects of a person’s life: not only on one’s health and mortality rate but also on social life, economic activity and subjective well-being. Numerous studies found ample evidence of the drinking habit impact on individual lives. It is accepted in economic literature to classify alcohol drinkers into two groups: heavy drinkers and moderate ones. Empirical research shows that the effect of alcohol consumption depends on the degree of drinking. For abstainers and heavy drinkers alcohol consumption leads to reductions in productivity and earnings and to decrease in subjective well-being. On the other hand, moderate drinkers increase their productivity and earnings and feel happier.

Alcohol consumption in Russia is known to be one of the most serious social problems. Struggle against alcoholism has a long history. Today the government is introducing special programs and measures to decrease alcohol drinking, particularly, among the youth. Alcohol abuse is believed to destroy human capital and considerably expand social costs.

The outline of this paper is as follows: the second part of this article reviews the literature examining the correlation between alcohol consumption and economic and social indicators. The third part analyses some statistics of alcohol abuse and describes the data used to estimate the model. The next part of the article gives preliminary results of examining the model of alcohol drinking impact on subjective well-being with the help of RLMS. The final part is a conclusion.

2. Literature review

Alcohol consumption is a field of research agenda for economists and social scientists. Drinking influences all aspects of an individual’s life: health, social and economic life.

From the economic point of view, it is interesting to study the correlation between alcohol consumption and labor market indices. Drinking alcohol can affect a worker’s productivity and a person’s earnings. Alcohol consumption also
influences human capital. One of the earlier investigations which estimated the consequences of alcohol consumption was the book by Irving Fisher published in 1926 (Fisher, 1926). The author studied the effects of alcohol consumption on a worker’s productivity. The results showed that drinking alcohol has an unfavorable influence on productivity, it reduces proficiency and speed of some tasks fulfillment. Fisher, in particular, remarks that three glasses of beer per day lower a worker’s productivity. The results showed that drinking alcohol has an unfavorable influence on productivity, it reduces was the book by Irving Fisher published in 1926 (Fisher, 1926). The author studied the effects of alcohol consumption on a worker’s productivity. The results showed that drinking alcohol has an unfavorable influence on productivity, it reduces was the book by Irving Fisher published in 1926 (Fisher, 1926). The author studied the effects of alcohol consumption on a worker’s productivity. The results showed that drinking alcohol has an unfavorable influence on productivity, it reduces was the book by Irving Fisher published in 1926 (Fisher, 1926). The author studied the effects of alcohol consumption on a worker’s productivity. The results showed that drinking alcohol has an unfavorable influence on productivity, it reduces was the book by Irving Fisher published in 1926 (Fisher, 1926). The author studied the effects of alcohol consumption on a worker’s productivity. The results showed that drinking alcohol has an unfavorable influence on productivity, it reduces was the book by Irving Fisher published in 1926 (Fisher, 1926). The author studied the effects of alcohol consumption on a worker’s productivity. The results showed that drinking alcohol has an unfavorable influence on productivity, it reduces productivity by about 10 percent.

Recent research has also found evidence of baleful influence of alcohol consumption on productivity. Estimating the effects of alcohol and other substances abuse Rohm et al. (2007) underlined that indirect cost of productivity losses was the largest part of total cost ($61% or $24.4bn.).

Numerous modern economic researchers study the impact of alcohol consumption on workers’ earnings. Some economists believe that there is no substantial correlation between drinking and personal wages, other studies show a strong link between alcohol drinking and earnings. Berger and Leigh (1988) formulate the wage equation for drinkers and nondrinkers using the Quality of Employment Survey and conclude that drinkers earn more than nondrinkers.

More recent studies find that not all drinkers earn more but only moderate ones. Hamilton and Hamilton divide all drinkers into three groups: heavy drinkers, moderate drinkers and light ones. The study shows that heavy alcohol consumption results in the decrease in wages, while the wages of moderate drinkers rise (Hamilton V., and Hamilton B., 1997). The results concerning the increase in wages of moderate alcohol drinkers are confirmed by the study by Heien (1996), in which he examines the data of US workers from 1979-1984. The same results are obtained by French and Zarkih (1995) in their survey of US workers. They ascertain that drinkers who consume from 1.5 to 2.5 drinks per day earn more than abstainers or heavy drinkers.

Another well-known study which examines the correlation between alcohol consumption and earnings is the article Kenkel D.S., Ribar D (1994). There, the authors show how alcohol consumption influences a worker’s wage. To illustrate it they devise two variables: “days drinking” – how many days the respondent drank in the past month and “heavy drinking” – how many days the respondent drank more than six drinks. The results indicate that the effects of the variable depend on the sex. For men there is negligible or no effect of “days drinking” and there is small effect of “heavy drinking”. However for women the effect of “days drinking” is small but positive and “heavy drinking” indicates no effect.

Lee and Hirschberg (2004) examine the effect of pernicious habits on wages. The authors consider not only alcohol consumption but also smoking. Using the Australian National Health Survey, they create the model which analyzes the correlation between alcohol consumption, smoking and wages. The sample includes data of two groups - smokers and non-smokers. For non-smokers the result is the same as in the previous research. Moderate drinkers earn more than either abstainers or heavy drinkers. But the data on smokers shows that there is no significant correlation between alcohol consumption and wages.

A huge group of modern researchers try to estimate social costs of alcohol consumption. Anderson and Baumberg (2006) find that tangible social cost of drinking in Europe in 2003 was about 1.3% of the GDP. The total tangible cost is divided into nine parts. More than a quarter of the total cost is the cost of mortality (€36 bn.), health and medical costs make up about 19% of the total cost, crime-related costs - 35% of the total cost and economic costs such as unemployment and absenteeism take 20% of the total cost. Furthermore, the intangible cost is also estimated in this research. The intangible cost includes “the value of people place of pain, suffering and life itself due to crime and lost healthy life due to alcohol”; and drinking causes about €152bn - €764bn in terms of intangible cost. The intangible cost cannot be compared with monetary indicators such as the GDP but it shows a more comprehensive view of alcohol consumption effects.

There are similar studies of alcohol consumption influence on social cost in other countries. The estimated effects of alcohol consumption, smoking and illegal drug using in Canada in 2002 show that the total social cost of misusing was about $40bn or $1267 of the total cost per capita (Jurgen Rehm et al, 2007). About 37% of the total cost was connected with alcohol drinking. The investigation finds that substance use and misusing, upon the whole, and alcohol consumption, particularly, produce a huge negative effect on the Canadian economy and society. For the Australian economy the effect of drinking alcohol is also enormous. According to the research of Collins and Lapsley (2008), the total social cost of alcohol consumption in Australia in 2004-2005 was $15.3bn and one third of this cost was intangible ($4.49bn.).

Another area of researching alcohol consumption effects is estimating the influence of alcohol drinking on human capital. Some studies examine the impact of alcohol consumption among young individuals and determine that drinking alcohol leads to decrease in time spent on studying and early termination of schooling and results in negative consequences for the future labor market. Mullahy and Sindelar (1989) use a sample group of men aged 25-59 to analyses the outcomes of teenage alcohol consumption. They find that teenage alcohol dependence causes early termination of schooling. The same reduction in the probability of high-school graduation is also found in the research of Yamada, Kendix and Yamada (1996) and in the study of Cook and Moore (1993). The supposition that education years
are reduced because of alcohol use is confirmed. In 2001 Koch and Ribar (2001) investigate the correlation between completed years of schooling and alcohol drinking using the sample from the NLSY. They find out that the earlier a person starts to drink alcohol the fewer grades of education he completes.

The empirical model of Williams, Powell and Wechsler (2003) examines two effects of teenage alcohol consumption. They divide the influence of alcohol consumption into direct and indirect effects on human capital. The direct effect is a college student’s GPA and the indirect one is the hours spent on studying. Using the data from Harvard School of Public Health College Alcohol Study, the authors reveal a surprising result that “drinking has a small positive direct effect on GPA”. On the other hand, the model shows that alcohol consumption negatively influences the hours spent on studying, thereby the indirect effect prevails over the direct one. Therefore, the net effect of alcohol drinking among students according to the research is comparatively small.

Some researchers consider health a constituent part of human capital. Grossman (1972) believes that health as a part of total human capital determines how much time people can spend on earning. Becker (2007) also defines human capital not only as education and job training but also as health. In this way the impact of alcohol consumption on human capital is quite obvious. According to the research, there are a lot of health problems associated with alcohol consumption. Drinking causes such diseases as liver damage, heart diseases, some forms of cancer, high blood pressure and others. But some investigations produce surprising results according to which deaths provoked by alcohol consumption among moderate drinkers are less common than among non-drinkers and heavy drinkers. Multiple medical studies observe the interdependence between alcohol drinking and deaths for different age, sex, geographic and ethnic groups (Coate D., 1993, Delaby L., Glynn R., Levenson R., Hermos M., LoCastro J., Vokonas P., 1992, Jackson R., Scragg R., Beaglehole R., 2004, Razay G., Heaton K., Bolton C., Hughes A., 1992).

One of the modern tendencies is examining the correlation between alcohol consumption and life satisfaction. The growing interest in the study of subjective satisfaction data can be explained by the development of econometric methodology, on the one hand, and applicability of the theory to some economic models, on the other. Massin and Kopp (2010) use Russian panel data to estimate the influence of drinking on subjective well-being. The investigation shows a U-shaped correlation between the frequency of alcohol consumption and happiness. The American researcher Graham (2008) also mentions alcohol consumption as a determinant of subjective satisfaction.

In economic literature, the effects of alcohol consumption on different parts of personal and social life have been examined. Recent researches show that the impact of alcohol consumption depends on the frequency and quantity of drinking. For moderate drinking the effect is positive: the productivity increases, a person earns more and feels happier. But for abstainers and heavy drinkers the results are opposite. In any case alcohol consumption affects human capital and causes huge social costs.

3. Data and descriptive statistics

The statistics for 2005 stated that alcohol consumption was about 30% of the total worldwide consumption. Governments and international institutes address the issue of high alcohol consumption. As it can be seen in figure 1, the total consumption of alcohol decreased in the recent years from 1192.32 liters per capita in 2005 to 1156.15 liters per capita in 2007. Unfortunately, this 3% decrease is too small in comparison with more than a 12% increase of alcohol consumption in 2000.

**Fig. 1.** Registered adult (15+ years) per capita consumption (in liters of pure alcohol), from the WHO

The World Health Organization divides all types of alcoholic beverages into four groups: beer, wine, spirit and others. Figure 2 shows that in 2005 beer was the most popular type of alcohol in the world, spirit was in the second and wine in
the third place respectively. These three types of alcohol accounted for about 97% of total alcohol consumption.

Fig. 2. Consumption of pure alcohol by type of beverage (%), from the WHO

There are a lot of myths about Russians, but sometimes these myths have evidence. Russians are known to be the most drinking nation. This fact is supported by regrettable recent statistics. The Federal State Statistics Service of the Russian Federation provides some interesting data on consumption of alcohol in Russia. The next figure shows sales of alcohol and beer in Russia in the post-Soviet period.

Fig. 3. Sale of alcohol and beer in liters per capita, from FSSS

According to the graph, there is a growing trend in alcohol and beer sales in modern Russia. In the nineties the average growth of alcohol and beer sales was about 4.2%. A sharp increase in the sales took place in that period: in 1995 the sales rose by 39% but then they dropped by 23% at the end of 1995. In the next decade the growth rates slightly reduced from 4.2 to 1.1%. Moreover, we can see a decrease in alcohol and beer sales from 2008 to 2011. Upon the whole, the sales of alcohol and beer increased by more than 64% from 1990 to 2011.

The empirical estimates are based on the Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey of HSE (RLMS-HSE) data - a panel survey for Russia. RLMS-HSE contains information on the income, socio-demographic characteristics of households and individuals. Additionally, the data set provides information on the subjective assessments of well-being, such as satisfaction with the job and life. The time interval is restricted to the period from 2005 to 2011. Most respondents were interviewed annually in October-November. The original sample for 2005 contains data on a little fewer than 5,500 individuals.

Life satisfaction is a dependent variable in this study. It is an answer to the question of how much the respondents are satisfied or not satisfied with their life in general. The answer has five gradations: "Completely satisfied", "Quite satisfied", "Partly satisfied", "Not very satisfied", "Not satisfied at all". These answers are presented as a gradation-ordered discrete scale of 1 to 5 for empirical analysis, the higher the value, the more the individual is satisfied with life.
The set of explanatory variables includes the main socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, marital status, level of education). The main focus of our attention is the variables that characterize the individual's attitude to consumption of alcohol: the dummy variable accounting for alcohol consumption in the past 30 days and the frequency of alcohol use in the past 30 days (the discrete variable from alcohol consumption once in the last 30 days prior to the use of alcohol every day).

RLMS data (Figure 5) shows that a significant number of individuals consumed alcohol in the last month, the proportion of men drinkers is extremely high, and is around 60-70%. In 2000-2001 there was an increase in the percentage of respondents who consumed alcohol, and then the value of the indicator tends to decrease slowly.

4. **Empirical results**

Life satisfaction can be treated as proxy utility. The goal of this paper is to examine the correlation between life satisfaction and alcohol consumption, to clarify how alcohol consumption affects an individual's subjective well-being.

Two sources of endogeneity can be identified in the analyzed problem.

Firstly, individual characteristics, such as one's value system and traits of character, may affect not only the level of life satisfaction, but also the choice of employment status.

Secondly, the existing environment, for example, a negative macroeconomic situation, may also correlate with a person's views and attitude to alcoholic beverages.

The first problem can be solved by employing panel data analysis with a fixed-effects approach, as it eliminates the effect of the individual's invariable personal traits.

An inclusion of annual dummy variables into the regression model to monitor the effect of the economic environment can help cope with the second problem.

Psychological studies indicate that job details and profit form the utility function in a complicated way. Life satisfaction is highly influenced by personal traits and other unobservable individual aspects. In other words, it may be assumed that perceptions of ordinal life satisfaction scale vary for individuals. Estimates of pooled regressions presuppose the correlation between individual effects and other explanatory variables. FE model in this case could fix the problems of pool and RE models' inconsistencies.
Maximum likelihood estimates of FE logit model can be assessed only on the subsamples of those individuals for whom there is time variation of dependent variable. Therefore, the sample size is usually reduced considerably, especially in the case of an ordinal dependent variable.

To cope with the problem of shrinking sample as a result of using FE models, we implement the so-called probit adapted OLS approach. This method proposed by van Praag & Ferrer-i-Carbonel (2008), consisting in rescaling the ordinal variable or “rough cardinalisation” in order to use linear models, would be more justified.

The “cardinalised” dependent variable is constructed by taking the expectation of a standard normally distributed variable under the condition that it is in the interval between those two Z-values that correspond to the class of the value of the original variable (Cornelißen, 2006).

In this method, Z-values of the standard normal distribution can be replaced with cut-off points taken from the ordered probit regressions.

After the “cardinalisation” process, linear FE model is estimated. Thus, this approach allows us to take into account the presence of unobservable individual effects and their correlation with regressors, and, at the same time, avoid the problems of the sample decreasing.

In order to check the robustness, we first estimate an ordered probit model without taking into account the panel nature of the data, and then apply the probit adapted OLS procedure.

Table 1. Determinants of life satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: life satisfaction</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Probit adapted OLS</td>
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<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol consumption</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of alcohol consumption</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Income (logarithm)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.093***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age/100</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage</td>
<td>0.084**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>0.069***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence in the future</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 2005</td>
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<tr>
<td>Year 2006</td>
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<tr>
<td>Year 2007</td>
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<td>Year 2008</td>
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<tr>
<td>Year 2009</td>
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<tr>
<td>Year 2010</td>
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<tr>
<td>Education dummy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Regional dummy</td>
<td>8 categories</td>
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<tr>
<td>Occupation dummy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pseudo R²</td>
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<td>R² between</td>
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<tr>
<td>R² overall</td>
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<td>Number of observations</td>
<td>19 734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of groups</td>
<td>8 750</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: significance levels: * - p < .1, ** - p < .05, *** - p < .01


1 Dummy variables for years, base year is 2011.
In addition to the described empirical analysis, pooled ordered probit model with Heckman sample selection correction was also estimated as robustness check as the frequency of alcohol use is observable only for individuals who consumed alcohol in the past 30 days. But the selection equation does not make it possible to explain the fact of alcohol consumption through any observable variables; that leads to identical results of the basic equation of life satisfaction in the Heckman model and probit ordered model without correction of selection bias. Individuals who consumed alcohol are more likely to be completely satisfied with their life in the case of ordered model estimation. However, when we try to take into account the invariable individual characteristics, and thus deal with the problem of endogeneity, the coefficient of the dummy variable, accounting for the alcohol consumption, is not significant in the fixed-effects model. But there is much probability in the assumption that the insignificance of the analyzed coefficient is caused by a small share of people moving from the category of drinkers to the category of non-drinkers and vice versa.

The influence of frequency of alcohol consumption on life satisfaction is significant and robust across different econometric techniques. On average, the more frequently a person consumes alcohol, the lower is the satisfaction with life, ceteris paribus. These results may indicate that reasonable consumption of alcohol improves the level of life satisfaction. However, alcohol abuse produces negative effects on life satisfaction. These results are particularly important for Russia as a country with a high level of alcohol consumption.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, the correlation between alcohol consumption and life satisfaction was examined. In Russia the problem of alcohol abuse and its negative social consequences is particularly relevant. When we analyze the performance indicators of subjective well-being, there almost always arises the question of endogeneity, mainly caused by the undeniable influence of an individual's personal traits. Certainly, personal characteristics of a person related to the background and the attitude to life partly determine consumption of alcoholic beverages. In this study, the models with fixed effects were chosen in an attempt to cope with the problem of endogeneity. However, due to the discrete dependent variable, life satisfaction, and the inability of estimation with the ordered models with fixed effects, the empirical analysis was conducted with the “rough cardinalisation” or probit adapted OLS approach. Empirical estimates are based on the Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey of HSE (RLMS-HSE) data. The result was that the inclusion of the invariable individual characteristics leads to insignificant influence of alcohol consumption in the past 30 days on life satisfaction, but that may be caused by a small share of people moving from the category of drinkers to the category of non-users or vice versa. On average, the more frequently a person consumes alcohol, the lower is the satisfaction with life, ceteris paribus. The results confirm the urgent need for state regulation of alcohol consumption and the introduction of measures to reduce the level of alcohol consumption in Russia.

References


Euroisation - Advantages and Disadvantages of Albanian Economy by Process of Cash Domestic Replacement

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Abstract

Albania is a country which is still in the second stage of economic development. The use of foreign currencies, particularly the U.S. dollar and the European currency has been and is a reality in the Albanian economy. The practice of using foreign currency in Albania extends from the price policies of commercial manufacturing firms, Albanian families who keep their savings in foreign currencies (mainly generated from remittances) to and relationship banking activity their business (on credit), etc.. By this paper work, I will try to give the impacts of this phenomenon in the Albanian economy, the advantages of disadvantages comparing Euroisation and the consequences that we had neighbors with Albania. In this paper, I have tried to present a picture so modest depiction of the Albanian economy, economic convergence problems, implications that can create euroisation (potential costs and benefits, etc.).

Keywords: euroisation, gross domestic product, economic impacts, adverse opinions.

1. Objectives of the study:
   a. The first objective is associated with a picture, description of system implementation euro European countries, especially neighboring countries with our country.
   b. The second objective has to do with the analysis of a number of economic and social factors that make Albanian theorists have opinions pros and cons on this phenomenon.

2. Methodology

The methodology that I have used during this paper has to do with research and information obtained from primary and secondary sources:
   a. Primary sources are interviews are conducted with business leaders and with various individuals who keep their savings in foreign currency.
   b. Secondary sources, are the basic theoretical material that I've received over the years of my academic studies, as well as information collected from scientific journals, the Internet, etc..

Based on the reliability of the information collection and statistical processing that I have done, I have reached conclusions and recommendations that were finalized at the end of this paper.

3. Introduction

The following material is intended to explain what the term means ‘euroisation economy’ as is unofficial cash rate of substitution to date and the possibility of using the euro as national currency. Given that developing countries like Albania currency, outside banks is high and a good part of the transactions carried out in cash, is the fact that today not all transactions are conducted in the local currency money, but find the use of foreign currencies in which the weight greater voice euro. In a world that is going more and more towards globalization, has become an irreplaceable need in the region to speak the same language, and the same currency used in commercial exchanges for whole Europe.

The charts below depicts the level of crediting in domestic money, compared to the level of crediting of Euro:
Graphs show that from 2000 - 2010 Euro deposit has to notice that they have been increasingly mobilized. This comes from increased demand for individual European currency and the improving banking policies for mobilizing this currency. Also the use of foreign currency deposits are widespread in developing countries such as Albania because it is still the only means and usable.

The case of Albania is analyzed by several other researchers, who have been taken with this phenomenon, but the results obtained show that the replacement of the national currency is not very high but it does not mean that everything will remain stable, every day we see greater use foreign money in our lives.

4. Euroisation - History

East European Monetary System was a result of the economic crisis of the 1970s, which led to the first plans for a single currency. The system was abandoned, fixed exchange values linked to the U.S. dollar. European leaders agreed to create a chain currency system, linking European currencies with each other. But the system immediately came under strong pressure from the dollar. During 1991, 15 members set strict criteria for membership, involving the targets for inflation, interest rates and budget deficits. They founded a European Central Bank to set interest rates. Britain and Denmark decided to remain outside these plans. Euro has entered the implementation on 1 January 1999 as electronic currency, used by banks, foreign exchangers, large firms and exchanges. New European Central Bank interest rates set for all Eurosystem, which comprises:

1. The European Central Bank and the national banks of the Member States belonging to the euro area, have the exclusive right to put into circulation euro money.
2. All decisions for the euro drawings and names are taken from the European Central Bank.
3. Eurosystem is responsible for the definition and implementation of monetary policy of the euro area.
4. The main objective is the sustainability of the value (price Stability) in the euro area.
5. Directs the activities of foreign exchange

4.1 Should it be an option to be considered?

Benefits of the eurosystem to have a unified European currency currently circulating for Albania are clear:

1. Practical benefits for citizens traveling to the eurozone without needing to do courses for foreign exchanges with host countries.
2. Market unique collection of all the benefits of a single European market.
3. Unique market financial benefits of giving and receiving currency.
4. Agreement macroeconomic benefits of a single currency in the economy as a whole/
5. The role of Europe in world advantages of Europe's international role.
6. European integration process benefits associated with scale integration.
7. Transparency pricing ease in comparison with various European countries.
8. Increased investment in Albania makes the investment to be safe and not subject to the use of exchange rates.
9. European integration moves Albania closer to making it part of the Eurozone
4.2 Costs that would place the burden of euro entry are:

1. The same rate of interest - the necessary acceptance rate of interest by not having a choice of a lower rate, to obtain a loan.
2. The trend for increasing the rate of inflation, this trend can be thought of a slight increase that may undergo commodity prices.
3. The loss of a part of our national sovereignty - currency has its history and for the Albanians will be less difficult adjustment to another currency.
4. Impact on import-export exchange rate fluctuations compared to neighboring countries hinder this relationship because there will be losers and winners from one side to another.
5. foreign currency borrowing - cost loan becomes high mainly for businesses who are the biggest borrower.
6. Euroisation official economy means giving up the use of the country’s money, and instead use the new European currency, euro, one of the main currencies (the second after the dollar) that is used in international transactions. In this way, the European Central Bank expects that applicants meet the four criteria it controls as mentioned above.

4.3 What does euroizim official economy mean?

1. Secure public finances
2. Low interest exchange
3. Stable exchange rate
4. Inflation, which should not be more than 1.5% higher than the average of the best three countries of the European Union which are Germany, France and Italy (developed countries, parts of Western Europe).

Giving up the national currency and the introduction of the currency of a foreign country, a strong currency and its main role in international transactions, is not a new invention. More than 50 European and African countries have linked their currencies to the euro, or basket of currencies, where euro is the main currency. Even many of the countries in the Balkans have given the euro exclusive status.

5. Internal domestic conditions that lead Albania to euroism.

The realities of these transition years have witnessed a growing preference to use by citizens of the European currency and the U.S. dollar, which, to a certain extent, has led to a partial euroizim economy. Currency substitution occurs when assets dominated in foreign currencies are used as means of payment, and replacement of assets occurs when assets denominated in foreign currencies are used as a means of preserving value.

As an indicator to measure the degree of substitution of currency used in the ratio of deposits to foreign currency monetary aggregate M1 (which includes only transactions of that money, so they realize the financial instruments exchange of goods at any time and without cost) While measuring replacement of assets used indicator appears as the ratio of foreign currency deposits to M2 monetary aggregate (which can otherwise called and broad money including the M1 and other forms of assets).

In our country, the replacement of the currency at the end of 2009 according to statistics published by the Bank in the figure is 51.3 percent. This percentage has increased over the years even more, which means that for every unit of the national currency, there is more than one foreign currency units. While the rate of replacement of assets at the end of 2009 stands at 24 percent.

Table 1: Dynamics of the degree of currency substitution and assets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>replacing cash M1 currency deposits,%</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>51.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Replacement of assets M2 currency deposits,%</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
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</table>
A significant portion of the population savings in foreign currencies circulating outside the banking system. Consequently, I have good reason to believe that the degree of currency substitution and wealth levels stay higher than reflected in the table above till 2009. However, even with these levels of official figures, the Albanian economy appear among those with the highest degree of monetary replacement.

Banks lend in domestic or foreign depending on the net balance of forces that are at work. On the other hand, lending in foreign currency will be more attractive the higher is the risk of depreciation, the higher is the guarantee placement and lower the cost of operation and financing of these loans.

On the other hand, the domestic currency lending will be more attractive as high as the bank’s monopoly power over borrowers of traded goods, the lower is the probability of depreciation and their effect on the failure of the loan and lower the cost of raising deposits and the management of loans in local currency.

6. External domestic conditions that lead Albania to euroism.

Entry of Albania into monetary union, means the beginning of the process of economic and political integration of the country into a secure and stable region. In this sense, euroisation could become a symbol of political and social integration in the EU, serving as a catalyst for rapid economic growth and employment of the Albanians.

Albania belongs to Europe not only in normative terms, but also economic. Having still a relatively high degree of openness to the world economy, and that further opening up to the levels of developed countries is an unavoidable fact, but a necessity to maintain high rates of economic growth.

Harmonization with EU structures should begin to be considered not only in terms of legislation and institutions, but also to fiscal and monetary policies. Which means that monetary policy should be linked to monetary policy of the European Central Bank.

This means that the monetary policy of the European Union have effects on the country’s monetary policy. Upon entry into monetary union by using the same currency, economic shocks sourced from exchange rates and interest rates, are eliminated. In addition, the process of economic integration in the monetary area tends to create economic and trade structure more similar.

Also considering that other countries of Central and Eastern Europe that aspire to EU membership, but the Balkan and have almost completely tied their currencies to the euro. While our country remains the only region among groups that de jure system has a fully floating currency exchange rates and related with any strong currency (euro or dollar).

In the perspectives of a greater integration of trade customs, currency Albanian lek would constitute the greatest source of risk to economic agents operating in the region, placing our country in the most unfavorable position. In a long term perspective of EU membership, Albania will face action with:

- A rapid economic growth
- exchange rate estimates
- free movement of capitals.

These factors are expected to lead to an increase in the current account deficit. Therefore the best solution in this case would be fast unilateral adoption of the euro as the national currency, even before they join the EU.

7. Loans

Those immediately affected by exchange rate fluctuations, in our case the rate EUR / ALL are individuals and businesses who currently peer obligation to repay a loan in this currency. Loans in euro constitute a substantial portion of the loan portfolio of commercial banks. Individuals affected by the change of the exchange rate are those who have a loan in euro and on the other hand have ALL income. Normally, to repay the monthly installments, these efforts must buy euro on the market. Variability makes it grow even though the cost of the loan installments may be the same high. So for example, in April 2010, according to Bank of Albania one euro bought an average of 138.5 lek, while a year later, in April 2011 so it has passed over 142 lek. To buy 100 euro in April 2010, it needed a borrower 138.5 lek, while in April 2011 14200 ALL it needed. The difference of 350 ALL caused only due to exchange rate fluctuation – could be excluded if the monetary system would be the same for the whole Europe. The difference in exchange rate, therefore the cost of credit, becomes large in the case of businesses, which have higher installments to repay. Businesses are the largest borrower in the banking system and currently the majority of loans are in euro. According to experts of our country most affected by this situation are those businesses that develop their activities in trade, as consumers buy in local currency and the goods they import from abroad, mainly paid in euro.

This allows the importer to spend much money to buy the amount Euro at the same terms and conditions, by
disseminating the following consumer cost. The exchange rate is an important factor of price performance when dealing with markets that are mainly supplied by imports, as well as in Albania.

8. Exporters

Considering the case when the euro is expensive, this situation is suitable for this category of business as a money Poor favors more exports, increasingly bringing more revenue for companies. However, this preference applies to this level of the exchange rate EUR / ALL, as if the European currency even more expensive, even more will cost of living in the country by the workers to seek wage increases and it would become more and more expensive.

9. Market Survey (research department-Central Bank Of Albania)

Results obtained from surveys conducted with customers presented in the following graphs. This is done through the inclusion of two survey questions in the Consumer Confidence Index, prepared by the Department of Monetary Policy and Research Department. Purchases term which occupy 95 percent of the individual consumer, performed mainly in local currency.

Only 7.1 percent of respondents perform more than 10 percent of short-term costs in foreign currency. Although low, this figure shows the use of currencies and in everyday life. Report changes when it comes to long-term costs, where 27.9 percent of respondents performed more than 30 percent of spending on long-term foreign currency for example, buying a building, car purchase etc.

These figures demonstrate the openness of the economy to foreign currency long-term and short-term costs, not only as repositories of value.

So from the above graphs show how the use of currency occupies the largest percentage of long-term consumption as buildings, cars or real estate and the rest in the consumption of local currency carry this consumption has a slightly higher percentage based on the reliability of our currency, despite this consumers already know this currency and reluctant to invest with.

10. Conclusions:

1. Three basic characteristics of membership in a monetary union are:
   First, membership in a monetary union means giving up monetary sovereignty. Monetary policies, strategies and instruments used, are European made. Second, monetary union is realized to time stability. Moving is a road that has no turning back. Rejection of such a decision would have a not calculative economic and political cost.

   Third, the euro area, differs from all other monetary areas, which usually defined as the area of a single sovereign state. Although they have a common monetary policy, member states pursue policies decentralized
fiscal issues, such as the budget, taxation and social policies. This means that the country maintains independence in the design and implementation of fiscal policy and budget, but within a set of limitations set forth in the Treaty (such as the size of the budget deficit and total debt and restrictions on direct financing of the deficit by monetary authority).

2. The main implication introduces the realization of monetary union is that he sought a permanent economic convergence, in the sense that any particular country should be able to stand alongside other member countries on a permanent basis, without recourse to national monetary policy or changes in courses exchange. If you possess a uniform economic policy and taxation as well as a national budget that can support the most backward regions of the country and hence, eliminate excessive deviations in the economy, monetary and economic zone of the euro does not have such institutional instruments. Maintaining a permanent economic and monetary convergence within a decentralized European political system is based on two basic pillars

First, each country support the competitiveness of the economy and his own
Second, a willingness to persuade member states to permanently set the treaty rules.

3. But economic convergence does not imply economic uniformity.

First, it implies uniformity of economic structure. Even within a monetary union, there is room for different styles and economic traditions.

Second, convergence does not imply uniform policy for the entire region. Rather decentralized monetary union requires that national policies to exercise their responsibilities for maintaining the competitive economic structures.

Third, the convergence does not imply uniform and equal conditions of life and economic prosperity in all countries or regions participating.

4. The legal framework in which it operates monetary union could be favorable for countries and less developed regions and to help them to accelerate the process of growth in advanced countries. Participating countries must obey the rules set out specific aspects of economic policy.

Given that the main sources of foreign cash entry fees are Albanian exports transfers from abroad and foreign currency loans granted can say that the benefits of the euro currency have to clear are currently circulating

- Practical benefits to citizens.
- Unique market.
- Unique financial market.
- Macroeconomic Agreement.
- Europe's role in the world.
- European integration.

5. Entry into monetary union means the beginning of the process of economic and political integration of the country into a secure and stable region. In this sense, euroisation could become a symbol of political and social integration in the EU, serving as a catalyst for rapid economic growth and employment.

Albania belongs to Europe not only in normative terms, but also economic. Having still a relatively high degree of openness to the world economy, and that further opening up to the levels of developed countries is an unavoidable fact, but a necessity to maintain high rates of economic growth. Harmonization with EU structures should begin to consider not only in terms of legislation and institutions, and fiscal and monetary policies, which means that monetary policy should be linked to monetary policy the European Central Bank.

6. In conclusion it can be said that as internal factors and external supports the idea of transition to using the euro or monetary policy linked to the euro. Also taking into account interest rates similar to those of European countries foreign currency deposits in Albania, it is logical that individual deposits decide where you work, thus avoiding the cost of performing the transfer. Moreover holding foreign currency deposits in Albania would not be very profitable, given the high interest rates on deposits in money.

7. From the results obtained from these paper note that since the customer Albanian has de facto become part of the European currency Euro in a way or another are now ready to do their part to use an even broader. There is a good portion of them that, do not agree because they think it will affect their investments, but also to neighboring countries was already using this chip will be easier to obtain benefits from their investments.
11. Recommendations

1. Adaptation of a stable foreign currency would bring greater credibility on the economy and financial system, interest rates would always tend downward, supporting non-inflationary growth and financial development help. Since three-quarters of the foreign commerce in Bangladesh held the euro zone. The new European currency would be closer to the possibility of replacing its domestic currency that our dollar. This suggests that, since monetary union would eliminate uncertainties in the exchange rate for the Albanian traders, trading within the monetary union, the euro currency would be more appropriate for Albania. While about 70 percent of foreign trade of the country is the euro zone.

2. Euroisation of Albanian economy would stimulate trade within the euro area, and to some extent will bring increased productivity, as Albanian producers in theory will have to discover and exploit new areas with the greatest advantage.

3. I think that for Albania, especially in this period of world crisis and the Balkans Albania is better to continue and maintain any year local currency and gradually come euroisation not many steps to accelerate because of the economy Euroisation means de facto, become part of a country's economic and monetary union with the euro area.

4. The main benefits if Albania was part of the European monetary union are:
   a. Increasing the volume of foreign trade by reducing transaction costs.
   b. Credibility will win on the rate of inflation.

5. However in terms of personal opinion about this issue that I think that a good part of the Albanian people is already ready to use a currency other than that of the Albanian lek, and being that great desire to become part of the great family of the European Union, is closer day by day it will be inevitable.

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Intangible Search, Searching the Intangible: 
The Project E.CH.I. and the Inventarisation of Intangible Cultural Heritage

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Abstract

The Interreg project “E.CH.I. Italo-Swiss Ethnographies for the Valorisation of Intangible Heritage” builds on the UNESCO Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Heritage (2003) which has been adopted in 2007 by Italy and in 2008 by Switzerland. In this project seven partner institutions from Italy and Switzerland coped with the challenges of identifying and documenting intangible cultural expressions in the border area between these two countries. In order to create a common denominator in the methodological approach a series of workshops have been organized, which were dedicated to audio and video techniques but also to techniques of documentation. Furthermore, as another important instrument of standardization an internet-based inventory has been developed, in which all documentations produced by the project partners have been catalogued. The inventory, which counted 242 documentations in June 2013 and which is the main result of the project, can be viewed online under the name “Intangible Search”. This article focuses on the insights gathered during the project E.CH.I. and the development of such a common inventory.

1. Introduction

With the “intangible turn” of the world heritage discussion which had its climax in UNESCO’s Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage, the intangible cultural heritage became a focus of present cultural politics (Munjeri, 2004; Vecco, 2010). This Convention was adopted on 17th October 2003 in Paris and entered into force on 20th April 2006 after it had been ratified by thirty member states. This requirement, as defined by Article 34, has been reached in only twenty-eight months. By 10th April 2013 the Convention had been ratified by 153 states, joined by Finland as the last Nordic country on 21st May 2013. Never before a Convention has been so popular on international levels (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 32; Blake, 2006, p. 1).

The purposes of this Convention are “a) to safeguard the intangible cultural heritage; b) to ensure respect for the intangible cultural heritage of the communities, groups and individuals concerned; c) to raise awareness at the local, national and international levels of the importance of the intangible cultural heritage, and of ensuring mutual appreciation thereof; d) to provide for international cooperation and assistance” (UNESCO, 2003, Art. 1). But what does “intangible cultural heritage” mean? UNESCO’s 2003 Convention defines this new kind of heritage as “the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills – as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated therewith – that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage. This intangible cultural heritage, transmitted from generation to generation, is constantly recreated by communities and groups in response to their environment, their interaction with nature and their history, and provides them with a sense of identity and continuity, thus promoting respect for cultural diversity and human creativity” (UNESCO, 2003, Art. 2.1). According to this definition intangible heritage is manifested in the following domains: “a) oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage; b) performing arts; c) social practices, rituals and festive events; d) knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe; e) traditional craftsmanship” (UNESCO, 2003, Art. 2.2).

The 2003 Convention is also the starting point of the Interreg-Project “E.CH.I. Italo-Swiss Ethnographies for the Valorisation of Intangible Heritage” which was part of the Operational Programme Italy-Switzerland 2007-2013. This article derives from the experience which I have gathered within the E.CH.I. project as researcher on account of one of its project partners, the Museum Ladin Ciaistel de Tor in the Autonomous Region Bozen-South Tyrol. I have described this research in a contribution to the forthcoming book Anthropologia e beni culturali nelle Alpi (Anthropology and cultural goods in the Alps) edited by Laura Bonato and Pier Paolo Viazzi (Bonato & Viazzi, 2013; Valentin, 2013). Hence, the article sheds light primarily on the insights derived from my work done on account of one project partner reflecting my
personal opinion which may differ from that of other partners within this project.

In this article I will highlight the news introduced with the 2003 Convention in contrast to former UNESCO programmes on intangible cultural heritage and resume some problems and paradoxes of UNESCO’s concept of intangible cultural heritage as emphasised by critical observers, especially concerning one measure of safeguarding intangible heritage proposed by UNESCO, that is the creation of lists and inventories. I will then proceed to describe the E.CH.I. project and one of its main outcome, the Intangible Search, which is an online inventory of intangible cultural heritage in the border area between the Swiss and the Italian part of the Alps. In the conclusions I will discuss critically this inventorial experience which may add further insights to the debate on the question if culture can or should be inventoried.

2. UNESCO and intangible heritage

There are fundamental differences between the definition of intangible cultural heritage as proposed by the 2003 Convention and UNESCO’s former programmes on intangible heritage, like the “Recommendation on the Safeguarding of Traditional Culture and Folklore” adopted in 1989 and the „Proclamation of Masterpieces of the Oral and Intangible Heritage of Humanity, which was introduced in 1997. While the latter “was significantly problematized, as it seemed to relate more to the areas of fine art or music than to popular and traditional culture” (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 33), the definition of intangible heritage in the 2003 Convention had to be sufficiently holistic and inclusive not only to cover an evolutionary and dynamic dimension but also by attributing a more active role to the people creating, maintaining and transmitting it (Blake, 2006, p. 31). The purely archival approach towards the protection of traditional culture of the 1989 Recommendation was substituted with the 2003 Convention by an approach which brought into the foreground the active participation of communities and their important role in the transmission of their heritage.

“Ideas of living heritage”, “heritage in danger”, “community participation”, and “authenticity” – these are the main characteristics of the “new intangible heritage narrative” as identified by Alivizatou (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 35ff.).

The “ideas of living heritage” refer to the fact that intangible cultural heritage as expressed in the 2003 Convention consists of cultural practices which are still alive and are still practiced by communities. Because of “its living and constantly evolving nature” (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 35), intangible heritage changes with its communities. This, in turn, may imply an apparent contradiction between the ideas of living heritage and the need for safeguarding it.

Another issue are the apparent threats to which intangible heritage is exposed. “Globalisation” and “social transformations” are identified in the Preamble of the Convention as factors representing a danger to intangible heritage (UNESCO, 2003). Even if the Convention inherits ideas of loss (or the fear of it) and its “preservationist ethos” (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 37) from former heritage discourses, it gives ground to the idea of “safeguarding” as “new salvage paradigm for living heritage” (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 37) which replaces notions of “conservation”, “preservation” and “protection” in favour of notions of “flourishing” and “sustainable development”. Hence, there is no evident contradiction between the ideas of living heritage and the need for safeguarding it, as stated above.

One of the key dimensions which distinguishes the 2003 Convention from former UNESCO instruments is “community participation”. This participation is implicitly contained in the definition of intangible cultural heritage as it “means the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills […] that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage” (UNESCO, 2003, Art. 2, §1, accentuation by the author). Throughout the convention there are several references to the participation of communities in the safeguarding process. In the Preamble it is recognised that communities, “in particular Indigenous communities, groups and, in some cases individuals, play an important role in the production, safeguarding, maintenance and recreation of intangible heritage” (UNESCO, 2003). Article 11 emphasises this point again in explicit relation to State Parties: “Each State Party shall […] identify and define the various elements of the intangible cultural heritage present in its territory, with the participation of communities, groups and relevant nongovernmental organizations” (UNESCO, 2003). Article 15 is dedicated most explicitly to community participation: “Within the framework of its safeguarding activities of the intangible cultural heritage, each State Party shall endeavour to ensure the widest possible participation of communities, groups and, where appropriate, individuals that create, maintain and transmit such heritage, and to involve them actively in its management” (UNESCO, 2003). Unfortunately, the Convention doesn’t contain any guidelines on how such participation process should be realised.

Community participation implies that the definition of which cultural practices may be identified as intangible heritage is up to the communities themselves, hence there cannot be fixed criteria to define “authenticity” of intangible heritage without risking an ethnocentric bias. The 2003 Convention had to overcome the problematic nature of the world heritage concept by finding a balance between universalism of the world heritage approach on the one hand and the
relativism of approaches to authenticity on the other (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 31). Nevertheless, “although never mentioned in the official documents, authenticity is very much present in the intangible heritage discourse. [...] Fears of acculturation, commercialisation, or folklorisation, for example, reveal an institutional will to protect intangible heritage from the threats of modernity, suggesting that the latter will harm original, authentic, and uncontaminated traditions” (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 39). According to Alivizatou, this shows up another paradox of UNESCO’s concept of intangible heritage: “while acknowledging that intangible heritage is living and constantly changing, the normative framework of UNESCO is designed in such a way as to impede its modernity-engendered transformation” (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 39).

The system of safeguarding foreseen by the 2003 Convention is based on lists aimed at the identification and valorisation of intangible heritage. Articles 16 and 17 prescribe the creation of two international lists. One is the Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity, the other is the List of Intangible Cultural Heritage in Need of Urgent Safeguarding. While the first shall “ensure better visibility of the intangible cultural heritage and awareness of its significance, and [...] encourage dialogue which respects cultural diversity” (UNESCO, 2003, Art. 16), the second one shall be created “with a view to taking appropriate safeguarding measures” (UNESCO, 2003, Art. 17). If, on one side, the process of listing, which lies on the basis of every process of heritagisation, has been criticised as supporting elitist and hierarchical thinking, on the other side it has been recognised as a necessary instrument, firstly for the identification and secondly for the safeguarding of cultural practices.

As it was the case with the World Heritage List based on UNESCO’s 1972 Convention, the elements proposed to be inserted into the Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity or the List of Intangible Cultural Heritage in Need of Urgent Safeguarding have to be previously inscribed into national inventories which the 2003 Convention regards as important instrument ensuring “identification with a view to safeguarding” (UNESCO, 2003, Art. 12). This led to a real competition among the State Parties in the creation of inventories since the concept of inventory is based on institutional, administrative, technical and scientific models which are more familiar to national governments as the more abstract concept of safeguarding (ASPACI, 2011, p. 12).

3. Problems and paradoxes of UNESCO’s concept of intangible cultural heritage

Several heritage theorists and practitioners have underlined different problems and paradoxes on UNESCO’s concept of intangible cultural heritage. International mobilisation and involvement of national governments in the areas of cultural diversity, traditional knowledge and popular lifeways, but also the inherent institutionalisation of culture and its ethnocentric bias have been severely doubted (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2004; Nas, 2002). While some discussed intangible heritage as a remedy to the loss of identity characterising the postmodern era (Nas, 2002), others discussed it as a sort of “metacultural production” (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2004). A radical impact can result from governmental and international involvement on how communities perceive their tradition. This is where also the debate about the invention of tradition (Hobsbawm & Ranger, 1983) comes in again. If the safeguarding measures according to UNESCO are global measures with the aim of counteracting globalisation (Nas, 2002), “[h]ow is it possible then for local, site-specific and community-related expressions to be asked to meet the same global and vague criteria in the name of cultural diversity and anti-standardisation?” (Alivizatou, 2012b, p. 10). Another problematic issue, which applies to the whole heritage discourse, is the idea of exclusion. “In addition to leaving out popular, global, and hybrid culture, the intangible heritage discourse creates a problematic relationship between a dominant national and a more marginalised minority heritage. The traditions of religious, ethnic, or cultural minorities are often left out of the official national narrative” (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 41).

One of the most criticised things of the 2003 Convention are the lists and inventories which are proposed as primary measures of safeguarding. The concentration of resources on inventories by the side of the State Parties represent for some observers nothing else than a strategy for avoiding real measures of safeguarding which allow to just limit to purely symbolic interventions (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2004). The priority laid on the creation of lists has been judged as objectifying, segmenting and simplifying cultures (Alivizatou, 2012a, p. 42) since it is translating cultural complexities into lists which consist of standardised descriptions recalling a naturalistic procedure of classification condemned as “positivistic illusion” (ASPACI, 2011, p. 14). Focussing on inventories has been seen contemporarily as technocratic, since it may become an exercise focussed primarily on information management, and anachronistic, since it is inspired in the salvation ethnography of early anthropology which had the primary scope to document primitive cultures in their entirety in order to prevent their complete loss (Brown, 2005). “Cultural decontextualisation”, “alienation”, “fossilisation”, “bureaucratisation of culture” are some of the terms going along with these critiques (Brown, 2005; Nas, 2002). Once cultural practices have been identified and listed, they may be exposed to interests, instrumentalisation, appropriation and commercialisation by users of these inventories, processes which cannot be predicted (Schuster,
2002). This raises problematic questions about intellectual property rights, since there is no international consensus about how rights on traditional knowledge can be secured (Anderson, 2010). Finally, inventories may be seen by State Parties as elements which give them visibility and prestige, while to those who work closely with communities they may appear focussed merely on metacultural representations than on the culture and its bearers (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2004; Kurin, 2007; Nas, 2002).

4. The project “E.CH.I. Italo-Swiss Ethnographies for the Valorisation of Intangible Heritage”

The project “E.CH.I. Italo-Swiss Ethnographies for the Valorisation of Intangible Heritage” builds on the mentioned UNESCO convention of 2003 which has been adopted by Italy in 2007 and by Switzerland in 2008. Lead partner of this project was the Archive of Ethnographies and Social History (Archivio di Etnografie e Storia Sociale AESS) of the Region Lombardy. Aside from this further six partner institutions participated in the project. On the Italian side these have been the Regional Office for Ethnology and Linguistics (Ufficio Regionale Etnologia e Linguistica or Bureau Regional pour l’Ethnologie et la Linguistique BREL) of the Autonomous Region Aosta Valley, the Department Museums and Cultural Heritage (Settore Musei e Patrimonio Culturale) of the Region Piedmont and the Museum Ladin Ciastel de Tor as representative of the Regional Museums in the Autonomous Region of Bozen-South Tyrol (Musei Provinciali Altoatesini). On the Swiss side the partners have been the Médiathèque Valais Martigny (Canton Valais), the Centre of Dialectology and Ethnography (Centro di Dialettologia ed Etnografia) in the Canton Ticino and Polo Poschiavo in the Canton Grisons.

The authors of the E.CH.I. project showed a big deal of creativity in the development of the acronym of the project. E.CH.I. is on one side the abbreviation of “Italo-Swiss ethnographies” which refers both to the ethnographic method applied in the documentation of intangible heritage and to the territories in the border area between Switzerland (CH) and Italy (I), on which the project was focussed. On the other side the acronym refers to the mythology of the nymph Echo. In the description of the project application we can read:

“Ovid reports that Echo was a nymph particularly talented in the art of narration. She was so talented that Zeus commissioned her to distract his wife Hera during his frequent extramarital adventures. Hera, after uncovering the swindle, did not appreciate this abusive use of the art of narration, deprived the nymph of her talent and condemned her to repeat only the last words of the sentences she heard. […] Echo, hence, is per antonomasia the fragment of a tale. And echoes are therefore “voices” which reverberate, rebound and dangle after each other – between rocky faces and valley scenarios – telling cuttings of a tale which, within the sonorous landscape, have undergone variations of effects, of forms, of interpretations and also of contents” (E.CH.I. project application, p. 1).

The echoes (in Italian echi), to which the described project is referring, are resound voices and episodes of tales in Alpine spaces which can adopt different variations, forms, contents and interpretations. The project E.CH.I. was dedicated to these immaterial fragments in the territories between Italy and Switzerland and has been concentrated on the following activities «in order to safeguard and to hand on cultural practices and traditional knowledge» (E.CH.I. project application, p. 6):

a. Identification: The identification of the intangible cultural heritage occurs through involvement of the community and the realisation of research projects which support the elaboration of dynamic territorial inventories.

b. Documentation: The intangible heritage is a living heritage. As such it is subject to constant transformation and change. Hence, intangible heritage cannot be safeguarded directly but can be fixed through the production of documentations, which allow to verify the evolutions and to understand processes of change.

c. Conservation: Primary goal of the conservation of the documentations is to facilitate the access to the documented knowledge through the creation of dynamic catalogue systems which allow a continuing implementation of the information.

d. Dissemination: The intangible heritage is expressed in manifestations of individual and collective intellectual creativity, which have to be safeguarded through recognition of the rights of informants while securing the protection and the access to documentary collections. For this reason the international scientific community has to be encouraged in adopting a code of ethics which guarantees the respect of traditional cultures and of their bearers. The transmission of intangible heritage can be promoted by programmes and initiatives which help the bearers of tradition and foster the renovation through new forms of creativity.

e. Promotion: The value of intangible heritage shall be disseminated as much as possible through the organisation of events such as fairs, festivals, seminars and workshops, through media, radio, television and through the realisation of products with educative scope which can be used in schools, cultural institutes, etc. (E.CH.I. project application, p. 6-7).

On the basis of the mentioned activity fields the project follows a common strategy “which supports the
communities in their response to the homologising pressure which globalisation exerts on peculiarities, on cultural and linguistic pluralities and on the continuity of some traditional activities, especially in border areas” (E.CH.I. project application, p. 8).

In order to create a common denominator in the methodological approach a series of workshops have been organised, which were dedicated to audio and video techniques but also to documentation techniques of certain categories of intangible heritage, like festivals or traditional craftsmanship. Furthermore another important instrument of standardisation has been developed. This was an internet-based inventory called Intangible Search, in which all documentations produced by the project partners have been catalogued. In the next section we will have a closer look at this inventory.

5. Intangible Search: The inventory of the E.CH.I. project

One of the main outcomes of the project was the “Intangible Search: Inventory of cultural heritage” which is publicly accessible online. Since every project partner catalogued all the documentations produced by using this online tool, in June 2013 it counted 242 documentations.

If we open the web page, we get a first overview of the inventory’s structure on the start page and we are offered a broad array of possibilities to browse through the documentations contained in it. An inevitable eye-catcher is the big banner which shows a picture of a cultural practice which has been documented. As a sort of appetiser, the user can thumb through some of such pictures, showing a few examples of the numerous documentations contained in the inventory, like the art of violin-making of Cremona, the art of lace-making of the Canturino area, transhumant shepherds in the Lombardy region, or the Carnival of Bagolino and Étroubles.

Below the banner we find different possibilities to explore the inventory, either by showing its contents as a list, as a map or by categories. If we choose the list, we will get all file cards contained in the inventory ordered alphabetically by their title. If we are more interested in the geographical distribution of cultural practices, we may prefer the map view from which to choose the file card we want to look at more closely. The third possibility is to choose one of the five categories “arts and entertainment”, “oral traditions”, “rituals”, “naturalistic knowledge” and “technical knowledge”, which represent the categories of intangible heritage as defined by UNESCO’s 2003 Convention. Practical experience has shown that it is not always possible to clearly associate a cultural practice to only one category. It may be the case that if we focus on different elements of a cultural practice it might be attributed to two or even more categories. The Intangible Search does not allow to associate a practice to more than one category. This might be avoided by splitting a file card, focussing the description of every file card on specific elements which we want to associate to a certain category, and linking these related file cards to each other.

There are other ways to explore the inventory. We can use either the search function to find a keyword in the whole inventory or just in certain categories, or we can choose a tag from a list getting all file cards which match with it. Additionally, we can click on small icons with portraits of some people involved in the documentation of cultural practices. By doing so, we get a small biography of that person and the file cards with the documentations associated with that person.

Once the user has identified the cultural practice he is interested in, he has the possibility to see further details and access the documentations produced by opening the associated file card. On the top of this file card we get first of all a multimedia gallery containing pictures, audio recordings and/or videos. The gallery shows us documents related to a specific year in which they have been produced. Some file cards contain also archival materials which can be shown by browsing through a timeline below the gallery which allows to access multimedia files according to the year of its production or of the production of the source document they reproduce. The file card contains furthermore a textual description of the cultural practice with considerations on its transmission, involved communities, existing actions of valorisation and safeguarding measures. On the left side, the user finds the information to which heritage category the practice has been associated with, some related tags, its geographical and temporal localisation, and who are the protagonists involved. On the right side, there are some references to the described cultural practice (bibliography, websites, archives, etc.), information about related material goods, the author(s) or responsible institution who produced the file card and the date of publication. Furthermore, there is the possibility to share the file card on the most popular social networks, like facebook and twitter.

1 Intangible Search, http://www.intangiblesearch.eu/
Last but not least, since E.CH.I. is understood as a community-based and participatory project, anyone can make suggestions and indicate cultural practices which communities may identify as their heritage. By clicking the “suggest” button an online form is opened through which contact details, a message and even files (pictures, pdf or word files) can be uploaded.

So far I have described the online inventory as it is accessible by the public. But what lies on the backstage of this inventory? Behind the inventory lies a password protected online database which is accessible only by authorised people, i.e. institutions and researchers involved directly in the E.CH.I. project. This database represents an attempt to deliver an instrument of standardisation for online cataloguing of all produced documentations. While the information in the online inventory accessible to the public is limited to more general information, the online database from which the Intangible Search is fed contains additional detail information needed for a more exhaustive documentation of a cultural practice. Without going into details, I just would like to give a summary outline of which information is given in this online database. Each cultural practice catalogued in the system is associated to one category of intangible heritage and tagged with keywords. In addition to a general denomination of the cultural practice also its local (emic) denomination is documented. The data about the geographical localisation of the documented element includes also GPS coordinates which are shown on an embedded map by Google Maps. Without knowing the exact GPS coordinates it is also possible to delimit a certain area or territory by drawing lines directly on the map. Furthermore, a textual description of the spatial movements can be added, which may be relevant for the description of processions or similar practices, for example. Along the spatial data also data about the recurrence is inserted, i.e. if it is a yearly or another periodical event, which occasions (religious, natural, lifecycle, etc.) may be related to it, and if the practice is still living or if it is not practiced anymore. It follows a textual description of the practice, historical notes, notes on associated tangible and intangible goods, the persons met during the documentation, notes on the communities involved, the transmission and actions of valorisation and safeguarding which may apply. Last but not least, multimedia files like pictures, audio files, videos, etc. can be uploaded. For each uploaded file some information can be added, like a description, the author, date etc. and if the file may be published on the Intangible Search or not.

6. Conclusions

This article resumes some new tendencies in the approach to heritage as introduced by UNESCO’s 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage when compared with former programmes on intangible heritage. There are some important critical points of the 2003 Convention, especially as regards to lists and inventories proposed by UNESCO as primary safeguarding measure. Drawing on the case of the project “E.CH.I. Italo-Swiss Ethnographies for the Valorisation of Intangible Heritage”, I described a recent project experience in the implementation of an online inventory like the Intangible Search. As a conclusion, I would like to discuss critically this inventory which may add further insights to the debate on the question if culture can or should be inventoried and if so, how this can be done without falling into essentialising, objectifying and simplifying discourses.

The collection, the representation and interpretation of knowledge ask for participative involvement of the community and an open dialogue. The 2003 Convention does not deliver clear guidelines on how such a participatory process could be designed and I doubt that this would have any positive impact due to the very heterogeneous situations anthropologists encounter in the field even while working within the same community. The very different approaches and degrees of participation we find in different inventories in Europe, Asia, Nord and South America (AS PACI, 2011, p. 91ff.) is further evidence for this argument. Within the E.CH.I. project it might have been a good choice to organise – together with the more technical workshops on documentation, audio and video techniques – a workshop dedicated to community-based and participatory instruments in order to align methodologically all project partners. But even with such an alignment it would have been impossible to have the same participatory procedure for every project partner without creating an unnatural research situation. I think much could be done methodologically if best practice experiences would be shared more intensively among people involved in similar projects.

Furthermore, an online form for heritage suggestions and social network plugins on the Intangible Search may proof to be incentives for increased involvement of communities. But we have to be conscious about the fact that these instruments are addressed only to people with access to those technologies and who have appropriate technical literacy. More often than not, the bearers of traditional knowledge (like seniors for example) are not familiar at all with such modern instruments of communication and would depend on “technological brokers” in order to be “heard”. On the other hand, this could also proof to be an incentive for intergenerational transmission of cultural heritage (or at least exchange of knowledge and skills), when, for example, a grandparent tells a cultural practice so far unknown to a grandchild who in turn inserts the suggestion on the website on account of the grandparent.
A similar argument applies also to the accessibility of the heritage documentations. For sure, the fact that users have the possibility to access the contents of the inventory in their own language is a minimum requirement. In fact, the Intangible Search can be explored in five different languages, offering not only languages like English, French, German or Italian but also a minority language like the Gherdëina, a variation of the Raetoroman or Ladin language which is spoken in Gröden Valley (Val Gardena) – territory on which I did my research on account of the Museum Ladin (Valentin, 2013). Digital archives have certainly a lot of advantages and open up completely new possibilities regarding worldwide collaboration, accessibility, exchange and promotion. But as long as there will be people with restricted access to this new technological instruments we should have also alternative mediums for the storage of documentations as complementary instruments to electronic mediums.

The fact that new technologies ease worldwide access and communication is closely related also to problems of publication. Up to which point things can be published and what happens with sensitive data? Who should actually have the right to access which data? And finally: who should decide about this? At the moment, the online inventory behind Intangible Search does not offer the possibility to define which information will be published on the public website. Up to now, it is possible only with the multimedia files to define if they can be published or not.

The translation of intangible cultural heritage into digital archives appears to me as a logical consequence due to the accelerating development of new technologies which made worldwide realtime collaboration and promotion much easier. The preservationism which may be justified in the case of monuments or archaeological sites is unjustified in the case of the intangible heritage. We can’t – and I would also say we shouldn’t – counteract the change and transformation of intangible cultural heritage through documentation and display in online inventories. Even in UNESCO’s concept of safeguarding this is not foreseen. Traditions, festivals and rituals can’t be embalmed. What we can conserve there is at most snap-shots of these practices on video, audio and photographs. We should think, as Alivizatou suggests, beyond notions of decay, salvation or loss and recognise cultural change as new value in coping with cultural heritage (Alivizatou, 2012a). The Intangible Search tries to avoid a static description of a cultural practice through the timeline which allows to browse the multimedia files according to their year of production. Unfortunately, this timeline does not apply to the textual description which in turn assumes the characteristics of an unchanging inscription. If such a description is not updated we would seem to confirm the static nature of a cultural practice and if it is updated without saving former versions of such descriptions we would lose precious data for reconstructing the evolution of that heritage.

It remains the question if culture can or should be inventoried and if so, how this can be done without falling into essentialising, objectifying and simplifying discourses. In my personal opinion these two questions can both be answered positively. If postmodern anthropology claims to be able to write books about culture which are free from essentialism, objectivism and simplification, why then should this be different with inventories? Doing research on culture, independently from the form of its publication, is completely legitimate as long as fundamental ethical and professional aspects are taken into account and respected. The intangible heritage as highlighted by the UNESCO Convention bears interesting challenges and new potentials for anthropological research. I believe that we as inventorying anthropologists still can remain on neutral grounds as long as we do not aspire to reach an inscription on one of UNESCO’s proposed lists as outcome of our inventorying practices, which of course may be the result of them even without our intention. Only through active participation and participative observation, that is actually by doing our job, in this new context of multinational cultural politics of intangibility we can take care that these inventorying practices become as scientifically valid like other variants of anthropological research might be.

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Website of the Intangible Search http://www.intangiblesearch.eu/
Avant-Garde Drama and its Impact on Modern Albanian Drama of Kosovo

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Abstract

Given that significant currents of Albanian drama circulated in Kosovo belong to the modernist literary poetics, it is necessary to talk briefly about the main principles that possess these trends, dramatic experiences and literary currents. The aim is to highlight the principles and features, which appear to us as the principles and features that have guided and differentiate their works. In line with developments in contemporary theater, the pace of society, modern technologies installed at the scene aggregates; they coincide with developments in dramatic genders, impact and the relationship it creates with the reader, especially the public of the time, modern drama in Kosovo in the late 60s and early '70s began to prefer the typology of absurd drama, which was in vogue at the time. It became more poetic, meaning more abstract. Closer to it are elements and sensory overlaps such as the paradoxical, particularity and astonishment, the theatricality of gestures, actions, the environment and the reduction of words, the symbolism of decors and object requisites, the structuring of the subject as reverie (borrowed by the Surrealists), the presence of internal monologue as a basic structure, the conscious mixing of times creating a "time within time" or an "anti-time", which is identified as "psychological time" without measurable physical targets, turned inside out, as an expression of mental confusion of character. From a comprehensive picture, it can be observed that Albanian plays and playwrights in Kosovo that follow principles of modern literature, from the late '60s until today, increasingly better from a structural point of view, have made use of elements and components such as:

1. surprise, expressed in numerous contingencies during the course of action dramatic, especially with the free ends of presumed paradoxical
2. contrapunct, used as a ubiquitous element between characters, character and situation, character and way of conflict resolution, word and action, what is said and what clearly meant etc.
3. rate of speed, that includes all components and becomes in situation (in Joneskos parts prompted by extreme pace, while the Beckett less, turning the situation naturally).
4. recycling and closed circles. Dense in modern drama used the so-called "revolving facility" when it finally loan stage of the break or the beginning of the episode, the beginning of gesture to the act of precursor. Not only absurd playwrights as Jonesco, especially Beckett, Brecht also has used such elements, even Sartre and Camus, but in a wider context, that includes all philosophical corpus of works, when articulated opinion initially introductory presentation of drama and resumes a new, as a circuitclosed at its end.

The purpose of the letter includes just throwing light on the emergence and development of modern drama, as gender module with complex literature. Ne author paper will compare and typology.

A comparative study

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, in Europe and beyond as regards the drama, new trends new that openly opposed, even denied the traditional classical form of the construction of drama as such as, began to appear. The morphology of the theater underwent major changes, hence that of the drama also. Thus, the early rules were laid down. We do not see anymore a partial denial, but contrary we see a total denial towards the laws drafted by Aristotle at his work "Poetics".

Then by Nikola Bualoi to "Poetic Art", who also formulated the principles of French classical drama. The principles of romantic drama that are found with Hugo, in the preface of his famous drama "Hernani", were dropped. The dramas are nowadays designed as reveries, or a malformed metaphysical circumstance, beyond the truth. "Avant-gardes is inconsistent with the existing system, - stated Ionesco, one of the prominent representatives of this direction - An aggressive artistic creation is self evident that innovation brings." *

In line with developments in contemporary theater, in line with the developments of the dramatic gender itself, the impact that it creates with the reader and especially with the public of the time, the modern drama in Kosovo in the late '60s and early '70s began to prefer typology absurd drama, which was in vogue at the time, mainly in France. Her experiences reflected, expressed, and were supported and oriented by the advanced and aesthetic theories and
experiences, especially those modernist and avant-gardes. Thus, in the works of Camus, Joneskos, Beckett, Edward Albeit, Max Frisch, the classic subject is obliterated, the action is escalated and universalized, the measurable physical time is challenged, as well as at a formal, stylistic and typological level, creative applications of the principles of postmodernism are seen.

The French modern drama and beyond hits and reject myths; it has a strong de-mystic and de-mythic sense. That is why the early myth, from the tragic subject to the sublime works of the ancient Greek, the French playwrights now examines how a recount is likely to be something "different", over and against the spiritual structure that it entails. For this reason, the ancient Greco-Roman myth as well as the whole ulterior mythological structure, comes into the eyes of the avant-garde and of modern playwrights as witty likely artifacts, which can irones, ridicules, laughs.

Besides this, in the case of the use of mythological structures in modern drama a significant overlap of new understandings, what is called "ri-semantizm" of ancient texts, as happens with dramas of Myllerit Heinrich, John Milington Syng, John Osborn etc., is found.

The production of dramatic scene that goes in French stage, at the time when the absurd drama had started to conquer it, followed the traditional view to spotlight a protagonist, to resolve a conflict of a general or personal character, contemporary or spiritual. Beckett and Ionesco, Pinterin and Frisch did not primarily aims towards these intentions. Thus, they came to rocking the stage, first in Paris, then in London, the U.S., in Germany and elsewhere.

Ionesco completely breaks traditional dramatic language in dramatic dialogue and dramatic situations, and brings on stage the incoherent playing through words and develops unrelated and illogical dramatic relationships. His characters in most of the cases are puppets; automated actions and are under the grotesque life. While Beckett dramas process the human loneliness and loss in modern and contemporary civilization and are moistened by the views of lack of impasse and pessimism regarding the meaning of life. Very little remains of the early drama into the drama of these two writers.

From a comprehensive picture, it can be observed that Albanian plays and playwrights in Kosovo, following the principles of modern literature, from the late '60s until today, more and more, from the standpoint of structural elements have used and are using the same of components as in the large complex of the creativity of French avant – guard and beyond such as "the Bald Singer", "lecture", "the king is dying", "rhinoceros" of Joneskos, "waiting for Godon", "End of game", "Oh, those beautiful days" of Beckett, "servants" of Zhenet.

Levi-Strauss stated: "The ultimate goal of human sciences is not to ascertain the man, but to dismantle it." Ionesco and Beckett propose their solution to the problem of human in a world where he feels he "cannot continue, however should continue ", words which closed last novel of Beckett's trilogy, "L'Innommable" ("one without name").

This solution was formed from years of research and artistic contemplation. It finds its excellent incarnation in the dramatic masterpieces created by Jonesko, Beckett, Adamov, since the early '50s onwards and is focus in a way almost into the epigrammatic exchanges done several times during the replies of the main characters and through the author's words in brackets, for example, at "Waiting for Godona": "Let's go. (they don't move from the place), however in this case it is not openly unmitigated elaborated.

Also in modern drama delivered in Kosovo, we find access to the space conception of the stage drama; which seems to be an obvious fracture compared to classical drama. Now, the space does not serve and is not enough for mediation of the dramatic vision and that of the stage realization, but it is conceived with modern elements of the avant-garde vision launched in the French theater.

The same elements, meeting points and parallels are encountered between the two dramaturgies, the modern French and the modern Kosovor:
1. surprise, expressed in numerous contingencies during the course of the dramatic action, especially at the paradoxical and speculative endings,
2. counterpoint, used as a ubiquitous element between characters, character and the situation, character and the way of resolving the conflict, word and action, what is said and what is meant clearly, etc.
3. the accelerated rhythm, which includes all the components and turns into a situation (in Joneskos plays, the rhythm is prompted through the extreme, while it is less done by the Beckett, by naturally becoming a situation).
4. Recycling and closed circles. Quite often in the French modern drama as well as the Kosovo drama, the so-called "revolving facility", when the loan is finally starting to share the stage, or the beginning of the episode, the beginning of the act to the previous gesture are used.

Not only the absurd playwrights like Ionesco, Jean Zhen, especially Beckett, but Brecht as well has also used such elements; even Sartre and Camus, but in a broader concept that includes all philosophical corpus of works when the opinion is initially articulated in the introductory presentation of drama and resumes again as a closed circuit, through its end. Controversy or anonymous forms are the preferred forms in the modern drama.
Even for the Albanian authors in Kosovo this is quite obvious. Numerous controversies have found expression and are performed, among others, between:

1. Content and form: namely when the text of the dramatic nature is played in a comic way, it is a burlesque, and vice versa;
2. Between gesture and speech;
3. Between de-notation and connotation, when the meaning of a word or sentence is devaluated by the use of intonation, which did not respond to it, because it is in anti-sense, and vice versa;
4. Communities and parallel action
5. Comic sides and tragic sides, which appear as oppositional elements and vectors

In relation to the typology of the absurd postmodern world drama, that surreal, anti-drama (and beyond), we distinguish enough access to Albanian authors such as: - ("GOF" and "syncopation" of A. Pashku).

The measurable physical time is challenged, it functions as the essential of its spiritual confusion, while the being remains unchanged and beyond a specific historical time (dishonoring of Halil Garrisë Tetralogjia "The Gorgon Rooster Inn" of Bekir Musliu, despite the fact that is appears in various faces, it ultimately remains the same).

The application of anti-name between the white and black color, good and evil, the dead and the living things is part of the mystery of existence, therefore impossible to discover and clarify (e.g.: trilogy "Coast of grief" and "People with zymrydi eyes" of Teki Dervish).

Counterpoint an element that causes the effect of boomerang: from logic to illogical and vice-versa, from the allegedly reason to the avoidance of reason, from seeming harmony cosmos, order, coherence spiritual, to chaos, disharmony, destructiveness, the disconnection, the road which leads automatically to absurd (p.sh "Four epaulets" of Haqif Mulliqi, "Beselam, Why sacrifice" of Rexhep Qosja, "paper moon" Mehmet Kraja). Deformed surroundings and evil impacts, destructiveness, satanic and occult come in the form of metaphorical symbolic (satanic calendar and sinister underworld humans, death, at the raven choir and antiphonal of Bekir Musliu).

Animism and the paradoxical metamorphosis of people into animals, birds or being scary and disgusting (B. Musliuhas T. Dervish, Rasool Shabani).

Preference to pre-psychological situations, of paranoia and Jermyn, that leads to mental obsessions of the characters, which are used to care for an artistic cohesion of the mythological subject, for an amalgam that should be as much expressive regards of what is real compare to unreal, the touchable with "the untouchable", and the unperceivable ("Alive Sfinga " R. Qosja, "Hijesina" of Islam Nabi, "Prince of shadows" Mehmet Kraja, "Perfumery" the Haqif Mulliqi etc.).

By carefully investigating the process and the applied styles of modern drama by French authors, we note that interesting approaches are seen in many elements observed by the Kosovo authors as:

- fatalistic character and the frequent trans-figurations, that leading to the ignorance of the truth and the essence of being. Faustian parabola of conversions and tragic consequences, as it appears to the script "Fair of Gjilan" of B. Musliu, among others, plays in this drama the role of a man's own existential self-expression (perhaps imposed by the circumstances of occupation, where the tragic outcome is precisely the alienation)
- the parallels of the existentialist literature and that of absurd are very obvious. The wealth of ideas, thrill seeking, deliriums, hallucinations and nightmares, dramatic pathos, spiritual situations that resemble as related to the secrets of the mysterious, the fear that comes from paranoia, prophetic speculations etc. are placed in order to create some "archetypes". Characters have great generalizing powers that appear as depth, ethnic, cultural and civil rights in general, once as unique and universal as human (grief Coast), once as being concrete historical Albanian identity (Onufri of Neokastrës, Illyrian trilogy, Age trial, Ulpijana 518, exhumation of Peter Bogdani).

On the other hand, the popular existential dichotomies of life-death, of being here and there, I am – I am not and I have – I have not, in many dramas are bent in the form of spiritual fog and horror of survival. Further, the convert as misunderstanding and fatalities, following the well-known notion of absurd drama, that existentialist, surreal or the anti-drama.

Loneliness is given as an existential suffering, as anxiety, which comes from the ancient writings, while the presence is experienced as nausea, lack as nostalgia. Loneliness, frustration, obsession, silliness and rejection are described as cosmic, beyond time. This has brought together quite a few dramas with the paradigms of absurd drama. Authors and dramas brought in this paper may be evaluated as works and as playwrights, who have shown substantial access to modernity, which brought in general into the Albanian drama during the past 30 years a poetic, a new profile and experience, active and prosperous, which is part of its effort for its inherent involvement in contemporary European dramatic flow.
Albanian Drama cultivated in Kosovo was closer to the extended contemporary literary developments, at the regional and global levels. Its experiences reflect, express, supported and were aimed towards the advanced theory of aesthetic experience, especially those modernist and avant-guard. Albanian playwright names as Bekir Musliuhas, Recep Qosja, Anton Pashku, Teki Dervish Mehmet Kraja, Ekrem Kryeziu, Ymer Shkrel, Azem Shkrel, Jabir Ahmad Sabri Hamiti, Fadil Hysaj, Mulliqi Haqif etc. have delivered with talent literary forms of dramatic recent models. In their time, but even then, they rejoiced and enjoy arguably one of the most comprehensive literary authority and ownership.

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From Working-Class to Immigrant Areas?  
The Case of Two Former Industrial Districts  

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Abstract  
In this paper I consider the situation of two former industrial districts of Genoa – Cornigliano and Sestri Ponente – in order to problematize the substitution mechanism between blue-collar (working class) and white-collar (middle class) workers. As underlined in the literature on post-Fordism, with the end of Fordism there was a general shift in the population composition, with a strong decrease of the working class and an increase of the middle class. At the same time, studies on immigration in various neighborhoods show that in some cases these former industrial areas have become target areas of immigration. In my research I show that the switch from working class to middle class happened completely only in those areas which were successful in their transition into a post-industrial configuration (Sestri Ponente in my research). On the contrary, in the areas where deindustrialization led to degradation and unemployment (Cornigliano in my study), the process was very different: there is a drastic increase of people from all over the world, and, although the middle class did in fact increase, working-class people were largely replaced by immigrants in these areas. It is important to underline that some areas became middle-class districts while others largely became areas of immigration. In this sense, it is possible to speak of a different substitution process. The (partially) unsuccessful industrial transformation and the negative consequences of having had an industrial past seem to lead to a general degradation of some areas, therefore attracting immigrants because of their economic difficulties, and essentially “pushing out” the middle-class population (typically the children of blue-collar workers). In conclusion, I analyze various transition paths leading from an industrial to a post-industrial situation, in order to underline a process which is not clearly shown in the literature, i.e. the substitution mechanism from working class, blue-collar workers to immigrants, in those areas where coming out of the industrial era was problematic.

Keywords: “Fordism”, “Post-Fordism”, “Immigration”, “Middle class” “Working class”

1. Introduction  
From the 70s, the crisis of Fordism led to different situations both in production ways and population composition. In particular, former industrial and basically working-class cities – as well as areas within cities – suffered many changes because of the transition to post-Fordism.

In the course of this transition, several transformations occurred, in which general lines of change can be identified (see par. 2). The literature on post-Fordism underlines that, with the end of Fordism, there was a general shift in population composition, with a strong decrease of the working class and an increase of the middle class. In this article, I partially question this process, both by considering immigrants and by focusing on the districts’ levels.

The new economic structure has changed – and is still changing – the role of the city and that of the various areas within the city (Castells 1996; Sassen, 1994). According to Sassen (1994), the new economy creates a new geography of centrality and marginality (especially in cities, but also in particular areas within the same city), closely linked to their ability to change their productive structure and to adapt to the emerging situation.

Within cities, many formerly industrial areas experience some difficulties. The degradation of these areas generates certain problematic phenomena (material deprivation, family instability, degradation of housing, street crime) and perceptions related to squalor, e.g. the stigma of place, and the omnipresent climate of fear and anguish (Wacquant, 2008). Despite these difficulties, not all areas suffer these transformations passively, and some areas have managed to change. For this reason, there are numerous (different) ways of coming out of Fordism within the same city.

This paper derives from a study carried out in two former industrial areas located in the Western area of Genoa, i.e. Cornigliano and Sestri Ponente. In particular, I analyse the history of these two areas in order to show the different processes of substitution when going from a Fordist to a post-Fordist situation.
From a methodological point of view, the research is based on interviews with key informants, on the analysis of the available statistical data (mainly from the Census\(^1\)), on the historical and sociological literature.

In the first section I summarize the main processes connected with Fordism/post-Fordism and immigration in different neighbourhoods. In the second section I focus on the transformations and the current situation of the two areas (Cornigliano and Sestri Ponente), with particular reference to the population composition.

Finally, I discuss the results in order to highlight what the two case-studies suggest.

2. Theoretical and empirical background

2.1 The transition to post-Fordism

The term Post-Fordism refers to the overcoming of the Fordist economy due to the economic crises that hit the Western economies during the 70s\(^2\). The crisis of Fordism originated both in its Taylorist characteristics and its regulative aspects (linked to the welfare state). The Taylorist principles lost some of their efficiency with the advent of technology and the internationalization of the economy, which made governmental control more difficult.

This crisis led to a phase of slower economic growth, rising inflation and unemployment. Over the same period, the economy, which in the past had been centred on the production of goods, became based on services, with a tertiarization of the economic sphere. The enhanced development of services happened in certain fields in particular. With industrial development there was a general expansion of transportation and utilities, and with the advent of post-Fordism there was a rise in finance, real estate and insurance. In particular, personal services were greatly expanded: the general increase of this sector was also accompanied by a change within, in the sense that some service sectors (such as finance, real estate, insurance, healthcare, education, leisure and public administration) had a significant increase in size and in number of employees (see: Bell, 1973; Walker, 1985).

Focusing more on the issue that I am most interested in, it is important to underline the changes in the labour market and the class structure.

In this regard, there are two processes I wish to underline.

The first is a marked decrease of blue-collar workers and the growth of white-collar workers. A blue-collar worker is a worker performing manual labor whereas the term white-collar worker refers to a person doing an administrative, professional or managerial job. With the shift to a more service-based economy, there was a reduction in the number of workers employed in the secondary sector and an increase of those in the service sector (tertiary sector).

The class of professional and technical workers (e.g.: teachers, health workers, technicians, engineers), i.e. the so-called "white collars", thus became predominant, and the working class lost its privileged role as a historical actor – so much so that André Gorz (1980) entitled one of his books *Adieux au Proletariat*.

However, this process had already started in the industrial era, as highlighted in the 1950s by C. Wright Mills’ famous book *White Collar*. He noted that, in the period from 1870 to 1940, the middle class was the only stratum of society which was constantly increasing, although it still hadn’t become the majority. But the key aspect of post-Fordism is the “reversal of the tendency towards deskilling and worker isolation, through greater reliance on skills, polyvalence, worker participation and collaboration in the pursuit of product quality and the flow of ideas, know-how and workers between task and product areas” (Amin, 1994, p. 21).

The second process concerns the educational level. The transition to post-Fordism was characterized by mass education, which also involved the most vulnerable and marginalized people. There was a marked process of rising educational levels and an increase of required skills for getting a job.

These two processes led to a revolution in the class structure, with a further increase of the middle class, who became dominant. This is what Wacquant (2004) calls de-proletarianization. The transition from Fordism to post-Fordism caused a change in general class composition; in many formerly industrial areas there was a process of substitution from blue-collar workers (working class) to white collar ones (middle class).

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\(^1\) Unfortunately most of the data is taken from the 2001 Census because the results of the 2011 Census are not yet available.

\(^2\) For an overview of the main characteristics of the transition to post-Fordism, see for example: Bell, 1973.
2.2 Immigration in formerly industrial areas

In parallel with the literature on Fordism and post-Fordism, some authors analysing the development of immigration in city neighborhoods show that many former industrial areas host a high percentage of immigrants (e.g. Schmitter Heller, 1994; Agustoni & Alietti, 2009).

Especially – but not only – for economic reasons, immigrants usually tend to settle in areas where environmental and housing quality is low (Musterd, 2005). In this regard, it is not possible to talk about ghettos in Europe, as in the American context (Wacquant, 2004), but rather of “neighborhoods of migration” (Cologna, 2002).

Immigrant families usually settle in areas which have already been left by the local population because of social and environmental decline. This is because natives with greater resources decide to move to areas better suited to their expectations. Consequently, there is a concentration process of immigrants and poorer natives in these neighborhoods.

This process has been studied and illustrated by studies in France (Lagrange & Oberti, 2006) and Germany (Bürkner, 2002). The French case confirms that in neighborhoods where there has been a decrease of the working class (but also of the middle class), there has also been a gradual concentration of immigrants. The same process has occurred in Germany since the end of the 70s, as a consequence of the industrial crisis.

Similarly, in Brussels (see: Kesteloot & Cortie, 1998), many immigrants with economic difficulties, and also due to the unavailability of public housing, were “forced” to settle in areas that were already inhabited by immigrants or, previously, by the native working class.

With regard to Italy, Austoni and Alietti (2009) analyzed some neighborhoods in Milan. Without addressing the specific cases, what emerged from their study is that former industrial districts –which on the one hand are characterized by a marked industrialization between the 1800s and the 1900s and on the other hand are affected by deindustrialization linked to the post-Fordist transition of the city since the 1970s – are characterized by major degradation and numerous urban voids. In this scenario, these areas became the subject of migration flows, while preserving the characteristics of their previous industrial situation, i.e. large numbers of unskilled workers and a general low educational level.

In general, this process had already been pointed out by a pioneering study by Rex (1968). He underlined the fact that the relatively low rents attracted immigrants to “twilight zones”, that is, urban spaces that were still waiting for a new re-definition within the wider context of city changes.

Analyzing the past literature (on Fordism/post-Fordism and on immigration in the districts) I have just shown that, on the one hand there was an increase of the middle class, and on the other hand, some former industrial areas became the destinations of immigrant fluxes. Although these two processes are not mutually exclusive, it seems that they are not complementary at district level. It is rare to see large numbers of immigrants in a middle-class neighborhood, in part due to the cost of housing. At the same time, white-collar workers rarely settle in areas with a large presence of migrants. Starting from these considerations, I try to combine the analysis of the two processes mentioned above in order to connect these two fields of research (“immigration and neighborhoods” and “Fordism and post-Fordism”).

To do this, and in order to underline the (partially) different processes that took place, in the next paragraphs I am going to describe the cases of two closed areas of Genoa (Cornigliano and Sestri Ponente) which had a strong industrial vocation in the past. Genoa was one of the first cities affected by the process of deindustrialization (Manzitti & Minella, 2001), and it is a paradigmatic example of a difficult transition to a post-Fordist economy. Moreover, in the city there are areas with different traditions, characteristics and history (Gazzola, 2003). For these reasons Genoa and its neighbourhoods are very interesting for the object of this study.

3. The cases of Cornigliano and Sestri Ponente: industrial decline and current situation

3.1 History and transition to post-Fordism

I now analyze the case of two former circoscrizioni located in the western area of Genoa. These two cases are emblematic both for their similarities and their differences. They also represent a kind of paradigmatic experiences of two different situations of “exit” from Fordism. The first was more successful (Sestri Ponente), the other less so (Cornigliano).

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3 A circoscrizione was the smallest administrative unit of the Municipality of Genoa. In 2007 the 25 circoscrizioni in which Genoa was divided were replaced by 9 Municipi. With this operation the districts of Sestri Ponente and Cornigliano were united to form the Municipio Medio Ponente.
Throughout this section I outline the history of the two areas, providing information on the current situation, in order to highlight the fact that the results of the transition to post-Fordism have been partially different.

First of all, it seems useful to quickly summarize the history of the two quarters. The districts of Sestri Ponente and Cornigliano are in the western part of the city, which was characterized by a strong industrial orientation. Although the two areas developed very similarly, they maintained two separate – although not so different – identities. With deindustrialization and the transition to post-Fordism, the two neighborhoods became more different, mainly because of the diverse relationship with their previous industrial development.

The modern steel and shipbuilding industries developed in Sestri as well as in Cornigliano in the last two decades of the 1800s. This industrialization did not develop without tensions and conflicts. Despite undeniable economic benefits in terms of jobs, this industrial growth produced an environmental degradation of the two areas, in particular in Cornigliano. In this area an emblematic sign of this decline was Raggio Castle. The castle, which was built at the end of the 19th century by the entrepreneur and politician Edilio Raggio, was demolished in 1951 to make space for the Italsider, the most important steel factory of Cornigliano.

Analyzing the differences between Sestri Ponente and Cornigliano, their industrial development had an important dissimilarity with regard to the type of companies (Cevini, 2001). In Sestri the shipbuilding sector was predominant. There were also some manufacturing industries (such as Manifattura Tabacchi), but shipyards were much more numerous (e.g. Ansaldo, Odero, Cadenaccio). On the contrary, metallurgical industries – especially steel industries – dominated in Cornigliano (e.g. Italsider).

These types of production had significantly different effects on the two areas. The predominance of steel factories caused a worsening of environmental conditions, and Cornigliano was the area suffering more negative effects. In particular, there is a close connection between Italsider and Cornigliano. Since World War II and up to today, the history of this area has been characterized by this obtrusive presence, which has always had very negative effects on the neighborhood, blocking its post-industrial transformation and contributing to the image of degradation and pollution that the area currently evokes. On the contrary, the industries of Sestri Ponente were less invasive and they have had less environmental impact (Manzitti & Minella, 2001).

From the ‘70s, the two areas gradually lost their industrial weight. This process created many problems in Cornigliano, but Sestri was also deeply affected by the changes.

The two areas responded differently, however. Cornigliano had – and still has – difficulty emerging from the old production model:

The real problem in Cornigliano is that there was a mono-culture, the steel industry, which had a great presence. In the past, this presence generated jobs; there was a time when twelve thousand people were employed, but now it has left only pollution. The problems are mainly in the part of Cornigliano near the sea, where Italsider was located. It is where environmental degradation is creating the most difficult social situations. (L. T.)

On the contrary, Sestri managed to recover more quickly, as is evident from the process of dismantling industrial activities.

In the deindustrialization process, Cornigliano failed to change its type of production and so it suffered more from the Fordist crisis. The problem was mainly that Italsider continued to operate at full capacity during the ‘90s. Only in 2005 was the blast furnace closed.

On the contrary, the process of deindustrialization happened sooner in Sestri Ponente (Manzitti & Minella, 2001). The Sestri industries were closed earlier and this certainly facilitated the process of change in that area.

In Sestri, industries managed to change, encouraging technological innovation and labor specialization, which then led to an increased middle class (see par. 3.2). The change was from a strong presence of blue-collar workers to an almost exclusive presence of technicians and other white-collar employees. In particular, there was a growth of high-tech industries (e.g. San Giorgio, Elsag, Ansaldo and Marconi) that were already present in the area of Sestri Ponente:

Sestri shifted from a strong presence of manufacturing and blue-collar workers to an almost exclusive presence of technicians and other white collar employees. Moreover there was an evolution of the already present high-tech industry, with San Giorgio generating all the others. Now, the only strong Fordist presence is Fincantieri. (S. B.)

The fact that industries in Sestri have managed to change and adapt to the new economy has brought benefits to the entire area.

3.2 Changes in population composition

Regarding the population composition, it is interesting to focus on educational levels and employment. First of all, I will analyze the variables related to employment.
Sestri and Cornigliano were both working-class districts. According to the 1971 census, 56.3% of the people employed in Sestri worked in factories, and in Cornigliano the percentage was 57.5%. During the same period, workers in the industrial sector in Genoa amounted to 38.1%. Currently only 29% of the people in Sestri and 31% of those in Cornigliano work in the industrial sector.

Tab. 1. Workers in the industrial sector (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Cornigliano</th>
<th>Sestri Ponente</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>56.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-1971</td>
<td>-26.5</td>
<td>-27.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Istat

These data reveal and confirm the deindustrialization that took place from the 1970s. The process of deindustrialization happened both in Sestri Ponente and in Cornigliano. If we compare the relative weight of this sector in 2001 with that of 1971, the decrease was 27.3% in Sestri and 26.5% in Cornigliano, whereas in the whole of Genoa the overall decline was 15.3%.

The differences in the percentage of tertiary sector workers also confirm the deindustrialization process. From 1971 to 2001, the increase was very high: 26.8% (from 43% in 1971 to 70.1% in 2001) in Sestri and 26% (from 41.6% to 67.6% of total employees) in Cornigliano. These numbers show that the two areas underwent a general shift to the tertiary sector, but that in Cornigliano this change was less evident, especially considering that there were fewer tertiary sector workers in the first place compared to Sestri.

Tab. 2. Workers in the tertiary sector (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Cornigliano</th>
<th>Sestri Ponente</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>70.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-1971</td>
<td>+26</td>
<td>+26.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Istat

If we analyze the number of blue-collar workers in the two areas, we see that in 1971, these were fewer in Sestri (59.9%) than in Cornigliano (68.9%), whereas in 1991 there were 42.1% in Sestri and 56.9% in Cornigliano. This clearly indicates that Sestri is coming out of a "proletarian" dynamic that characterized it up until the 1980s, although the percentage of blue-collar workers remains higher than in the historically middle-class districts of the city.

Moreover, it is important to underline the fact that most of those blue-collars workers in Sestri are “qualified” ones (Longoni, 2010). In Cornigliano the process of qualification of workers has not yet been completed.

An analysis of the percentage of entrepreneurs and professionals confirms a general higher job qualification for residents of Sestri Ponente (4.55% compared to 2.29% in Cornigliano).

Tab. 3. Blue-collar workers on total workers (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Cornigliano</th>
<th>Sestri Ponente</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>59.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991-1971</td>
<td>-12</td>
<td>-17.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Istat

The fact that one of the two districts has become more of a middle-class area while the other hasn’t is also shown by the

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4 The 1991 data was the latest to be analyzed because in 2001 the distinction between “managers, supervisors, executives”, “office workers”, and “laborers” disappeared.

5 For example in Pegli, a residential area of West Genoa (near Sestri Ponente), the percentage of blue-collar workers was 27.3% in 1991.

6 By qualification I mean the transition from simple laborer to skilled worker.
changes in the number of university and high school graduates. In 1971 the percentage of university graduates was 0.9% in Sestri and 0.7% in Cornigliano, and in 2001 these had grown to 5.9% and 3.5% respectively. As for the percentage of high school graduates, it had gone up to 6.7% and 4.8% respectively. Now, it is 27.2% in Sestri Ponente and 20.6% in Cornigliano.

If the two are added together, the difference precisely delineates a clear division between the two areas. In Sestri Ponente, 33.2% of the population has a medium-high level of education, while the percentage is only 24.1% in Cornigliano.

From 1971 to 2001, the increase was 25.5% in Sestri, and 18.5% in Cornigliano, making it clear that the general upward trend was lower in Cornigliano than in Sestri Ponente.

**Tab. 4. People with a middle-to-high level of education (%)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Cornigliano</th>
<th>Sestri Ponente</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>33.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>+15.7</td>
<td>+20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-1971</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>+2.8</td>
<td>+5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>+18.5</td>
<td>+25.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Istat**

Another important point concerns immigrants. With regard to this point there are some differences. In Cornigliano arrivals from other countries have been massive, while in Sestri this phenomenon has been less extensive. Currently the share of the foreign-born population is increasing very fast in Cornigliano. The percentage of immigrants has gone up from 5.8% in 2001 to 18.6% today. There has been an increase of 12.8% in the last ten years. Although to a lesser degree, Sestri is also experiencing an increase of its immigrant population. Since 2000 the share of the foreign resident population has increased from 2.9% to 7.2% (+4.3%). This percentage of immigrants is in line with the Italian percentage (7.5%) but below the city average (9.7%).

**Tab. 5. Percentage of foreign-born residents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Cornigliano</th>
<th>Sestri Ponente</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Istat**

The data shows that Cornigliano is becoming a pole of attraction for immigrants, i.e. a district of immigration (Cologna, 2002). The area was also a point of arrival for immigrants in the past, but mainly for people from other parts of Italy. However, compared to the past, there is now a major difference in the reasons for settling in Cornigliano: in the past the main motivation was to work in the local factories and to live near the “big factory”, whereas nowadays immigrants settle in the area mainly because of the lower housing prices.

### 3.3 Discussion

The examples of Cornigliano and Sestri Ponente show that the transition processes to post-Fordism can have various outcomes in different areas within the same city. This seems to be linked to differences in industrial impact and to later industrial dismantling (see par. 3.1).

The two areas, which were once industrial zones par excellence, are currently going through different situations and, in some ways appear to be heading in opposite directions. They both experienced a substantial drop in the
importance of industry, but they have taken different post-industrial paths. Sestri Ponente managed to change by becoming a middle-class residential area. On the contrary, Cornigliano still seems too tied to its industrial past, particularly because its environment is compromised. The price of housing reflects these different situations: the value of properties is lower in Cornigliano than in Sestri Ponente. According to data provided by the Agency of the Territory\(^7\) these values are 2875 (€/m\(^2\)) for Sestri Ponente compared to 1932 (€/m\(^2\)) for Cornigliano.

Sestri Ponente was able to “ride” the crisis because local industries evolved by pushing technological innovations. The area managed to change its economic and production structure so as to fit into the new post-Fordist “status”.

On the contrary, Cornigliano had, and still has, great difficulty in re-qualifying the gaps left from former factories. It still seems too closely tied to its industrial past, and it is in trouble both in environmental (degradation, pollution) and social terms. Cornigliano hasn’t completed the transition, except for the fact that local factories declined without being replaced with other productive activities, and this has had negative consequences on the territory.

In this scenario, many middle-class natives decided to move to other, better parts of the city. In Cornigliano the poorer native population remained, and at the same time more and more foreigners arrived. In other words, where Sestri illustrates the classic mechanism of substitution from traditional working class to new middle class, in Cornigliano the situation is the opposite: although the middle class has increased, the working-class has largely been replaced by immigrants. The first has become a middle-class area, and the other is now a district of migration. It is in these terms – at the district level – that we can speak of different substitution processes.

There is a connection between the areas’ transformations and the fact that the substitution process has turned into an increase in the number of immigrants.

The results suggest that the substitution process (working class to middle class) happened mainly in the areas that were successful in their transition into a post-industrial configuration (Sestri Ponente in this research study). On the contrary, in the districts where deindustrialization led to a situation of degradation and unemployment (Cornigliano in this case), the working-class population was largely replaced by immigrants.

This fact seems to be closely connected to certain reasons.

Firstly, the continued presence of some “Fordist” factories attracts immigrants. Workers’ children, who are better educated and not willing to follow into their fathers footsteps, do not go on to replace them in the factories. Thus, immigrants settle in the area because they are attracted by the jobs offered by the “surviving” factories.

Secondly, a degraded urban environment leads to the fact that the middle-class population (e.g. the blue-collar workers’ children), with profitable and more prestigious jobs, decide to move to more beautiful parts of the city. Concurrently, migrants – who usually constitute the poorer part of the resident population – decide to settle in these problematic areas, mostly because of the lower cost of living (house prices and rent).

4. Conclusions

In summary, with deindustrialization, one area, Sestri Ponente, was able to become a middle-class district. On the contrary, Cornigliano faces many difficulties (pollution, social degradation, etc.) because of its difficult exit from Fordism.

My analysis suggests that the substitution from working class to middle class happened mainly in those areas that were successful in their transition into a post-industrial situation, and that in the areas experiencing difficulties in renewing themselves, the former working-class was largely replaced by immigrants.

Hence, there is a different process of substitution: Sestri Ponente has become a middle-class district and Cornigliano is now a district of migration. It is at a district level that it is possible to underline different processes of substitution.

Considering the causes of these different processes, the (partially) unsuccessful industrial transformation and the bad consequences of their industrial past seem to lead to a general degradation of some areas, both by attracting immigrants (because they often have economic difficulties) and by “pushing out” the middle-class population (typically the children of former blue-collar workers). Therefore, the more extensive environmental degradation led to lowering the “level” of the district, which led many middle-class people to move out to other, more desirable neighborhoods, and they in turn were replaced by immigrants.

In conclusion, in this article I have shown the different paths of transition from Fordism to post-Fordism. In particular I have tried to connect the literature on Fordism/post-Fordism with that on immigration fluxes in the

\(^7\) Year of reference: 2012.
neighborhoods.

On the one hand, the literature on post-Fordism underlines the general mechanism of substitution between blue-collar (working class) and white-collars workers (middle class). On the other hand, studies on immigration in these districts show that in some cases these formerly industrial areas now have a large presence of immigrants.

My study on two areas of Genoa has tried to provide a first explanation of these two different views, with a small “contribution” to explain the fact that some former industrial areas have become districts of immigration (see: Cologna, 2002; Agustoni, Alietti, 2009). Moreover, I have attempted to hypothesize some reasons (see par. 3.3) for these different transition paths, and in particular for the switch from a working class to an immigrant area. Finally, only by analyzing these phenomena at the district level is it possible to explain why the findings from both branches of the literature show different processes which.

References


Toxicity Bio-Monitoring of Shkodra Lake Surface Water Using a Higher Plant Assay

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Abstract

Health and quality of biota in natural ecosystems are directly affected by different kind of pollutants, accumulated because of uncontrolled releases into the environment of industrial effluents and urban waste, as well as by drainage, flooding, intensive farming and tourism. Bio-monitoring of Shkodra Lake water quality was done using Allium cepa L. assay. Bulbs were grown on surface water samples collected from six stations: S1-S3 at east and S4-S6 at west lake waterside, during August 2010-2013. The reaction of root meristematic tissue and its genetic material to the presence and quantity of potential cytotoxic and genotoxic chemicals was done by evaluating macro and microscopic parameters, as: root length, mitotic and phase indexes, interphase nuclear volume, chromosome abnormalities frequency and types. The most toxic samples resulted 2011 and 2013 and the east waterside ones, which could be due to massive flooding during the respective years and the different trophy level between east and west lake basin sides. There were detected slight traces of toxic and persistent water chemical pollutants, serving as an alert of their possible bioaccumulation and negative impact on biota and human health. The A. cepa test could be successfully applied as a simple, short-term and inexpensive approach for environmental quality evaluation in developing areas and countries such as Shkodra region and Albania.

Keywords: bio-monitoring, Shkodra Lake, chemical pollutants, Allium cepa assay, cytotoxicity, genotoxicity

1. Introduction

Health and quality of biota in natural ecosystems are directly affected by different kind of pollutants, accumulated because of uncontrolled releases into the environment of industrial effluents, urban waste, as well as by drainage, flooding, intensive farming and tourism (Albering et al., 1999). Water has always been considered a renewable natural resource. However its consumption and pollution degree have been tremendously increased during the last decades by local and global acceleration of urbanization and industrialization processes (Vargas, 2001).

Shkodra region (North-West Albania) is distinguished for a unique and complicated water system, hydrologically and ecologically interdependent, which includes: Shkodra Lake (a transboundary lake with Montenegro), Buna and Drini Rivers and many streams. Shkodra Lake (40°10′ N, 19°15′ E) is the largest lake in the Balkan Peninsula, fluctuating seasonally from 370 to 600 km². Approximately one third of the lake (142 km²) is situated in Albania. The lake has one outlet – Buna River and some inlets, the biggest of which is Moraca River (Montenegro). The lake is located on a karstic terrain, while many small islands and cryptodepressions (containing sublacustrine springs), are localized surrounding lake shores (Dhora, 2012).

Shkodra Lake represents one of the most diverse and interesting ecological areas of South-East Europe. The Albanian part of the lake and Buna River were included in the Ramsar List of Wetlands with a global importance in 2006 (Ramsar, 2010). The lake is a subtropical (mean temperature value of 14.9°C) and shallow (mean water depth of 5.01 m) water body, having a conductivity of 100-343 μS cm⁻², a mean altitude < 50 m, high dissolved-oxygen content (7-12 mg/l in surface waters) and pH values differing from 7.2 to 8.3 (Neziri et al., 2009; Bushati et al., 2012, Malollari et al., 2012). The south and south-western watersides of the lake are structured mostly by calcareous (limestone) rocks, serving for recreative and touristic activities. Meanwhile northern and north-eastern watersides are plain and siltstone, providing an
extensive semi-littoral zone used as agricultural field. Spring and autumn rainfall floods the northern banks, greatly increasing the range of habitats for lake biota and providing extensive spawning and feeding areas for fish and birds. Additionally on the basis of bathymetric values the catchment area of the lake on Albanian part can be divided into 2 basins, west and east basin. The ecological status of the lake can be actually classified as good to moderate. Some values of biological quality elements of the lake such as: decrease of populations of consumed species (Acipenser sturio, Cyprinus carpio and Alburnus alburnus), presence of invasive plant species (Amorpha fruticosa) and aggressive introduced fish species (Percidae) deviate moderately from normal type of undisturbed conditions as a result of human activity (Dhora, 2012; Rakaj, 2012).

The assessment of water quality is closely related to the application of monitoring and remediation projects which aim to reduce the risk that aquatic ecosystems incur by hazardous substances, even when they are present in low concentrations (Smaka-Kincl et al., 1996; Vargas et al., 2001). The integrated monitoring is reserved for coordinated monitoring activities comprising chemical and biological measurements in a variety of environmental media (Dick de Zwart, 1995; Smaka-Kincl et al., 1996; Žhegura et al., 2009). Plant-based bioassays have recently gained notable recognition among the eco-toxicological tools for the water quality assessment, due to their comparative simplicity, sensitivity, low cost and good correlation to other toxicity bio-tests (Žhegura et al., 2009; Siddiqui & Ahmad, 2011). Providing a biological early warning system in toxicity monitoring procedures, the Allium cepa L. test have been widely used for the detection of phyto and genotoxic effects of potentially polluting substances present in fresh waters (Fiskesjö, 1988; Smaka-Kincl et al., 1996; Matsumoto et al., 2006; Leme & Marin-Morales, 2009; Düsman et al., 2012; Mesi & Kopliku, 2011; Kopliku et al., 2012; Kopliku & Mesi, 2013; Mesi et al., 2013).

The purpose of the present investigation was the bio-monitoring of Shkodra Lake water quality by using A. cepa assay.

2. Methods

2.1 Sampling collection

Sampling was done during August 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013 at east and west watersides of Shkodra Lake (Fig. 1). The toxicity/genotoxicity testing of natural waters as lakes and rivers has established that the samples collected during summer are the most toxic, probably due to greater water evaporation, thereby resulting in the concentration increase of toxicants. Surface water samples were collected from Shegan (S1), Dobër (S2), Vrakë (S3), Zogaj (S4), Shirokë (S5), and Buna Bridge (S6). Water samples were preserved in polyethylene bottles washed with 5% hydrochloric acid and rinsed out with abundant distilled water in the laboratory and abundant lake water immediately before collection. The labeled bottles with samples were transferred to the laboratory and stored in refrigerator in 2-4°C. Their toxicity screening was performed within 48 h from collection. Filtered tap water was used as negative control sample.

2.2 Biological material

Healthy and equal-sized bulbs (Ø≈1.5-2 cm) of common onion (Allium cepa L., native ecotype Drishti), not previously treated with plant growth regulators, were obtained from Shkodra region markets. The plant material was stored under dry conditions at +10-20°C for one year and than bulbs, which were dry, moldy or had started shooting green leaves were discarded.

2.3 Test procedure

The yellow-brownish outer scales of onion bulbs have been removed carefully, leaving the ring of root primordia intact. The bulbs were grown and observed for 72 hours in the laboratory. All experiments for growth inhibition, cytotoxicity and genotoxicity tests were set up in a completely randomized design with twelve test tubes and three replicates per sample. Each series has been filled with respective water samples. On top of each test tube one onion bulb has been put with the root primordia downward in the liquid. The test procedure was performed in room temperature (at about +20°C), with a natural light-dark regime and protected from direct sun light.

Macro and microscopic endpoints as: root length (MRL), mitotic and phase indexes (MI and PI), interphase nuclear volume (INV) and chromosomal aberration frequency (FAC) and types (CA) in root meristematic tissue were used to determine the phytotoxic and genotoxic effects of Shkodra Lake water samples.
The microscopic investigations were done after 48 h under an optic microscope Leitz-Diaplan using a 500× oil-immersion lens. From each of 5 bulbs randomly chosen in each champion of samples, one root tip (10 mm) was taken. The roots were placed on slides and the terminal root tips (1-2 mm) were cut off and used for further preparation. Slides were prepared in accordance with the standard procedure for orcein staining of squashed material. The number of dividing cells (NDC) was determined in 1000 examined cells in the field of view, than mitotic index was scored as percent ratio of NDC per 1000 cells. PI values of prophase, metaphase and ana/telophase have been scored as percentage of MI. For the examination of INV, it was obtained the mean of two diameters of each selected orcein-stained nucleus, observed at right angles to each-other and measured under oil-immersion objectives. INV was evaluated using the formula $4/3\pi r^3$, where $r$ is the radius of the nuclei. Means of MI, PI and INV values of 5 slides per sample have been calculated. 1500 dividing cells (300 cells per each of 5 slides per sample) have been observed for the characterization and classification of chromosome aberrations (CA). The frequencies of aberrant cells (FAC) and CA types were expressed as percent ratio. Macroscopic investigations including morphology and length of roots were done after 72 h. A mean root length (MRL) of each series per sample was calculated.

2.4 Statistical analysis

Analysis of Variance (One-way ANOVA) and post-hoc Student Newman-Keuls (SNK) tests were used to test for significant differences of all evaluated parameters. All the results were expressed as the mean of three replicates per sample ± standard deviation (SD). Parameter differences against corresponding negative control were considered statistically significant at level 5%.

3. Results and discussion

The present study was carried out to bio-monitor east and westside water quality of Shkodra Lake by using *A. cepa* assay. Tables 1 and 2 represented all data about the morphological and cyto-genetic analyzes of *A. cepa* roots exposed to different lake water samples.

3.1 Macroscopic toxicity evaluation

Root elongation and morphology are important parameters for the evaluation of plant growth under water toxicity. Root growth reduction over 55% strongly indicates the presence of phytotoxic substances (Fiskesjö, 1988). The morphology of *A. cepa* roots exposed to tap water for 72 h (negative control) was normal during four years monitoring period (2010-2013). Root length values of these samples (3.74-4.52 cm) showed a linear growth, approximately 1-1.5 cm/day, which means good chemical quality of tap water taken from the water supply network of Shkodra city (Fiskesjö, 1988). The water samples S2, S3, S5 and S6 induced limited morphological abnormalities such as: root bending (S2, S3 and S6) and sporadic stunted roots (S5 and S6), especially during 2011 and 2013. Over four years bio-monitoring showed a significant root length decrease of 18-25% compared to the respective NC-s (p<0.05 using SNK test) and the range resulted 2011 (S3, S2, S6, S1) > 2013 (S3, S1, S2) > 2012 (S3) > 2010 (S3). All eastside samples (S1, S2, S3) demonstrated slightly higher phytotoxic effect than westside ones, especially during 2011 and 2013, while S3 sample resulted persistent during the
whole bio-monitoring period (Tab. 1 and Fig. 2a).

3.2 Microscopic toxicity evaluation

3.2.1 Cytotoxic effects

The mitotic index is a microscopic endpoint which reflects cell division and proliferation activity of meristematic tissue. It is considered an important parameter when evaluating the rate of plant root growth, being frequently reported in the literature. MI has been closely correlated to the root length in *A. cepa* (Smaka-Kincl et al., 1996; Kopliku et al., 2012). Meanwhile quantifying the reduction of cell division in root meristematic cells serves to quickly determine the presence of toxic substances in the environment and for the monitoring of pollution levels in natural environments (Matsumoto et al., 2006). As shown in Table 1 and Figure 2b, significant inhibition of cell division in onion roots over the four years period were detected in water samples: S3 (21-29%: 2010-2013), S1 (23-26%: 2010-2013), S2 (23-24%: 2011-2013), S4 (20-22%: 2011-2013), S6 (15-18%: 2010, 2012 and 2013), S5 (12-14%: 2011-2013) compared to the respective NC-s (p<0.05 using ANOVA test). This fact indicated that the examined water samples contain substances that may be toxic, inhibiting consequently cell division of *A. cepa* root cells. According to this parameter stronger mito-depressive effect was induced once more by 2011 eastside water samples, with S3 the most persistently cytotoxic one. The differences of diving cells number to corresponding NC showed in general the same significance as MRL values, fitting well with the above mentioned effects on onion root length. Mitotic index could be positively correlated to root length, proving that inhibition of root growth resulted from inhibition of cell division. Root growth inhibition due to water pollutants could be due to inhibition of root cell division/root elongation or to the extension of cell cycle. As shown in Table 1, the characterization of phase index in *A. cepa* cells exposed to tap water and S2, S4 and S6 natural samples did not demonstrate any periodic irregularity of dividing cell cycles. Meanwhile the other lake samples (S1, S3 and S5) caused significant changes in prophase and metaphase stages, compared to corresponding NC-s (P<0.05, using ANOVA test). Additionally it was noted a certain tendency of metaphase decrease and prophase increase in all water samples and periodic assessmes. These results demonstrated a slight obstruction of metaphase stage, and probably an inhibition of mitosis or extension of cell cycles, which could be attributed to the blocking of cell division at the end of the prophase by potentially present water contaminants. This might be as well the reason of MI reduction observed in *A. cepa* roots grown in lake water. The evaluation of interphase nuclear volume (Tab. 1 and Fig. 2c) did not show significant reduction of nuclei size (2-13%) in onion root cells exposed to tap water and lake samples, except 2013 S3 (19%) and 2011 S6 (15%). compared to corresponding NC-s (P<0.05 using ANOVA test). Recorded INV reduction of onion cells may be attributed to the mito-depressive action of pollutants, by blocking the G1 stage and suppressing DNA synthesis.

3.2.2 Genotoxic effects

Root meristematic tissue is presumed as a suitable tool for screening mutagenic effect and potency of water pollutants and the suppression of its mitotic activity is usually accompanied by an increase of chromosome aberrations (Power & Boumphrey, 2004). The cytogenetic analysis of this study revealed the potential presence of genotoxic and clastogenic compounds in the analyzed lake samples (Table 1 & 2). It was observed a positive correlation between growth inhibition and frequency of anomalous cells with chromosome aberrations in *A. cepa* roots: samples which did not induce phyto and cytotoxic effects did not show either genotoxic effects (NC-s and 2010-S4), having FAC from 1.8-2.9% (not significant at P<0.05, using ANOVA test); meanwhile all the other periodic water samples, where *A. cepa* roots incurred inhibition of growth and reduction of mitotic activity, simultaneously pointed out their genotoxic potency, inducing FAC higher than 3% up to 10.7% (significant at P<0.05 and 0.001, using ANOVA test). Anyway it was noticed a sample exception where cytotoxicity was not strictly correlated to the genotoxicity. Not distinctly evidenced mito-depressive effect of S6 sample (the closest to Shkodra city) might be due to a transitory stimulating effects of nitrate, nitrite, ammonium and phosphate on the proliferation of *A. cepa* root-tip cells, because of the discharge of municipal sewage and tourism wastes. These wastes may have caused on the contrary the highest levels of genotoxicity observed during whole periodic assessment, compared to other samples (Fig. 2d). The most observed chromosome aberration types were due to chromatin dysfunction (stickiness, bridges and fragments) or spindle failure (c-mitosis), while sporadic vagrant and ring chromosomes were observed in S1, S2, S3, S5 and S6 samples. At S6 sample it was observed, in the cytoplasm of a few cells the development of two extended hyaline structures generating from the nucleus material, being a typical abnormality caused by Aluminium metal solution (Fiskesjö, 1988). There are no chemical data about Al concentration and pollution in Shkodra Lake, but it is a known fact the discharge of chemical pollutants from Aluminium Company (KAP) to
Moraca River (Montenegro), the main tributary of the lake.

The evaluation of contamination degree in aquatic environments should not be based only on its physical and chemical characterization but it should be combined with biological assays (Żegura et al., 2009). Bio-assays can assess the potential toxic effects from all the water components (including those due to unknown substances and their synergic, antagonistic or additive effects) and allow an integrated evaluation of the impact in populations and communities (Power & Boumphrey, 2004). The over four years water quality bio-monitoring of Shkodra Lake water by using a sensitive higher plant bioassay as A. cepa revealed that the most polluted samples resulted the 2011 and 2013 ones, which might be due to those years massive flooding (especially in S3, S2, S1 and S6 samples-representing the most damaged lake surrounding areas) and the continuous discharge of untreated wastes and chemicals from industrial, agriculture, municipal and tourism activities in Albanian and Montenegro parts of lake. The water quality of Shkodra Lake is highly-dependent from the typology of its catchment area. As a lowland lake, it is subject of natural eutrophication processes. Meanwhile on the catchment area of Albanian part there is not any hazardous industrial pollution source to influence on the characteristics of the lake water. Chemicals used in agriculture activities (fertilizer and pesticide residues) on the east side of the lake and municipal wastes are the main causes probably affecting the quality of water. The trophic state of this lake is considered as oligotrophic. On the other hand this lake is described as a bicarbonate one (due to karstic characteristics of basin), which make it a favorable aquatic environment for the development of flora and fauna (Dhoha, 2012; Rakaj, 2012). Based on bathymetric values the west basin is short and rocky and the lake on this side is deep. The east basin is wider and has gradual depth. Serving as an agricultural field, this part of the lake is the most ecologically sensible and economically important one. Lots of incoming waters are situated in this part (Rijolli and Banushi streams, Vraka runnel and more than 46 wellsprings), which bring into the lake different materials because of the erosion and human activities. Most of the field on this side is private property with farming activity. That’s why actually it is difficult to control the agrochemicals usage, which has caused higher values of nutrients (especially phosphate ions) at this side of the lake, compared to westside one (Malollari et al., 2012).

The results of the present investigation could make evident the fact that the eastside of the lake is actually the most persistently polluted during whole bio-monitoring period, because its samples could induce higher mitotic activity and chromosomal damages and alterations in morphological parameters of A. cepa roots, compared to westside ones and tap water. This study fulfilled some related examinations made in former studies (Mesi, & Kopliku, 2011; Kopliku et al., 2012), being also in agreement with results of physical-chemical and biological analyzes of the same waters (Neziri et al., 2009; Bushati et al., 2012; Malollari et al., 2012; Rakaj, 2012.). The highest phyto/cyto and genotoxic effect of S6 sample could be attributed to the fact that Vraka runnel crosses whole Malësia e Madhe lowland and flows into the lake, abundantly releasing solid and liquid wastes (domestic and agricultural) especially during winter and spring time, concentrated after the evaporation 2010-2013 hot summers. S1 sample appeared to be a physiologically and genetically damaging water sample, as evidenced by its capacity to induce significant growth inhibition and chromosome damages, as well. This might be a consequence of: pesticide residues used in the surround area, geographic position and structure (a lake bay) or a considerable unknown industrial chemical residue deposited some years ago in the railway station, closed to Shegan waterside. Root growth in plants is a metabolically active stage, quite sensitive to the environmental stimuli (Siddiqui & Ahmad, 2011). Our observation resulted consistent to this fact in terms of inhibition in root growth, reduction of mitotic activity and mutagenicity inducement, caused by potentially present toxicants in the examined water samples of the lake. Additionally this study revealed that the periodic and seasonal changement of clima conditions (temperature, precipitations, etc.) can influence composition and biodegradation level of water pollution and consequently its toxic impact.

4. Conclusions

The over four years results in the present study indicated slight toxicity of the examined Shkodra Lake samples, mostly in eastside basin, serving as an alert of pollutants presence, even in low concentrations. A. cepa bioassay exhibited different sensitivities, showing some kind of correlation to lake water quality through the physical-chemical parameters of catchment area and their periodic alterations. The present screening provided additional information about the mutagenicity of mixed and unknown pollutants potentially present in lake surface waters, by demonstrating their potency to induce macroscopic, cyto and genotoxic effects in A. cepa roots. This investigation showed that macroscopic and cytogenetic techniques, combined with physical-chemical and sapro-biological analysis, can better screen qualitatively, quantitatively and periodically the toxicity of water pollutants and their direct influence on the biota of Shkodra Lake and its surrounding ecosystems, which in turn may indirectly affects human health.
Table 1. Periodic effects of Shkodra Lake water samples on length, mitotic and phase indexes, interphase nuclear volume and frequency of anomalous cells with chromosome aberrations in *A. cepa* roots during 2010-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Periodic water sampling</th>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>MRL±SD (cm)</th>
<th>MI±SD (%)</th>
<th>PI (%)</th>
<th>INV±SD (μm³)</th>
<th>FAC ± SD (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NC</td>
<td>3.74±0.52a</td>
<td>13.98±1.65b</td>
<td>21.06</td>
<td>496.63±0.82</td>
<td>1.8±0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3.07±0.34ab</td>
<td>10.76±0.49ab</td>
<td>22.71</td>
<td>466.83±0.57</td>
<td>5.8±0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>3.22±0.17ab</td>
<td>11.60±0.89ab</td>
<td>23.11</td>
<td>461.87±0.83</td>
<td>4.9±0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>2.99±0.11ab</td>
<td>11.04±0.23ab</td>
<td>23.47</td>
<td>491.93±0.33</td>
<td>7.6±0.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S4</td>
<td>3.48±0.20ab</td>
<td>12.86±0.94ab</td>
<td>20.90</td>
<td>486.70±0.48</td>
<td>2.9±0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S5</td>
<td>3.59±0.13ab</td>
<td>12.58±0.77ab</td>
<td>19.89</td>
<td>506.56±0.27</td>
<td>3.6±0.22**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S6</td>
<td>3.18±0.27ab</td>
<td>11.88±0.95ab</td>
<td>25.31</td>
<td>442.01±0.15</td>
<td>7.7±0.61**</td>
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2011

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Periodic water sampling</th>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>MRL±SD (cm)</th>
<th>MI±SD (%)</th>
<th>PI (%)</th>
<th>INV±SD (μm³)</th>
<th>FAC ± SD (%)</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NC</td>
<td>4.22±0.65a</td>
<td>14.02±0.61b</td>
<td>20.33</td>
<td>587.72±0.97</td>
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<td></td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3.42±0.09ab</td>
<td>10.38±0.29cd</td>
<td>23.25</td>
<td>540.70±0.41</td>
<td>6.8±0.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>3.29±0.24ab</td>
<td>10.79±0.24ab</td>
<td>19.58</td>
<td>528.95±0.83</td>
<td>5.4±0.38*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>3.17±0.14ab</td>
<td>9.95±0.53ab</td>
<td>27.03</td>
<td>511.32±0.55</td>
<td>9.1±0.68**</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S4</td>
<td>3.59±0.11ab</td>
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<td>20.53</td>
<td>552.46±0.61</td>
<td>3.1±0.56*</td>
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<tr>
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<td>S5</td>
<td>3.80±0.27ab</td>
<td>12.34±0.65ab</td>
<td>22.74</td>
<td>552.08±0.42</td>
<td>4.4±0.32*</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S6</td>
<td>3.38±0.18ab</td>
<td>12.46±0.16ab</td>
<td>25.87</td>
<td>499.56±0.21</td>
<td>10.7±0.22**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Means with different superscript letter along the column are significantly different (p<0.05) in the SNK test, while means with asterisks are significantly different from control: *P<0.05, **P<0.001 according to One-way ANOVA test; NC-negative control (tap water); S 1- S6-lake water samples: S 1-Shegan, S2-Dobër, S3-Vrakë, S4-Zogaj, S5-Shirokë, S6-Buna Bridge; MRL-mean root length; MI-mitotic index, PI-phase index; Pr-Prophase; Mt-Metaphase; A/T-Ana/Telophase; INV-interphase nuclear volume; FAC-frequency of aberrant cells; SD-standard deviation.

Table 2. Periodic effects of Shkodra Lake water samples on length, mitotic and phase indexes, interphase nuclear volume and frequency of anomalous cells with chromosome aberrations in *A. cepa* roots during 2012-2013

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Periodic water sampling</th>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>MRL±SD (cm)</th>
<th>MI±SD (%)</th>
<th>PI (%)</th>
<th>INV±SD (μm³)</th>
<th>FAC ± SD (%)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NC</td>
<td>4.52±0.55</td>
<td>14.43±1.28</td>
<td>22.19</td>
<td>523.34±0.79</td>
<td>2.6±0.45</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>3.75±0.23ab</td>
<td>11.40±0.39c</td>
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<td>471.03±0.88</td>
<td>6.5±0.36**</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>3.66±0.36ab</td>
<td>11.69±0.16a</td>
<td>21.88</td>
<td>481.47±0.70</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>3.53±0.12ab</td>
<td>10.97±0.22ab</td>
<td>24.18</td>
<td>460.54±0.35</td>
<td>8.3±0.19**</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S4</td>
<td>4.07±0.39ab</td>
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<td>497.17±0.15</td>
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<td>S5</td>
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<td>30.05</td>
<td>465.77±0.44</td>
<td>8.9±0.87**</td>
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2013

<table>
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<th>Periodic water sampling</th>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>MRL±SD (cm)</th>
<th>MI±SD (%)</th>
<th>PI (%)</th>
<th>INV±SD (μm³)</th>
<th>FAC ± SD (%)</th>
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<td>S3</td>
<td>3.02±0.12bc</td>
<td>9.98±0.53bc</td>
<td>26.28</td>
<td>452.51±0.75</td>
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<tr>
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<td>22.14</td>
<td>536.32±0.29</td>
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<td>26.52</td>
<td>480.45±0.32</td>
<td>10.2±0.44**</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Means with different superscript letter along the column are significantly different (p<0.05) in the SNK test, while means with asterisks are significantly different from control: *P<0.05, **P<0.001 according to One-way ANOVA test; NC-negative control (tap water); S 1- S6-lake water samples: S 1-Shegan, S2-Dobër, S3-Vrakë, S4-Zogaj, S5-Shirokë, S6-Buna Bridge; MRL-mean root length; MI-mitotic index, PI-phase index; Pr-Prophase; Mt-Metaphase; A/T-Ana/Telophase; INV-interphase nuclear volume; FAC-frequency of aberrant cells; SD-standard deviation.
**Fig. 2.** Periodic variation of length, mitotic index, interphase nuclear volume (all expressed as percentage to negative control) and frequency of aberrant cells in *A. cepa* roots exposed to different Shkodra Lake water samples during 2010-2013

Notes: NC-negative control (tap water); S1-S6 - lake water samples: S1-Shegan, S2-Dobër, S3-Vrakë, S4-Zogaj, S5-Shirokë, S6-Buna Bridge; MRL-mean root length; MI-mitotic index; INV-interphase nuclear volume; FAC-frequency of aberrant cells.

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of the Chemcatcher® passive sampler; 3rd International Passive Sampling Workshop and Symposium, Prague, Czech Republic.


Albanian Society in the Optics of Traditional Values

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Abstract

Every particular society besides affirmative universal values, or the affirmation of the above, retains its specification based on their own traditional values. Which ultimately also make it different from other societies, distinct from them, despite the growing trends of globalization. Social, political, economic changes in a society inevitably affect the change of values who believes and supports a society and their hierarchy when we have to select their useful in a situation. Along with these changes recast the way society action and that’s the reason that we study the values of the society. However pillars of traditional values remains as a point of reference in the judgment to make a pretty diverse society and its collective behavior. We try to identify the traditional values of Albanian society and to achieve this we have chosen to take in analysis the Canon of Lek Dukagjin and the Canon of Laberia. Respectively in the north and the south part of the country, they have been domestic laws of behavior, cultural codes that have run all judgments and actions of people. A content analysis of them will help us build a profile of Albanian value patterns. And finally to see if we find this traditional values, behaviors usable in Albanian society today.

Keywords: cultural change, society behavior, traditional values, value patterns, the canon of lek dukagjini, the canon of laberia.

1. Introduction

People, most of the times, take decisions and perform different actions by being guided mostly by emotions and judgement of values rather than having a push from a good logical base, a pure rational base. Values are very important to be studied and if it is taken in consideration the status of the values as a spiritual metering, with which in co-ordinance, the individual, personally and as a part of different social groups, structures his own spiritual world, chooses the conceptual forms, his attitudes and the social interaction.

Their importance shows up if we have have in mind that there is an internal dynamic as for the spiritual world of special individuals, and also as for what is called “a collective consciousness” and that characterizes the spiritual “infrastructure” of the social groupings in different levels. All the societies, despite their differences, despite the economic, social and in the same time the value modeling, they have a pillar of the values that are traditional. Their mass changes from period to period and from society to society for the importance that they give to them as guiders of the everyday behavior. For this reason we have the necessity to understand more over the traditional Albanian values that we easily can find in the canon of habitude and then we can notice the modern days Albanian context how it approaches towards these values.

2. Methodology

The object of this study is exactly the clear crystallization of what defines something as a value and afterwards which can be considered as traditional for the Albanian society. This project is intended to be operated by following the quality method. This choice was made because we are interested to firstly understand what is considered a value and we can do this only by examining the literature that we have until modern days from sociologist, philosophers or political scientists that have worked in this case. Afterwards it is necessary to define what are called traditional Albanian values. We could understand this better by studying the codes of moral, in our case found inside the canons of habitude that have been running in Albania respectively in the north and in the south of the country. A contentment analysis of them would give us a clear panoramic view of the main pillars of the values that the Albanian society has followed. In the same manner, to take a look of the situation of the of the traditional values today in the Albanian society, as an examination not very in details and filled with the concrete perceptions of the people, we consider as possible to stay inside the frames of the quality methodology. So, we will analyses what the Albanian sociologists, psychologist and philosophers think about the
3. Conceptual Definitions

The values are ethical imperatives that guide the behavior of people. They express the meaning and purpose of a special group of people in a certain relationship (Korte/Schäfers, 1993;31). So, the value is a fantasy or the idea that a society has for something desired, aimed, which is accepted in a general way and is spiritually incorporated at the members of the society to be followed in their everyday life. Another definition, which in its core is much closer to the first one, it is found from the sociologist Giddens: “The values are ideas of the individuals or of groups of people for what is desired, good or bad.” (Giddens, 2002;695). But these two last concepts with which are explained the values are two base categories of ethics, and that is why the problem of values is connected tightly with the theory of moral and with its philosophy.

The point that the view of the values should not be considered as something objective, as something external and independent from the subject, but as something identical with the values and with values subjective judgment, has spread especially in the 20th century by authors like Hartman and Scheler, two representatives of the phenomenological axiology in philosophy, Scheler supports the point of view that alongside the role of reason in the determination of the priority of the values from the individual, an important role is for emotions too. This happens because nevertheless how important might be the values of the group, the value of a person, of his life and the definition that this person does to himself is unrepeatable in the society and the person himself creates a judgment that in a way is his for the importance or unimportant of the special values despite from his group correspondence. But not in every occasion he is adapted with the hierarchy of the values of his own group, even though in the main principles he might agree. and here the main role that creates this changeability is played by emotions and feelings, which are experienced as completely differently in different individuals (different characters, different passions, etc.). Still according to Scheler, the values are divided into two parallel categories, in values of the person and values of things in themselves, in self values and foreign values (of the individual, representing group and others), in values of action and counteraction, of success and other purposes. Scheler tries to even build a hierarchy of values, because according to him “in every situation in which it is found or imagined by the individual, he must decide which is the main value that should guide his present or later action” (Scheler, 1981;49-50).

For more, he offers also some general criteria to distinguish the values with high status in this hierarchy from the lowest that worth not only for the individual but also for group of individuals, a hierarchy that will be identified in this study as well. For example, the values are more important, so they stay higher in the hierarchy, as often as appears the need to get oriented to them, when they are less separable with others (individuals or groups), as deep as it would be the pleasure of their fulfillment or achievement. This necessity of the definition of the importance of the values and their place in the hierarchy is connected also with the fact that according to Scheler in the cases of conflicts, should be analyzed the position of the value that is in the highest point in this conflict to understand why there was born a conflict and the tendency of its change on the base of the change of this value. in this way we have the possibility to be oriented good in the corresponding conflict and in its consequences.

4. Values and their change

We take it for granted that a mirror of the traditional Albanian values can be found by taking in examination the canons: the Canon of Lek Dukagjini and the Canon of Laberia. The canons are codes of behavior which have been applied in the old Albania as if they were certificated laws in the obligatory force of a powerful country. In their analysis of the content we notice that there are some common values that can be found written in both canons and applied in the both regions, in the south and north of the country. A base pillar that we find in both is family. A great family, with a closed hierarchic structure, where the central figure is the householder, the man of the house, the eldest. This is in both the canons, in the center of the society as a very important point of building the other structures of the society. This because in a way, family decided even for the marriage of the youngsters, for their jobs, for the relationships with others, friends or enemies. Giving up from the individualist autonomy, for Albanians was important the family cohesion. Each one in the family finds in the canon their role, with the rights and duties determined and everybody should respect and obey them.

Honor is a social value for every rich or poor man is said in the section 24 of the the Canon of Laberia, by highlighting this as an important value of a good society. The same importance for the honor we find in the Canon of Lek Dukagjini, where is determined that the personal honor is untouchable and who threatens it cannot be forgiven and should
be cleared with blood. (page 64, Canon of Lek Dukagjini). The same is for the trust in both canons. that can be considered in the list of the values in the meaning of it as a sign of respect to the oral deal, and its application with seriousness and obligatory force as it was in front of an attorney in the modern days. In the canon of Laberia in the section 29 paragraph 4, is said that the given trust is never overridden by anyone. In the Canon of Lek Dukagjini is said that the trust is a center of freedom and safety (page 82). This explains very well how important this is in the Albanian society to guaranty the freedom and safety, because if you are on the trust of somebody or you are given the trust for something, there is no chance for the person giving the trust to break this trust.

The hospitality and the concept that the canon built on the guest is one of the primary pillars of them and it is as well-known as a traditional Albanian value. The hospitality talks about a solidarity society, for a society which is dependent strongly in one another, very connected with the other and influenced by the other. Even from the canons is clear that the respect of the society towards an individual was highly dependent from the mass that the person respects this value, the hospitality. For example, in the Canon of Laberia, we find in the section 42 paragraph 6 that “for every guest is served the bread that the host eats”. This last one shows a treatment of the guest as equal with the self, and even it is guaranteed a protection from the host when the guest is in his house. We find in the canons the reflection of a society that believes, a society that acknowledges the religions and respects them and also follows the religious rituals. The religious objects are sacred, they cannot be touched and they have their lands and their importance in the society. In the canon of Laberia, regarding to the freedom of faith, we find the ratification in the section 14 that “anybody and everybody are allowed and insured the right of a religion; against the lawbreakers the council of the unit has the right of punishment as strong as ban from the unit”. In the canon of Lek Dukagjini is written for the church as an uncontouchable institution because the catholic religion was spread in the north of the country. The church had a special status and its laws and didn't obeyed to the laws of the canon. From the importance that we find expressed in the canons, I think that the religion has been a part of the traditional Albanian values even though religion was forbidden during the communism in Albania.

5. And today? The traditional values?

Related to the values and their influence in the actual society, must be said that is not contested firstly the influence of the traditional values in the Albanian society, especially of that part of the values that were supported by the communist regime for certain interests. Facing the new values of the western model, these values experienced a crisis but their independence from the economic system (independence that even Weber and Huntington pretend) was seen as their regeneration or as their change into new terms. An institutional transformation, despite of the weaknesses, were not accompanied with a fast transformation of the mentality or with a pre-preparation of the mentality of the Albanian transition. It is known that the dictators by forbidden the free word stop the evolution of the ideas.

This kind of authorization “… that every day more is losing in the family life, becomes really unbearable for the young generation, especially when it takes a political form. Has passed the time of the alliance between the family patriarch, this base of traditional values and the political totalitarianism. (Fuga, 2001;77). Nevertheless this authorization continues to appear in different shades in the mentalities of the people, especially of that generation that grew in the dictatorship. Even the personalities that appeared very modern with their ideas in the beginnings of democracy, proved that they couldn't and cannot escape from this tendency.

On the other hand, new values like the religious ones, have strongly revived: “The overthrow of the previous system of values, the state of unsafely and many other negative phenomena, brought the people to religion, as a factor that gives a safety and a salvation against this new reality, which didn't resembled the image that the people had created for the society of the open market” (Fuga, Kocani, Sinani, 1999;77). Naturally, here we cannot talk about a powerful influence of the religious values in the society but this is an indicator that should be taken in consideration in the future years and in later studies. Either to see how they influence from inside the hierarchy of values itself of the Albanian society, either for evidencing and studying how they influence in the other social-economic developments. But for this can serve the other studies more focused in this field.

In fact, an indicator of the new values of the western model is displayed in the attitude of the people towards the way of living, which still again is different from the conception of different generations. Nevertheless it is not written anywhere that the happiness of the citizens should be one of the orienting principles of democracy. It also includes the tendency for these kind of values like the general well-being, participation and influence of the citizens in the side of the community in decisions that are direct interest of the last, the stimulation of the feeling of responsibility of the citizens and also for the structures chosen to take decisions, the protection from the manipulation and control of certain sections, etc.

But now all these qualities of democracy were understood equally. Especially in the young generation was
observed a tendency for a life in the west and possibly without working. Vasilika Shtëpani describes these phenomena:

“It is natural to desire and request for the achievement of higher living standards. Meanwhile many people understood that this becomes reality only with work, there are also certain categories, which didn’t manage to adapt in this situation. The young age and the desire to have a luxury life by avoiding the job factor, influenced that many young people to search for the easiest way to get rich: drugs and traffication” (Shtëpani, 2003: 22).

These “values” as the well-being, getting rich fast, etc. and often the roads that brought there were taken in a hurry from the western model had a not small influence in the hierarchy of values of the new democratic Albanian society. They put a big question mark in the value of working and stimulated phenomena so harmful for the economy and the society which have their footprints even today with the social problems they carried. Even this is a factor of the influence of the values or the anti-values in the society.

6. Conclusion and reflections

Starting from the definition of the values as the imagination or the idea that a society has for something desired, aimed which is generally accepted and incorporated spiritually in the members to be followed and honored in their everyday life, we analyzed which of those can be considered as characteristic traditional values of the Albanian society. By working on the canons we came to the conclusion that some of the traditional Albanian values are: strong family bond and they being too much influenced in their decisions and depended from the family structure which works in a hierarchic way by being led by male figures in an old age; personal honor as an inalienable value which is appreciated by the society and every individual is guided by it in the everyday behavior; trust as the rigorous respect by being loyal to the end for the given promise, the deal agreed even though this might be just oral as a conversation between two people; hospitality that explains a strong bond of Albanians with the community, with other people in general by giving them an important role and by sacrificing and supporting the guest (the other) in any time and by insuring protection. And of course, the religion, a society that depends strongly to religion and believes in the religious principles. Of course that the Albanian society in its economic, political and social changes will also affect the values, the mass of which in the traditional values stands strong where they are modeled and serves to be an object of a deep empiric study. But we can say that the traditional and hierarchic family has already experienced its first cracks and is transforming every day more the point of view for it. Values like trust, hospitality, don’t seem to have much to do with the young generations, which seems to embrace more and more the western values that are related with a personal autonomy, with individualization, with the freedom to act without being dictated. Last, even the religion is worth being studied in what mass can be considered as one of the values in which the Albanian society can depend.

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Neutral Monism and Conceptions of Historiosofical Synthesis as Methodology of History

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Abstract

Examination of issues related to the methodology of history is important in connection with discussions of the theoretical component of historical knowledge. We consider that the methodology of history is an aggregate of philosophical, historical, and universal scientific conceptions, which can be presented as an integrated system with aspects and levels. There are ontological, epistemological, and axiological aspects of historical methodology. From the ontological perspective, researchers are trying to define the historical reality and the way how this reality evolves. Ontological aspect consists of doctrines of being (low-level), universal scientific theories, including theories of evolution (mid-level), historiosophical conceptions of world history (top-level), special historiosophical and general historical conceptions (additional and special methodology). The aim of this article is to find what doctrines of being and what historiosaphical conceptions of the world history may be considered as constructive methodology of history in the framework of its ontological aspect nowadays. For this purpose, we examine ontological doctrines and historiosaphical conceptions of the world history and determine what kinds of them are consistent with the key principles of evolution of great open systems, established by synergetics as a modern theory of evolution. We prove that evolutionary version of neutral monism and conceptions of historiosothical synthesis collocate with the key principles of synergetics to the gratis extend.

Keywords: methodology of history, philosophy of history, synergetics, neutral monism

1. Introduction

Nowadays, when the historical science has accumulated a large amount of historical information, historians, philosophers, mathematicians, and other scientists are actively discussing the theoretical perspectives of history. Many authors think that theoretical history cannot exist at all. The tradition pioneered by W. Dilthey, was further developed in the philosophy of postmodernism. Rationalistic interpretation of the opposition of the humanities and the natural sciences is the most clearly represented by the works of Karl Popper (Popper, 1979). Popper believes that since humanity is a single phenomenon, revealing the laws of its evolution is impossible. However, the natural sciences, such as astronomy, for instance, sometimes face similar problems (Metagalaxy is a single phenomenon).

Among the researchers who consider that theoretical history is possible, there is no consensus on what it should include. Some scholars believe that the theoretical history should be a system of mathematical models describing different historical processes (Kapitsa, Kurdyumov, and Malinetskiy, 2003;; Turchin, 2003; Grinin, 2006; Korotaev, Malkov, and Halturina, 2010; Budanov, 2013 and other). According to other researchers, the theoretical history does not have to be like modern physics. Nevertheless, its theories must be falsifiable and verifiable (Rozov, 2002; Knyazeva, Kurdyumov, 1994 and other).

We assume that theoretical history include hypothetically special historiosophic and general historical conceptions which are theoretical models of societies and historical processes, not necessarily expressed by mathematical language though. However, to be a part of the theory of historical knowledge, these models must comply with this or that scientific paradigm of the world history. Thus, to make theoretical history real, existing approaches to the interpretation of the world-historical process must move from the category of philosophical doctrines to the category of scientific theories. In addition, to implement this transition, the existing approaches to history must be in some way justified.

We believe that this transformation can be realized if historiosophical approaches are substantiated by universal scientific conceptions that are nowadays considered to be reliable. From this point of view, the most interesting is the general scientific theory of synergetics as a modern theory of evolution. Synergetics describes the development of complex open systems of different nature. Thus, the laws of the evolution of such systems should manifest themselves in the development of human society.
However, the specific conceptions of world history (theories of Marx, Spengler, Toynbee, Rostow, Wallerstein, and others), which allow to identify the main approaches to the interpretation of the world-historical process, are complex. They offer answers to various questions concerning historical development, historical research, and evaluation of the past and the present. Answers to these questions are justified in different ways. Therefore, the formation of a theoretical history is impossible without determining the structure of the methodology of history.

One might suppose that methodology of history is an aggregate of philosophical, universal scientific and historical conceptions, which can be represented as an integrated system with aspects and levels.

In the framework of ontological aspect of the history methodology, philosophers, historians, and other scholars are trying to find an answer to the question what kind of phenomenon is historical reality and how this reality evolves. This aspect of the methodology combines doctrines of being, universal scientific theories, including scientific conceptions of evolution, historiosophical models of world history, special historiosophical and general historical conceptions.

Theoretical constructions which can be attributed to the epistemological aspect of historical methodology are created to solve the problem how people study society and its development. These theories form general epistemology, scientific epistemology, and historical epistemology. This aspect of the methodology also includes the theory of the specific techniques of historical research.

It can be noted that the historical methodology has an axiological aspect. Various conceptions that build this aspect do not focus on evaluation of historical phenomena and events. This aspect of the methodology holds general outlook, scientific outlook, political ideology, and the personal position of the authors of scientific papers.

Consequently, every aspect of the methodology can be presented as a system of four levels. In this case, the first level of the methodology of history includes general philosophical ontology, general epistemology, and general outlook, the second level is formed by universal scientific theories, a scientific epistemology, and a scientific outlook; the third level consists of historiosophical conceptions of the world history, historical epistemology, and political ideology. The fourth level embraces special historiosophical and general historical conceptions, the theory of the specific techniques of historical research and personal sets are used in the study.

We assume the first level, which is the most distant from the historical research, as a lower, the second level - as an average, and the third level – as an upper. It should be noted that historiosophical conceptions of the world history, historical epistemology, and political ideology play a pivotal role in direct methodology of historical research. These theories form a basis of complete history courses, whatever way they are set out (in the form of multi-volume works, textbooks or lecture cycles) and their specific instruments.

2. Research objective

We are to find what ontological doctrines and what historiosaphical conceptions of world history may be considered as constructive methodology of history within the framework of its ontological aspect nowadays, if we want to correlate them with the universal scientific theories.

In the history of philosophical thought one can identify five major types of philosophical conceptions: idealism, materialism, dualism, neutral monism, and ontology that do not consider the question of the relationship between the mental and the physical. Therefore, we tend to substantiate one of these paradigms as a lower level of historical methodology.

There are three main types of conceptions of the world-historical process in the history of historiosophical thought. One might notice a stadial approach to history, civilizational approach to history, and an approach of historiosophical synthesis. We intend to choose one of them as a top-level methodology of history.

3. Methodology

3.1 Method of determining the type of ontology

First, we analyze the main types of ontological doctrines in terms of their rationality and internal consistency because irrational and controversial theories are not suitable for the role of the low-level methodology of history. Next, we examine the conceptions of being, which passed this critical analysis, and we try to determine what kind of them are in accordance with the key principles of synergetics. These philosophical doctrines are also considered in order to define their compliance with modern scientific conceptions of evolution of the Universe and the discoveries that correspond to these theories. Thus, we can say that the ontological doctrines are considered in their relations to the principles of rationality, consistency, and evolutionism.
3.2 Method of selecting the type of historiosaphical paradigm

Considering the main approaches to the interpretation of world history, we correlate the key principles of synergetics with the various aspects of these approaches, and try to establish which historiosaphical paradigm is the most consistent with universal principles of evolution.

4. Analyses

4.1 Basic ontological paradigms in their relation to the principles of rationality, consistency, and modern evolutionism

In the history of philosophical thought, we can see five major types of philosophical conceptions of being. This is such ontology as materialism, idealism, dualism, neutral monism, and the ontological perspective, not intended to answer the question of relationship between the mental and the physical. The most consistent ontology, which needs no solutions to the problem, is existentialism (Martin Heidegger, Karl Theodor Jaspers, Jean-Paul Sartre and others). We believe that irrational paradigm cannot be considered as a low-level methodology of history, if history and its methodology are conceived as rational phenomena, and general scientific theories are proposed as mid-level historical methodology. All other types of ontology are rationalistic.

According to dualism (Plato, Descartes, Karl Popper, Richard Swinburne and others), there are two substances (two fully independent entities) – the mental and the physical. This ontology has a certain intuitive appeal and some support in the modern psychology and physiology (Priest, 1991 p.6-7). The main stumbling block of dualism is a problem of psycho-physical interaction. It is not clear how the mental and the physical can communicate with each other, being completely different entities (Priest, 1991 p.31-34). Thus, dualism is an internally controversial ontology and, therefore, unsuitable for the role of historical methodology.

There are no insurmountable logic problems in the monistic conceptions. Let us address the monistic ontology and consider materialism, idealism, and neutral monism in terms of their relations to the modern science and the principle of evolutionism.

Idealism (Plotinus, George Berkeley, Johann Gottlieb Fichte, Friedrich Wilhelm Schelling and other) claims that the mind is the only substance. Physical objects are not material and do not exist independently from human perception. Reason for the existence of physical objects is God, or single human minds. Stephan Priest pays attention to the following argument in favor of idealism: we know that physical things exist just because we see them; but the fact that we have a perceptual experience of physical objects does not result in that they are there when we do not see them (Priest, 1991 p.70). Let us note that this argument finds some support in modern physics. Discovered in the second half of the 20th century, the quantum Zeno effect declaims that the unstable particle in an ideal continuous monitoring can never break up (Halfin, 1990). Thus, the existence of an object is directly determined by the fact of his observations. However, the Zeno effect is not fixed in the macrocosm.

Materialism (Democritus, Thomas Hobbes, Paul-Henry Holbach, Ludwig Feuerbach, U.T. Place, David Armstrong and others) suggests that there is only matter and its properties. Physical objects are composed of matter; exist in space and time, have the shape, size, density, and they are able to move. Mental phenomena are material or identical with brain states, or are properties of physical objects. According to Priest, the strength of materialism is the characteristic of properties of physical objects (Priest, 1991 p.98). However, it should be stated that many of these features are not suitable for the description of fields, especially for the description of the physical vacuum. If modern physics supports idealism, it cannot provide arguments in favor of materialism.

Neutral monism (Anaximander, Benedictus Spinoza, Bertrand Russell, and Peter Strawson) suggests that the physical and the mental are two forms or two aspects or two properties of a single reality which is neither matter nor consciousness, but contains both possibilities. Let us consider some conceptions that seem to be attributed to neutral monism.

Let us turn our attention to the fact that the classical idealism and the classical materialism are not evolutionary conceptions, since both types of ontology state that the only substance is eternal and constant.

Neutral monism (Anaximander, Benedictus Spinoza, Bertrand Russell, and Peter Strawson) suggests that the physical and the mental are two forms or two aspects or two properties of a single reality which is neither matter nor consciousness, but contains both possibilities. Let us consider some conceptions that seem to be attributed to neutral monism.

According to Anaximander, the substantial and the genetic origin of the world is apeiron (something unlimited in quantity and quality). Apeiron is the essence of the elements - earth, water, air, and fire, which can turn one into another. All things arise from Apeiron, and everything will come back to it (Anaximander, 1969). Apeiron is divine (eternal and immortal), “embraces everything and controls everything.” All the worlds are in apeiron (Russell, 1946 p.60). It is not clear whether there are Anaximander’s worlds simultaneously or sequentially (Finkelberg, 1994), perhaps both assumptions
are correct. Russell held that Anaximander was the most interesting philosopher among the Milesians with his views that the primal substance was supposed to be neutral (Russell, 1946 p.45-46).

Let us note that such neutral entity like apeiron is the essence of the physical elements and controls everything as the divine mind. This implies that it has mental and physical aspects. Thanks to this specificity, apeiron can generate matter and mind. Thus, Anaximander’s universe evolves. If apeiron can be interpreted as a substance containing the possibility of the physical (four elements) and the mental (living, according to Anaximander, eventually arises from non-living, people come from animals), it is an evolutionary version of neutral monism. Once the primal substance was in its original state, then it was neutral, but it also had an opportunity of generating the physical and the mental. Nowadays, this substance, maintaining its neutrality, exists in the elements and things, including human with his mind. In future times, four elements and the variety of things, including people, will dissolve in apeiron again.

Some features of Anaximander’s conception partly correspond to some principles of synergetics. At first glance, Anaximander's apeiron cannot be identified with any modern concept. However, it can be assumed that apeiron has some properties of chaos, that chaos and apeiron are similar concepts. According to V.G Budanov, in the evolution of complex open system one can identify the stages as homeostasis, the transition from order to chaos (dectructuration), dynamic chaos, the transition from chaos to a new order (self-organization) (Budanov, 2013 p.47-63.). In the conception of Anaximander, all things arise from apeiron and everything will come back to it. Prigogine and Stengers believe that chaos is a building material for the formation of new systems, like apeiron. Chaos is a neutral stuff for construction the things. The order, as well as chaos, is never complete (Budanov, 2013 p.48). Let us remember that apeiron “embraces everything”, that it exists in the things and around them. Finally, let us note that the concept of self-organization requires a control mechanism inherent to the system itself. Apeiron just “controls everything”, which means, it directs processes of self-organization and deconstruction. The difference between the conceptions of Prigogine and Anaximander, of course, exists. What is more, it is not only in the degree of development and the presence or absence of mathematical support. However, we have tried to show exactly similar features.

Spinoza, a Dutch philosopher of the 19th century, believes that there is only one substance, and it has a lot of attributes, but men can perceive two of them – extension and thought. If we think of the world as an extended, it is Nature, if we think of the world as having consciousness it is God. The person is a part of a single substance. If you think about the person under the attribute of mind, it is a soul, and if you think about the person under the attribute of extension, it is a body (Spinoza, 1970 p.350-400; Priest, 1991 p.154-161).

This is not an evolutionary version of neutral monism. Regardless of whether such ontology involves an act of creation of the world, or not, the mental and the physical do not segregate with the time of a single substance, but always present in it as its inherent properties - attributes. Russell wrote in the first half of the 20th century that the concept of substance, which had adhered Spinoza, was not compatible with the modern science (Russell, 1946 p.601). Spinoza’s ontology is closer to the Newtonian picture of the world than to modern relativistic physics and cosmology.

In the opinion of Bertrand Russell, an English philosopher of the 20th century, the universe is made up of events - the space-time entities that have some great and extension. They are neither mental nor physical (Russell, 1927 p.287) and are not made of any substance (Russell, 1927 p.290). Matter and consciousness in the universe are constructed of this simple neutral material. It is in them and above them, like a common ancestor (Russell, 1921 p.10-11). Sensory data is the kind of events. They are neutral relatively to the mental and physical description. It is a meeting of psychology and physics. Sensory data (color, sound, smell, taste) may be conceived as mental when psychologists explain them by psychological laws. The same data is considered as physical when physicists explain them using the laws of physics. There will be neither the concept of “matter” nor of “mind” in a well-developed science, because the first of them does not mean anything and the second is very vague (Russell, 1927 p.292). Psychology and physics, studying the mental and physical phenomena show in the 20th century, according to Russell, two opposite trends: the psychology demonstrates materialistic orientation, and physics demonstrates anti-materialistic orientation. These trends need to be accepted by a modern philosophy (Russell, 1921 p.6).

Russell does not write anything that is contrary to the physics of his time (Priest, 1991 p. 163,170). It should be added that the ontology of Russell is consistent with scientific theories and facts which the English philosopher could not know. Inflationary models - modern versions of the Big Bang theory that describe the initial stages of the expansion of the Universe, were proposed in the 80th years of the 20th century. Russell’s work “An Outline of Philosophy”, “The Analysis of Mind”, “The Analysis of Metter”, which sets out the view that the “neutral stuff” (Russell, 1921 p.6), which are constructed from the mental and the physical are events, were written much earlier. Meanwhile, modern cosmology suggests that within the evolution of the Metagalaxy the Event - Big Bang – had occurred before the emergence of matter. According to inflation theory of A.D. Linde, within the first fractions of the second after the Big Bang, the universe expanded at a rate, significantly exceeding the speed of light. It is believed that this statement does not contradict the
theory of relativity, as the space itself expanded (Linde, 2007). In accordance with the quantum Zeno effect, the characteristics and the lifetime of the elementary particle (particle of matter) also depend on the event - the act of observation of the particle (Haffin, 1990). The quantum Zeno effect was predicted in the 50th years of the 20th century, but it was experimentally proved only in 1989. In view of modern cosmology, ontology of Russell can be seen as evolutionary.

Thus, in the ontology of Russell, the substantial and the genetic origin of the world are events. Meanwhile, the events may be considered as moving systems of relations, that is, structures that are in constant motion. This ontology is well consistent with the hypothesis of birth of matter proposed by Prigogine on the basis of synergetics. In their opinion, the condition for the appearance of the Universe was a sharp increase of entropy, which is within the decay of something highly organized. Next, as a result of spontaneous fluctuations of chaos (the physical vacuum, that is, a field in which there are only power lines and no particles) event occurred: the energy of the field began to generate particles of matter. (Prigogine, 1996). In other words, matter is generated by the moving structure (fluctuating vacuum). An event in this context is a qualitative leap in the process of vacuum fluctuations.

Consequently, events of Russell and chaos of Prigogine are moving structures without matter. These substances (chaos and events) are the sources of things. They exist in them and around them, have mechanisms of self-organization. At first glance, it seems that chaos of Prigogine in contrast to Apeiron of Anaximander and events of Russell has no relation to consciousness, but this is not true. Attractor (a target program), inherent to any complex system at the stage of homeostasis, and the phenomenon of self-organization brings the mental aspect to any complex open system, including vacuum (chaos).

The analysis shows that the only type of ontology, which corresponds to the principles of rationality, consistency, and modern evolutionism, is an evolutionary version of neutral monism.

### 4.2 Main approaches to world history in their relation to the basic principles of the evolution of complex open systems

In modern literature, one can reveal several historiosophical paradigms. A stadial approach includes the theory of socio-economic formations (Karl Marx), the conception of modernization, created by Western sociologists after World War II, the theory of post-industrial society (Daniel Bell and other), and a number of other theoretical constructions. Civilizational paradigm combines the conception of many independent civilizations (Oswald Spengler, Arnold Toynbee, and other), the theory of two worlds (Max Weber), and the theoretical constructions of Nikolay Danilevsky, Leonid Vasilyev, Lyubov Semennikova that connect independent civilizations in a few models of historical evolution.

An approach of historiosophical synthesis incorporates the theories of dependent development, including the world-systems analysis (Fernand Braudel, Immanuel Wallerstein, Andre Frank and others); the conception of Alexander Panarin, who believed that world history is a rotation of leadership of the East and the West; the conception of global stages of historical evolution (Yuri Semenov). The essence of the latter theory consists of the statement that humanity as a whole, but not individual societies, are in their development of such stages as socio-economic formations. A synthesis paradigm may also include a theory of world cycles (Yuri Yakovets), although it is more combined than synthesis.

Let us denote the main characteristics of complex open systems and the basic principles of their evolution to determine which conceptions - stadial, civilizational or synthesis are in accordance with the key principles of synergetics.

The majority of real systems are open; their interaction with the environment cannot be ignored (Prigogine, Stengers, 2009 p.16.). If we apply this description of real systems to the human communities, we can see that each individual society feels important influences from other societies and, in turn, affects the surrounding social world. Thus, humanity is presented as a complete system and individual societies, regions, or civilizations are its elements. Therefore, corresponding to this description of complex systems a constructive approach to history must consider the evolution of human civilization as a whole.

At first glance, this is an argument in favor of a stadial approach, based on the identification of common patterns of social evolution. However, the need to take account of external factors makes improbable suggestion that all social organisms evolve generally in the same way. Thus, the recognition of the fact that social systems are open is an argument against the classical stadial approach and, in part, in favor of civilizational approach to history. However, a statement of the interdependence of societies makes this statement of synergetics fully compatible only with the synthesis paradigm.

Increasing the degree of order in the system is always at the expense of the disorder in their environment (Prigogine, Stengers, 2009 p.52-53). The concept of “environment” can be interpreted as a set of societies which this social organism has contacts with. In this case, the simultaneous rapid development of all human societies is not possible. In part, this is an argument in favor of conception of Spengler. In contrast to Toynbee, Spengler believes that
civilizations (the great cultures) exist on some social background. This principle of synergetics is not compatible with the classic stadial approach, although it can explain a backlog of some communities. This principle asserts the interdependence of societies and the development of some societies by the withdrawal of resources from others. Precisely this view is typical for theories of dependent development, including the world-systems analysis.

The majority of real systems are chaotic, which is, having the forecast horizon, and allowing only a probabilistic description as a whole that cannot be reduced to a dynamic description of the individual trajectories and waves (Prigogine, Stengers, 2009 p.12-13). If we assume that the mankind is a complete system, as it follows from the principle of the openness of human communities and of the approval of the development of some societies at the expense of others, then the principle of randomness makes sense to take it to human civilization as a whole. In this case, the definition of chaotic systems, cited above, calls into question the desire of many historians and philosophers to identify the stage of human evolution with the stages of the development of particular societies, therefore, humanity as a whole has its own laws, not reducible to the laws of the specific historical organisms. The authors of synthesis conceptions consider human evolution in this way.

Selection of one of the possible ways of evolution is determined by random factors; therefore, identical systems can choose different scenarios (Prigogine, Stengers, 1986 pp.216-217). This thesis clearly justifies the multi-variant historical evolution and seems to support civilizational approach to history. However, the principles outlined above require consider humanity as a complete system. All synthesis conceptions certainly reveal some models of historical development and the patterns of evolution of mankind in general.

The transition from "order" to "chaos" and from "chaos" to a new "order" shows us that complex open systems exist in a cyclic mode (Prigogine, Stengers, 1986 p.225). Consequently, humanity as a whole and the individual social organisms (nations, states, civilizations) evolve by cycles. The supporters of the civilizational approach to history always follow the idea of cycles, but in the classical civilizational conceptions they are local and do not lead to social progress. Meanwhile, a cycle in synergetics is a way of development. All synthesis conceptions interpret the development of humanity through a rotation of world cycles, although the concept itself may be absent. When applied to a specific society, this principle also requires taking into account the change of the subject of history, which was fully implemented in the conception of Semenov (Semenov, 2003 pp. 250-258, 425-508).

The analysis shows that the most prevalent classic stadial approach is incompatible with the principles of synergetics. An idea that all historical organisms pass the same steps that are also stages in the evolution of humanity as a whole seems to be abandoned.

As for the civilizational approach to history, it gets from synergetics a considerable support. Many principles of the evolution of complex open systems lead to the conclusion that different societies, regions or civilizations develop in different ways. However, the classical civilizational paradigm claims that there is no interaction and continuity between civilizations.

Meanwhile, the fact of isolation on the Earth (humanity is the maximum social system), combined with the assertions of the openness of real systems (individual societies) and increasing the degree of order in the system (individual society) due to the growth of disorder in its environment (other societies), leads to the conclusion that mankind should be considered as a single system. If this is true, a principle of randomness is applicable to the humanity in general. What is more, the principles of synergetics are fully compatible only with synthesis approach to history, claiming that specific societies (ethnic groups, regions, civilization), and mankind in general have different patterns of evolution. Individual societies evolve in different ways, and because of this there are many different societies, their clustering is possible and useful. In other words, the desire to reveal macro-structure of humanity receives the methodological basis thanks to synergetics.

Thus, we must conclude that synthesis approach to history is in accordance with the basic principles of the evolution of complex open systems to a greater extent than any other historiosophical paradigm.

5. Results, discussions, and recommendations

5.1 Neutral monism as low-level methodology of history

It can be argued that the evolutionary version of neutral monism meets the key principles of synergetics and modern conceptions of the Universe’s evolution to a greater extent than any other type of ontology. Therefore, an evolutionary version of neutral monism can be seen as a constructive low-level historical methodology.

However, the types of ontology and particular conceptions can be considered not only in terms of compliance with modern evolutionary theories. According to Priest, the main drawback of neutral monism is uncertainty regarding the
nature of the postulated neutral entities (Priest, 1991 p.153). In part, this is acceptable. Science does not know such substance as apeiron. If we identify apeiron and chaos, a phenomenon like apeiron as well as events of Russell is more a state of a substance than the substance itself. Nevertheless, as we mentioned above, apeiron and events may be considered like variable structure (vacuum) that can give rise to matter and mind. However, it is a logical conclusion and not a statement of the philosophers themselves. It would be desirable to design a new modern conception in the framework of neutral monism. Perhaps it could be a generalization and a further development of theories of Anaximander, Russell, and Prigogine.

5.2 Paradigm of historiosothical synthesis as top-level methodology of history

As it has been proved, a synthesis approach to history collocates with the main principles of synergetics to a greater extent than stadial and civilizational approaches. Thus, synthesis paradigm can be proposed for the role of the top-level methodology of history. This paradigm assumes that the patterns of historical evolution of mankind as a whole and of individual societies are different, so the stages of development of a given society and the stage of human evolution are not the same. The authors define the models of historical development that are typical for different groups of societies and the stages of human evolution as a whole.

However, such version of methodology is constructive only when we believe that humanity has always been a unified system. Meanwhile, some researchers believe that the human race did not constitute a social system up to a certain point, probably up to the 16th century. Until this time, individual societies developed independently (Shishkov, 2005).

However, the period when all the communities were completely isolated from each other, did not exist even in the days of anthropogenesis. Archaeologists note a surprising similarity of tools and technology at all prehistoric campsites of archanthropines and paleoanthropes in the Lower Paleolithic period. It seems to show the presence of the exchange of information between the ancient human groups. A.V. Korotaev, A.S. Malkov and D.A. Halturina believe that the hyperbolic trend of growth of the human race watched from the tenth millennium before Christ and up to 1973 supports the hypothesis that humanity was a unified system since the Neolithic revolution (Korotaev, Malkov, and Halturina, 2010). The existence of a general network “did not preclude the gradual formation of local civilizations” (Bondarenko, 2009).

Let us note that the historiosophical approaches can be seen not only in their relation to synergetics. Each of them claims to be an adequate reflection of historical reality. However, it is very difficult to evaluate this aspect of historiosothical conceptions, trying to relate the speculative construction and historical facts. Formulating this problem very short, it can be argued that all existing approaches to history are partly, but not fully supported by interpreted in a certain way historical knowledge. Therefore, the requirement of correspondence between historiosophical paradigm and historical reality cannot help us selecting the most meaningful approach to history nowadays. This means that the appeal to the modern theory of evolution in order to choose only one approach offers a way to solve the problem.

Finally, we note that all synthesis conceptions have their advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, in frame of synthesis approach, it is advisable to carry out a further research of the most constructive historiosophical conception of world history.

6. Conclusion

Thus, an attempt to promote the translation of historiosothical paradigms from the category of philosophical doctrines to the category of scientific theories has led to the concretization of the ontological aspect of the historical methodology. According to this study, ontological aspect of historical methodology should combine a new evolutionary version of neutral monism, universal theories of evolution, based on modern science, and the conception of world history, developed in the future as a part of the synthesis approach to history. The evolutionary version of neutral monism and the synthesis approach to history are proposed as methodology of the history of the lower and upper level because they are in accordance with patterns of evolution that complex open systems and the Universe in general seem demonstrate.

References

Protest as Conservative Phenomenon

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Abstract
One usually takes it for granted that protest is a means to bring changes in the society and, in this sense, all those who protest and demand these changes are positioned as progressives. In contemporary society progressives take on different names – Marxian, post-Marxian, environmentalists, libertarians, pacifists etc. Here the issue is not to put in doubt the existence of a better future in protesters’ imagination. However, when society has not yet developed certain positions from which it may criticize itself, protest contributes to nothing else but reproducing the society in the same parameters, since it does not change anything structurally. Protest will be analyzed into three meaning dimensions: temporality, facticity, and sociality. This analysis will expose the difference between the societal structure and semantics of protest. This difference is manifested in the temporal dimension as outdated semantics, in the fact dimension as simplified semantics, and in the social dimension as monist semantics.

1. Introduction
In the democratic regimes of our time protest is considered a form of political participation that indicates a functional democracy, that power holders are controlled by the people, and that the basic constitutional rights of men are observed and have influence in improving governance. In other words, protest represents a value that must be cultivated, as well as a proper form that may bring about positive changes in the society. Taking this for granted, the entire theoretical discussion about protest focuses on the strategies, tactics, organization, aims and motives of protest (Meyer at al, 2002; Della Porta & Diani, 2006; Tilly, 2007). If a protest fails, the fault is attributed to one or some of these elements. Thereby, all future attempts concentrate on improving the strategy, or tactics and organization, or clearer specification of aims and transparency of motives. But, notwithstanding the lessons learned from previous failures, the history of protests has little in common with success. The pressure of protesting people upon their government has not improved at all the governance quality. The social changes one aimed for have not occurred. The institutions representing the evil and the origin of the problem in the eyes of protesters remain as strong as ever. In these conditions another perspective is required for studying protest: a perspective which does not seek the reasons of failure in the strategy applied and the other abovementioned elements, but in more fundamental factors relating to the very structure of contemporary society.

Thus, from this perspective, the questions become: Given that the strategy, tactics, organization, aims and motives of protest are adequate, yet, can protest deliver the social change it promises? And, in the context of contemporary society, how should one reconstruct the concept of protest in order for it to be successful? Through these two questions the debate on protest shifts from the philosophical to the sociological level, and from the futile positioning for or against protest towards a constructive analysis that aims at demonstrating the capacity of this form of political participation and its reconstruction in the framework of contemporary society.

2. Methodology
This article follows the principles of radical constructivism. One does not deny the existence of reality, as it is the case with solipsism, but neither can one acquire objective knowledge about the reality through sensual perception, as realists hold. Actually, all knowledge one acquires about the reality is constructed; i.e., one does not have direct and certain access in a single unified reality (von Glasersfeld, 1995; von Foerster, 1984 & 2003; Maturana & Varela, 1980 & 1987; Bateson, 1972 & 1979). The implications of this thesis for this study relate, first of all, to the special attention one must pay to the way one makes sense of the reality (in this case, to the protest and the society within which it occurs) and specification of the meaning dimensions. Thus, in accordance with the neofunctionalist thesis developed by systems theory, one can analytically distinguish three meaning dimensions: fact dimension, temporal dimension, and social
dimension (Luhmann, 1995a: 75). Secondly, crucial importance is attached to the description of contemporary society. The scientific quality of explanation and prediction of social events and processes depends on the quality of description of the society. Third, in this study the reality is observed through the binary scheme social differentiation/semantics. Social differentiation refers to the primary differentiation of society, which brings about structural effects on the development of social processes and the very reproduction of society, while semantics refers to the condensed meaning that society articulates for making sense of itself (Luhmann, 1995a; Staeheili, 1998; Andersen, 2003). The distinction between social differentiation and semantics assumes that society may fail the task of adequately understanding itself, i.e. the reality of its structures and processes.

3. How to describe contemporary society?

Description of contemporary society relates to the question of its primary differentiation. Amongst all the theories developed for this purpose, more complete and more coherent are Karl Marx's theory of historical materialism and Niklas Luhmann's theory of social systems. These theories have an advantageous position over the rest for they deal with the entire human history, thus making it possible to do comparative analysis. Of course, in addition to them there are other theories, which focus exclusively on the contemporary society such as Ulrich Beck’s theory that describes society as ‘risk society’ (Beck, 1992), Manuel Castells’s theory that describes society as ‘network society’ (Castells, 2010), Lyotard’s theory that describes society as ‘postmodern society’ (Lyotard, 1984), or Debord’s society that describes it as a ‘society of spectacle’ (Debord, 2006). However, besides the fact that these theories do not provide for comparative analysis, they also have another problem. They seem not to refer that much to social differentiation, but almost exclusively to social semantics. In fact, these theories express by way of metaphor the society’s attempts to make sense of itself. They contribute to the creation of semantic variation, but they are not helpful for doing analysis focused on the distinction between social differentiation and semantics, since they do not take into account this distinction.

But let us turn for a moment to Marx and Luhmann. According to Marx, human society has passed through several stages: primitive communism, slave society, feudal society, and capitalist society. In addition to these stages, Marx predicted the further evolution of society to socialism and, finally, communism (Marx & Engels, 2009). Unlike Marx, Luhmann distinguished three types of society during human history: primitive societies, traditional societies, and modern society (Luhmann, 2006: 502-588). What distinguishes one society from another, according to Luhmann, is its form of differentiation. Thus, primitive societies are characterized by segmentary differentiation. This means that the society is differentiated in identical subsystems, in segments, which constitute themselves in the same way and possess the same observational perspective. Such subsystems are for example tribes, villages and families. Unlike primitive societies, traditional societies are differentiated by forming unequal strata, on the basis of hierarchy principle. But, in addition to the up/down distinction, whereby some strata are considered high and other low, traditional societies also use the centre/periphery distinction, e.g. the distinction between the city, as a centre, and the countryside, as a periphery, or the centre of the empire versus other territories under its jurisdiction. Unlike the first two types of society, modern society is characterized by functional differentiation. This means that within it are formed systems that are different from one another with regard to the function they perform for society. Such systems are the political system, the economic system, the legal system, the scientific system and so on.

By using the logic of social differentiation of Luhmann, who distinguishes three principles of differentiation – segmentation, stratification, and function – one may notice that in Marx’s theory of social evolution there are only two of them: segmentation, in the case of primitive communism, and stratification, in slave society, feudal society and capitalist society. Meanwhile, in communist society, where social classes are supposed not to exist, one can guess that there would be segmentation like in the case of primitive communism, while socialist society may be interpreted as a transition period towards communism and, for that reason, one would find there both stratification and segmentation. The tension between the two theories becomes evident when it comes to the description of contemporary society, which Marx calls capitalist society and Luhmann modern society. While Marx and his followers believe that contemporary society is characterized by hierarchical and centre/periphery differentiation, Luhmann holds that contemporary society is differentiated functionally. In what follows, the analysis of the phenomenon of protest will be developed on the basis of the luhmannian premise that we live in a society, which has been differentiated in functional systems, where, although there are hierarchies and centres, they are not of primary importance. Choosing Luhmann’s social theory over that of Marx is done for two reasons: first, this theory is more complex and does not exclude the others; rather, it integrates them in its conceptual framework. Luhmann’s theory is able to reformulate and interpret Marx’s theory, while the conceptual apparatus of the Marxian theory is inadequate for including Luhmann’s social theory. Luhmannian theory, based on radical constructivism, can describe Marxian theory as a positivist theory (let us recall the concept of “false
consciousness” that assumes the existence of “true consciousness” and the possibility of its identification, or the concept of “alienation”, which implies the possibility of a “non-alienated” condition, as a monist theory (the claim that Marxism is not merely an ideology, but also science, i.e. it has monopoly over the truth), or as a theory adequate for traditional societies, but not for modern society (since it gives priority to the economy over all other systems and, therefore, it cannot be verified empirically in the framework of contemporary society). Secondly, Luhmannian theory, unlike Marxian theory, is reflexive: it is simultaneously the theory that describes and explains the social phenomena (the subject) and the theory that is described and explained by itself as merely one of these phenomena (the object). Luhmann is conscious that social theory, although it aims at describing society, is itself part of this society. For this reason, he constructed his social theory in such a way that his theory, after describing the social phenomena of the world, could face itself as object in the field of phenomena and, therefore, confronting a scientific test that it may pass or fail. Thus, Luhmann is in complete coherence with its theoretical premise that there is no privileged position for acquiring knowledge in contemporary society, and less so final knowledge.

4. Protest as object and concept

The major part of studies treats protest as object. This is more obvious in the case of empirical and historical studies. In this way, such studies create a confusion of data and facts, but fail to make sense of occurrences. The operative logic of Spencer Brown helps to understand the distinction between object and concept. According to him, to make sense of the world we live in we need distinctions. Thus, by establishing a distinctive boundary, two sides are formed: an internal side and an external side. The observer may mark one, or the other side, or both (although not simultaneously) (Spencer Brown, 1972: 1-4). So, when the observer names one of the sides, while the other remains unspecified, an object is created. When the observer specifies both sides of the distinction, a concept is created. Therefore, as Koselleck maintains, the concept always implies the existence of a counter-concept (2004). The relation between concept and counter-concept is characterized by difference and complementarity. Thus, despite the difference of the two sides of the distinction, the specifications on the one side imply the other. Therefore, if one wants to treat protest as a concept, one needs to specify its other side, which is different, but also complimentary to it. According to Luhmann, protest as a concept can be observed in the distinction between protest and that against which it is protested against: the theme. This is the theme of society that produces, covers, and approves that, which it is protested against (Luhmann, 2003: 337). Only when protest is treated as a concept can one observe the fact of its paradoxical existence. It seems that modern society has developed an autopoietic form in order to observe itself: in society, against society (Luhmann, 2003: 339). Thus protest is positioned against society, creating thereby the illusion that it stands outside society. But, in fact, it can only be society that makes possible everything social, protest included. The negativity of protest is parasitical: it exists because of the positivity of society. Thus, modern society has created the structural conditions that provide for action and reaction, covering and uncovering, construction and deconstruction, conformity and deviance.

The social systems theory developed by Luhmann identifies three types of system: interaction systems, organization systems, and the societal system. Society, as a system, is further differentiated in functional subsystems such as politics, economy, law, science, mass media etc. (Luhmann, 1977). Regarding protest, Luhmann admits that its features do not allow for classifying it into one of the abovementioned subsystems, nor has it developed to the level of taking it for a new kind of social system. For the following analysis, it is important to clearly distinguish protest from other types of social systems: the basic element that reproduces protest is not the presence of actors (interaction), nor decisions (organization), or communication (society). Actually, the main interest and the focus of action of protesters is demonstration (Luhmann, 2003: 336). This feature of protest seems to explain the tendency of protesters to have as much media coverage of their movement as possible. This is so because demonstration, as basic element of protest, must reproduce the conditions of its own continuation: it must be followed by other demonstrations. “Comet!” is the key message of protest. This message is expected to have more resonance and to influence more people if transmitted via the mass media. The dark side of this phenomenon is creation of perverted effects. Two of them are worth mentioning: first, making protest dependent on media coverage puts pressure on the movement to produce continuously events, even when there are no conditions for it. Thus, protesters are compelled to thematize and treat as issues to protest against even totally ordinary daily phenomena, by allowing themselves free room for interpretation (or speculation?). As a consequence, they are not taken seriously, do not find the expected resonance from the public, and do not manage to mobilize many people. Secondly, dependence on the mass media creates famous protesters. Empirical observations show that such protesters have the tendency to profit from their fame for improving their own position in the society, leaving behind the fate of their movement (Hessdörfer et al, 2010: 12).
5. Temporality of the semantics of protest

In the temporal dimension one distinguishes between history and chronology. History begins the moment it is liberated from chronology. Meaning systems have history only to the extent they condition themselves via optional access, be it by focusing on specific past events or through finalizing the future. (Luhmann, 1995a: 79-80). Thus, by referring to the distinction between form of societal differentiation and semantics, one can treat them as systems that have different history, named respectively ‘the societal system’ and ‘the semantic system’. In other words, and because of their different histories, there is no guarantee that semantics will reflect societal changes. Thus, the distinction between societal differentiation and social semantics reveals the semantics of protest as outdated semantics. This semantics is unable to understand the conditionings, the possibilities and the form of modern society.

At the structural level, the semantics of protest corresponds to the differentiation characteristic of traditional societies: stratification and centre/periphery distinction. It is expressed through concepts such as domination, exploitation, manipulation, the evil, omnipotent state (state in the centre or on the top of society), capitalism (reducing the society to the economy, while the economy is only one of society’s functional systems), colonization, violence, discrimination on the basis of social status and so on. All these concepts make sense by the counter-concepts positioned above or below them (hence confirming the hierarchy of the society), or otherwise by counter-concepts positioned in the centre or periphery (confirming the other version of traditional society, the centre/periphery differentiation). But the functional differentiation of society brings about other negative phenomena; different from those which constitute the terminology of protest movements. Functional differentiation brings about exclusion, neglect, indifference, high negative integration, ecological problems and depersonalization. This occurs because the functional systems of society in principle accept everyone within their field of operation. These systems operate through symbolically generalized communication media such as money, power, law, truth etc. So, to the extent one has money, one can involve in economic transactions, and to the extent one has power, one can operate in politics. However, what functions symbolically (providing unity), also functions diabolically (causing division). For example, although money provides for inclusion of everyone in the economy, notwithstanding his/her race, ethnicity, faith or age, on the other hand, it excludes from economy all those that have no ability to pay. Thus, turning to a concept for the sake of illustration, an updated semantics of protest would need to focus on exclusion, not exploitation. It is important to understand that exploitation becomes impossible when excluded by the society. One must first be included in order to get exploited. The more contemporary society evolves towards its modernity, the more akin becomes the problem of social exclusion and the less important the problem of exploitation. By not reflecting these societal changes in their semantics, protests either overrate the capacity of politics for solving society’s problems, or give up before it.

6. Factuality of the semantics of protest

The fact dimension refers to meaningful themes and objects and uses the distinction between “this” and “something else”. Regarding this meaning dimension it is important to emphasize that factuality and “reality” are not identical. Reality refers to “things”, which are constraints on the possibilities of combination in the fact dimension. Thus, the concept of reality hides the fact that for constituting an object there are always two meaning horizons at work – one external and one internal – and, consequently, that one needs twofold description for fixing the meaning of the object (Luhmann, 1995a: 76-77).

In the fact dimension the semantics of protest is very simplistic. It assumes a social reality characterized by unlimited resonance capacity. In addition, it assumes the same resonance capacity for all social systems, thus ignoring their systemic autonomy and their difference from each other in terms of functions, codes and programmes. The semantics of protest is expressed by notions such as reforms, revolution, the system, equality, social justice, or “delayed justice is denied justice”. In modern society these notions imply necessarily the operations of more than one social system. For example, the reforms may be initiated by politics, but they will have effects in the economy, education or science, depending on the case. Likewise, the notion of social justice refers to operations occurring simultaneously in at least three different systems: politics, economy and law. In the conditions when each of these systems operates according to its own functional logic, one may reasonably expect asymmetric resonance capacity: an important event in the economy may be totally ignorable in political terms (Luhmann, 1989: 43).

Lack of systemic resonance is observed by the protesters as sign of irresponsibility, lack of integrity, anti-value, incapability, corruption, and democratic deficiency. Consequently, protest focuses on “individuals” or special groups, leaving out of attention the functional systems that condition their decisions and actions. Thus, protest is articulated on the normative level (key word: should) and does not reflect at all about the question of possibility or realizing aspirations.
modern society does not give priority to any of society's functions and, consequently, to any of its functional systems. In premodern societies this common reality, and after the consensus mobilization and collective action will follow. Awareness-raising campaigns are inspired by the Marxian thought, e.g. by making the distinction between “false” and “true” consciousness. In other words, one seeks to overcome this diversity through observation schemas that is actualized in intimate relations becomes a point of reference for articulating the need for changing social conditions. But when a society has not developed enough its art, religion, science and intimacy, then it finds it almost impossible to criticize itself. Their development means that in the social processes one refers often to these systems, and uses them to reach decisions and to describe himself/herself and others. But, as a matter of fact, how often have we witnessed a preference for artistic logic over that of the mass media, or scientific logic over the economic one, or the religious logic over political logic?

7. Sociality of the semantics of protest

The social dimension of meaning articulates the tension between the different perspectives on facts; in other words, the tension between alter and ego. The concepts alter and ego refer both to psychic and social systems. For a sociological analysis of the society alter and ego are taken to be communication partners that do not have absolute control over each other, since it is impossible to predict with certainty the actions of the other. As it were, they are “black boxes” that never become completely transparent. For this reason, although the world we live in is the same for all of us, our realities can be different. Each social and psychic system develops its own special observation and description perspective of the world and, in this sense, there is systemic pluralism par excellence. Unlike primitive and traditional societies, modern society does not have a privileged position from which it may observe and describe itself. In premodern societies this positions was occupied by God (religion) and later on by the sovereign (politics). But the functional differentiation of modern society is conditioned and, in this sense, is made possible, by the environment (the other social and psychic systems). Thus, bad governance is not simply a consequence of incapable and corrupted government, but also of the incapable and corrupted opposition, in the context of a public opinion characterized by low sensitiveness and of other social systems functioning in accordance with different autonomous logics.

In order to increase the complexity of protest in modern society one needs to create critique positions, i.e. positions from which the society may criticize itself. These positions can only be created in its functional systems. However, one must distinguish functional systems that operate with a conservative logic from other functional systems characterized by a progressive logic. Thus, conservative logic is to be found in politics (political innovation is very dangerous electorally), in economy (for as long as there are markets and liquidity everything goes well), in the mass media (let’s give the public what the public asks for), in law (decision-making on the basis of established principles, concepts and rules). On the other hand, one can find progressive logic and pressure for emancipation in other systems such as art (the imaginary makes it possible for us to observe the real, to put it into perspective and criticize it), religion (the immanence of society becomes an object of observation from a transcendental perspective, although it is constrained by the holy scriptures), science (the criteria of truth are not based on social consensus or the so-called “common sense”) and intimacy (the inner experience that is actualized in intimate relations becomes a point of reference for articulating the need for changing social conditions). But when a society has not developed enough its art, religion, science and intimacy, then it finds it almost impossible to criticize itself. Their development means that in the social processes one refers often to these systems, and uses them to reach decisions and to describe himself/herself and others. But, as a matter of fact, how often have we witnessed a preference for artistic logic over that of the mass media, or scientific logic over the economic one, or the religious logic over political logic?

In light of the above, the semantics of protest appears monistic. It assumes that there is unity of values, interests and viewpoints, while in fact there is diversity. But one seeks to overcome this diversity through observation schemas inspired by the Marxian thought, e.g. by making the distinction between “false” and “true” consciousness. In other words, since the people are freed from the dominating ideology (by falling under another ideology?), they would open their eyes to see “the truth” of their existence in the society, and this truth can only be one and the same for all of them. Consequently, the different positions will transform in a common position, and the different realities will transform in a common reality, and after the consensus mobilization and collective action will follow. Awareness-raising campaigns are
prominent formulas for achieving these aims. But the fact that awareness-raising campaign seldom raise awareness must make the protesters reflect. In fact, even this reflection has been made, but with an inadequate focus. Habermas tells us that social emancipation and, by the same token, awareness raising, depends on the way we communicate. According to him, we must create ideal speech situations, where all of us enter as equal, leaving out the public sphere our specific status and instrumental interests, and let the best argument win (Habermas, 1984: 24-28). This solution, which aims at emancipating and sensitizing us, ironically depends on the fact that we are already sensitized. As it were, we must organize a previous effective awareness-raising campaign in order for the current awareness-raising campaign to be effective.

In the social dimension protest legitimizes itself through moral, ethical, or “intellectual” ideas. But morality is only a reduction of sociality, as is reality (according to the viewpoint of a certain intellectual) a reduction of factuality of the world. A specific analysis may reveal clearly how inadequate are these ideas for the protest movement; one can see that this semantics does not take into account the structural conditions of modern society. Morality is not anymore applied in society as its organizing principle (Luhmann, 1993). In modern society morality can only play a supplementary role, but even this role not in unifed fashion. This is so because modern society has not only developed systemic codes instead of moral principles (by shifting morality in a secondary position), but it has also created autonomous functioning conditions for these functional systems (therefore, the moral norms of a system cannot be used in another system). Thus, political activity is regulated above all by the considerations of power and the distinction between government and opposition (Luhmann, 1990: 168). Before being judged morally, political action is judged by the criteria of electoral success. The morality in politics finds expression only in cases of corruption, which threaten the very existence of the state, as well as in cases of violation of confidentiality principle (Luhmann, 1994). Both these expressions of morality refer to the political system and its requirements for smooth reproduction, but not to the society at large. Similarly, in science the morality relates only to plagiarism, but is not a criterion for determining the scientific truth of statements, for science has its own theories and methods that provide for it. To give another example, in sport the morality is expressed through the slogan “fair play”, but this does not affect the result of the game.

Protests that use ethical ideas are faced with other problems. By understanding ethics as a reflection on morality, or as an academic theory that deals with justification of moral judgments, two problems arise immediately. First, ethics is a theory developed in one of society’s systems, the science system; and, in the context of functional differentiation of modern society no system can determine the development of others. Thus, ethical ideas can only “irritate” the functional systems of society, and even that only under specific conditions, when systemic sensitivity (always in accordance with the specific logic of the system in question) is high. Regarding the political system in a democracy, this means that only when public opinion is focused especially on the moral figure of the politician and judges political decision-making on the basis of moral values, only then may politics be irritated by the perception of risk of losing votes and, consequently, react. But also in this case, in the conditions when the distance between the politician and the electorate is considerable (since generally it is only the mass media that raises some communication bridges in-between), the danger of hiding information and deforming the original intentions is always present. Secondly, ethical ideas are too much abstract to be applied directly in concrete decision-making situations. In fact, what has been called “ethics” nowadays is merely a utopia, in the original meaning given to it by Thomas More, i.e. as a paradox of “topos”, which is nowhere to be found and does not exist at all (Luhmann, 1993). Thus, although in principle all can agree we ethical ideas, their application brings about divergences, technical impossibilities, interest groups for and against, as well as territorial, cultural and functional conflicts (Kjaer, 2009).

Ideas of the intellectuals suffer from the fact that modern society has no room for the intellectual. Even in the “postmodern” society of Lyotard seems not to have room for them (Lyotard, 1993: 3-7). To participate in society one must have a role (profession), which the society values. The individual qualities are a good premise, but are not enough. They must be translated and adapted to performing a role. If one is intelligent, then one may use this ability in order to become lawyer, economist, politician or teacher. But intellectual is not in the list of professions of modern society. If one, nevertheless, is presented as an intellectual, this only raises doubts about the social identity of that person. Gusses of the kind “How does this person get income? Where does he work? To whom does she serve?” are raised quite naturally, because of the impossibility to act in society, expect from the position of a role. Therefore, modern society a priori delegitimizes the intellectual and the so-called intellectual ideas.

Protest aims to artificially eliminate social diversity by seeking unity and consensus for its cause. This strategy produces two results: alienation, when achieving consensus, and apathy, when consensus fails. Alienation is brought about by the packing of diversity inside a luminous pack of unity, where diversity cannot stay for long without exploding the pack. The protesters begin to understand that personal aims and interests are not represented properly by the common cause; they begin to understand that the movement has been subjected to serve the personal interests of some
people and that all others are being used by them. Thus, the previous and horizontal unity of the protest movement gives way to hierarchical organization, where shares of power and rights are different for different members. In a sense, the new form of movement has very much in common with the organization of institutions it protests against. On the other hand, the apathy that follows the failure to achieve consensus and unity can be interpreted as a sign of resignation before social complexity and diversity, and is usually compensated through the development of a semantics of public ignorance. The Sisyphean attempts of protesters reach a culminating point with the exclamation, similar to Jesus at the moment of crossing: “Father, forgive them; for they know not what they do!”

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Smoke in Young University Albanians

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University "Ismail Qemali" Vlora
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Abstract

After an Italian experience of college internship at "Gea" Health Project non-profit organization in the field of Health Psychology, more specifically in the prevention and treatment of Cigarette Smoking and Pathogenic Addiction, finalized with a thesis entitled: "Cigarette smoking among addiction and treatment "the interest of study focuses on smoking in the Albanian context, little explored and known by the public health workers in their promotion intervention-prevention and care. The objective of this study is to build a picture of the smoking problem in Albanian society, the identification of interpretations of the mechanisms of the phenomenon of smoking in young people, bring theoretical insights, study, research, treatment used for years in Italy about smoking now in the Albanian context latest. It appears that the law against smoking in public places was enacted in Albania in 2007, two years after the Law named "Sirchia" in Italy in 2005. A big step for Albania, but what was the consequences of this law? In fact in Albania continues to smoke a little ‘everywhere, in restaurants, pubs, bars, even in the corridors of the university or the waiting room in hospitals. This article highlights smoking in young students’ college, the target group most vulnerable to "fight" against addiction, customers-patients who did not traceable by health care workers, those most indifferent and passive in risk perception and smoking related diseases.

1. Introduzione

Il Fumo è un carcinogena di classe “A”, al pari dell’Amianto. Quest’ultimo è vietato in modo rigoroso; il primo è un prodotto di libero consumo. Perché?
Tutti sanno che il fumo provoca seri danni alla salute. Viene pure scritto sul pacchetto. Perché si continua a fumare? Organizzazione Mondiale della Sanità (OMS) considera “il fumo di tabacco la prima causa di morte e malattia evitabili al mondo”. Cos’è il fumo di tabacco?
- Vizio,
- Piacer
e
- Abitudine
- Stile di vita
- Fattore di rischio

DSM IV e IC – 10: “Il fumo è una patologia da dipendenza”. In quest’articolo si evidenzia il fumo nei giovani studenti universitari, il gruppo target più vulnerabile alla “lotta” contro le dipendenze, i clienti-pazienti poco rintracciabili dagli operatori sanitari, i soggetti più indifferenti e passivi nella percezione del rischio fumo e malattie correlate. Il lavoro parte da un’osservazione diretta di studenti fumatori in ambienti interni all’università. In realtà in Albania si continua a fumare un po’ ovunque, nei ristoranti, al pub, nei bar, perfino nei corridoi delle università o sala d’attesa in ospedali. L’obiettivo di questo studio è quello di costruire un quadro del problema fumo nella società albanese, l’identificazione di chiavi di lettura, dei meccanismi del fenomeno tabagismo nei giovani, riportare spunti teorici, di studio, ricerca, terapia applicata da anni in Italia verso il tabagismo ora anche nel contesto albanese più recente.

2. Materiali e metodi

Il materiale utilizzato per la realizzazione di questo disegno di studio è il Programma Antifumo GFT dell’Università di Roma “La Sapienza” Dipartimento di Fisiologia e Farmacologia e SITAB (Società Italiana di Tabaccologia) che si applica nei Gruppi Terapeutici Fumatori presso i Centri per il Trattamento del Tabagismo nei Asl ed ospedali italiani. Questo programma antifumo conteneva delle schede con i suddetti metodi:

- Questionario semistrutturato
- Nicotine Addiction Test (di Fagerstrom)
- Beck Inventory Scale
- Test – SDS (Severity Dependance Score)
- Test – VAS (Visual Addiction Scale)

Il campione dello studio è composto di 49 studenti universitari fuori sede, residenti a Valona nella casa dello studente della città universitaria. È stato scelto un piccolo campione, ma rappresentativo del intera popolazione di giovani studenti albanesi composto da 27 studenti maschi e 22 femmine. Si deve tenere conto che a differenza di come il programma antifumo si applica nei centri per il trattamento del tabagismo dove sono i fumatori che contattano tramite appuntamento e si rivolgono al primo colloquio al operatore, nello studio con i studenti universitari era la psicologa e l’infermiera della casa dello studente a distribuire il materiale. Ci sono stati degli studenti che hanno rifiutato di compilare il questionario e i vari test. Questo spiega la scelta di un campione piccolo. Inoltre, il materiale somministrato conteneva vari dati da quelli demografici, questionario semistrutturato, e i vari test, tutto in 8 pagine, quindi molti variabili da misurare.

3. Risultati

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>27 Studenti maschi</th>
<th>età 19-31 anni</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stato civile:</td>
<td>23 celibe, 1 convivente, 2 sposati, 1 divorziato.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regione:</td>
<td>13 Sud, 8 Nord, 4 Centro</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Età d'inizio a fumare</th>
<th>14-16 anni</th>
<th>29.6%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17-19 anni</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marca di sigaretta consumata</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carelia Slims 0.6 mg nicotina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marlboro 0.8 mg nicotina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Winston 0.7 mg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philip Morris 0.4 mg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tabacco senza filo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fumatori nella famiglia d'origine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Si</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tentativi di smettere a fumare</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nessuno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Più di 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodo meno di 6 mesi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodo di 6 mesi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Da soli</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fumatori conviventi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Si (Partner)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantità di sigarette fumate al giorno</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5-10 sigarette</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-20 sigarette</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30 sigarette</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-40 sigarette</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nicotine Addiction Test (di Fagerstrom)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dipendenza molto basso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dipendenza basso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dipendenza medio-alto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dipendenza alto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dipendenza molto alto</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test - SDS (Severity Dependence Score)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dipendenza lieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dipendenza moderata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dipendenza severa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fonti:

1. Heatherton et al: The Fagerstrom test for nicotine dependence: a revision of the Fagerstrom Tolerance...


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>22 Studentesse Femmine</th>
<th>età 19-30 anni</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staro civile:</td>
<td>16 ubili, 3 sposate, 3 conviventi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regione:</td>
<td>Sud 19, Nord 1, Centro 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Età d'inizio a fumare</th>
<th>Marca di sigaretta fumata</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17-19 anni</td>
<td>Carelia Slims 0.6 mg nicotina</td>
<td>72.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-22 anni</td>
<td>Philip Morris 0.4 mg nicotina</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-25 anni</td>
<td>Altro (Marl, Winsto) 0.4 mg nicotina</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantità giornaliera di sigarette fumate</th>
<th>Fumatori nella famiglia d'origine</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2-4 sigarette</td>
<td>Sì</td>
<td>59.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6 sigarette</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 sigarette</td>
<td>Sì (il Partner)</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 sigarette</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>77.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tentativi a smettere di fumare</th>
<th>Nicotine Addiction Test (di Fagerstrom)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nessuno</td>
<td>Dipendenza molto bassa (0-2) punti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Più di 1</td>
<td>Dipendenza bassa (2-4) punti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assenza di 6 mesi</td>
<td>Dipendenza medio-alto (5-8) punti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assenza meno di 6 mesi</td>
<td>Dipendenza alta (7-8) punti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causa gravitazionalità</td>
<td>Test-SDS (Severity Dependence Score)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dasoli</td>
<td>Dipendenza lieve (0-5) punti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dipendenza moderata (5-10) punti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dipendenza seria (10-15) punti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beck Inventory Scale</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ups and downs considered normal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1-10) score</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid mood disturbance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11-16) score</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Borderline clinical depression (17-20)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>score</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate depression (21-30) score</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severe depression (31-40) score</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extreme depression (over 40) score</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* A persistent score of 17 or above indicates that you may need medical treatment.

4. Conclusioni e Discussione

Dopo aver fatto l’analisi dei dati ai rispettivi campioni maschile e femminile, si può fare un confronto dei meccanismi attitudinali del fumare, i livelli di dipendenza, la percezione del rischio alla salute. Le diversità del fumare tra studenti maschi e femmine sono:

1. L’età d’inizio del fumare la prima sigaretta è più precoce nei maschi nella fascia d’età 14-16 anni rispetto alle femmine all’età 17-19 anni.

2. La percentuale di famigliari fumatori nella famiglia d’origine è solo 1% più alto nei maschi rispetto alle femmine. Si può ipotizzare che il modello famigliare (padre e fratelli) fumatori, sono seguiti quasi a parità da entrambi i gruppi.

3. Il numero delle sigarette fumate a giorno è più alto nei maschi che arrivano fino a 30-40 sigarette al giorno il 33.3% dei studenti. Considerevole nei maschi è anche la % di nessun tentativo a smettere di fumare, ben il
51.8%.

4. I tentativi a smettere di fumare spettano al campione femminile con il 90.9% rispetto il 59.2% dei maschi. Questi tentativi d’astinenza sono stati condotti per periodi di 6 mesi dalle studentesse, rispetto i periodi minore di 6 mesi nei maschi. I dati delle ricerche scientifiche dichiarano che il periodo più critico per una ricaduta dei soggetti che cercano di smettere a fumare sono i primi 3 mesi. Per questo motivo, si fanno dei follow-up tra 3-6 mesi ed 1 anno.

5. I livelli di dipendenza alla nicotina del Test di Fagerstrom, sono medio-alto nei maschi, invece nelle femmine prevale la dipendenza molto bassa, seguito poi da una parità di punteggi dei livelli di dipendenza basso e medio alto.

6. I risultati del Beck Inventory Scale dichiarano cambiamenti d’umore considerati normali negli studenti maschi, rispetto le studentesse che si posizionano con un percentuale considerevole di 54.5% nel disturbo moderato d’umore, seguito poi dal livello di depressione clinica borderline. Da questi dati ricavati, si può pensare che i soggetti del sesso femminile non sono più vulnerabili nei disturbi d’umore fatto che, può portare ad un’incidenza maggiore nel fumare delle studentesse. Ma i dati del nicotin addiction sembrano non poter appoggiare questa ipotesi, siccome le studentesse si posizionano prevalentemente al livello di dipendenza molto basso. Questo significa che i disturbi d’umore incluso la depressione, non porta necessariamente le giovani donne al comportamento tabagismo, ma può incidere in altri abitudini e stili di vita come la nutrizione, i rapporti interpersonali, prestazione bassa alla formazione accademica.

7. Per quanto riguarda i risultati del Test SDS (Severity Dependence Score) entrambi i sessi si posizionano nella dipendenza moderata il 66.6% i maschi e il 63.6% le femmine, per seguire poi i livelli di dipendenza seria del 45.4% del campione delle studentesse. Sembra che le studentesse sono più inclini alle dipendenze rispetto i maschi, anche se quest’ultimi hanno punteggi più elevati della nicotin addiction e dichiarano di consumare anche alcolici.

8. Il 90.9% delle studentesse afferma di aver avuto disturbi di tipo respiratorio come tosse, mal di gola frequenti e mancanza di fiato negli sforzi fisici. Invece gli studenti maschi avvertono sia disturbi respiratori anche cardiovascolari come aritmia (battiti cardiaki accelerati) soprattutto nei fumatori forti, consumatori di 15-25 sigarette al giorno. Infatti i studi di fisiopatologia hanno dimostrato che uno dei effetti della nicotina che per stimolazione delle ghiandole del surrene provoca liberazione di adrenalina; ciò causa rilascio di glucosio, incremento della pressione sanguigna, della respirazione e del ritmo cardiaco. Nella terapia di gruppo condotti nei centri antifumo italiani si propone ai soggetti di misurare la frequenza cardiaca sentendo i battiti del polso della mano dopo aver fumato e nei giorni d’astinenza. I soggetti stessi avendo un contatto diretto con il proprio corpo avvertono un calo dei battiti se sono in condizioni d’astinenza dalla nicotina. Un gesto semplice nel sentire il proprio polso che può essere fatto da chiunque è uno dei esempi-esame più chiaro, reale e dimostrativo degli effetti che ha il fumare come condotta-dipendenza, e la nicotina come sostanza per il nostro organismo.

9. Dalla graduatoria delle ragioni a non fumare i motivi più scelti dagli studenti sono state: la salute, la pressione famigliare, la libertà, la prestazione fisica, l’immagine di Sé. Meno scelte sono l’aspetto economico, i motivi famigliari, la pressione sociale. Queste motivazioni scelte indicano che i giovani fumatori tengono più all’immagine del Sé, alla prestazione fisica tenendo in considerazione la giovane età e i danni percepibili alla loro bellezza fisica e gli operatori della salute devono far leva su questi aspetti nei colloqui. Una forte ragione è anche la pressione famigliare (l’autorità genitoriale) verso il fumo e come questo si rispecchi nei giovani d’oggi, rispetto ad una pressione quasi inesistente sociale (amici, gruppo dei pari) che non consigliano a smettere di fumare ma con i quali già da adolescenti ci si identifica, si fa parte, si inizia la prima sigaretta sotto la loro sollecitazione. Di conseguenza, abbiamo giovani fumatori, ma di carriera di fumatori da 5 anni, che sono poco inclini a smettere di fumare per sollecitazioni dei genitori o amici. In cima alla lista delle motivazioni a non fumare la causa più scelta è la salute, una delle motivazioni più scelte non solo dai giovani, ma anche dalle persone più mature. Chi ha esperienza nel trattamento del tabagismo prenderebbe con le pinze la motivazione salute. Tutti sapevano che il fumo fa male, uccide, ce scritto pure nel pacchetto, ma si fuma lo stesso. Questo perché fumare è una dipendenza da sostanza (la nicotina) vera e proprio e che va oltre il vizio, la coscienza, la responsabilità. Soprattutto i giovani avvertono ben poco il rischio alla salute per l’età che hanno, l’energia e la vitalità che possiedono.

10. Altro punto in comune per gli studenti sia maschi che femmine è la marca di sigaretta consumata, la Carelia Slims di 0.6 mg di nicotina, forse perché è meno costosa.

11. Un indice molto importante ricavato dal analisi dei dati e che nessun studente del campione non si è avvalso
di terapia farmacologica o nicotina sostitutiva come cerotti, inalatori, Bupropione e Vareniclina. Questi farmaci non sono commerciali in Albania.

4.1 Epidemiologia del Fumo ed Effetti di Dipendenza

Mondo – Numeri di morti
- New York 11 settembre 2001: 2.800
- Hiroshima: 5000
- Tabacco ogni anno al mondo: 5.000.000
- Italia – numeri di morti all’anno
  - Eroina: 1.100
  - Incidenti sul lavoro: 1.200
  - Alcool: 30.000
  - Tabacco: 85.000

1 fumatore su 2 morirà a causa del fumo (50%).
Il tabacco provoca più decessi invalidità di incidenti stradali, alcool, Aids, droghe, omicidi, e suicidi messi insieme (LILT-Lega Italiana per la Lotta contro i Tumori).
Il tabacco è il principale fattore di rischio per malattie respiratorie, cardiovascolari e tumorali.
Organizzazione Mondiale della Sanità (OMS) considera “il fumo di tabacco la prima causa di morte e malattia evitabili al mondo”.

Cos’è il fumo di tabacco?
- Vizio,
- Piacere
- Abitudine
- Stile di vita
- Fattore di rischio

DSM IV e IC – 10: “Il fumo è una patologia da dipendenza”.

4.2 Prodotti di combustione del Tabacco

Fra le oltre 4.000 sostanze diverse presenti nel fumo di sigaretta, 4 gruppi sono particolarmente dannosi:
1. Nicotina
2. Monossido di Carbonio (CO)
3. Ossidanti e Radicali Liberi
4. Sostanze Cancerogene

4.3 Principali Patologie Fumo-Correlate

Catrame------Agenti Ossidanti------CO-------------------------------Nicotina
Tumori-------BPCOe neoplasie------Patologie Cardiorespiratorie------Dipendenza ed effetti sistemici

4.4 La dipendenza

- Un comportamento compulsivo anche quando esistano conseguenze negative.
- Tale comportamento è mantenuto dalle proprietà (gratificanti o piacevoli) di rinforzo positivo del farmaco.
- Perdita di controllo nel limitare l’assunzione della sostanza.

Craving: Desiderio smodato e incontrollabile verso uno stimolo di rinforzo (desiderio compulsivo della sigaretta).
La nicotina come droga (N.I.D.A – National Institute of Drug Abuse) USA 2000 Dipendenza

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substanzia</th>
<th>Valore</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nicotina</td>
<td>1 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eroina</td>
<td>2 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocaina</td>
<td>3 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcol</td>
<td>4 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caffeina</td>
<td>5 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marijuana</td>
<td>6 A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5 Cos'è la nicotina?

- È una delle 4.000 sostanze presenti nel tabacco
- Inalata attraverso il fumo si distribuisce rapidamente in tutto l’organismo e nel Sistema Nervoso Centrale (SNC).
- È metabolizzato principalmente dal fegato in cotinina ad opera soprattutto del citocromo P450.
- Ha un'emivita di circa 2 ore (la cotinina di circa 20 ore).

4.6 Effetti della nicotina

- Ha effetti sul Sistema Nervoso Centrale e Sistema Nervoso Autonomo attraverso i recettori colinergici nicotinici.
- Per stimolazione delle ghiandole del surrene provoca liberazione di adrenalina; ciò causa rilascio di glucosio, incremento della pressione sanguigna, della respirazione e del ritmo cardiaco.
- Provoca diminuzione del rilascio d’insulina da parte del pancreas; ciò determina una moderata iperglicemia presente in molti fumatori.
- Provoca il rilascio di dopamina.

Azione della Nicotina sui recettori nervosi acetilcolinergici (Fagerstrom)

La nicotina tiene il recettore depolarizzato più a lungo dell’acetilcolina, quindi ha una duplice azione: 1) lo stimola 2) poi lo blocca. Questa seconda azione è più forte. Il cervello sceglie di adattarsi e di superare l’effetto bloccante aumentando il numero dei recettori.

Nel cervello dei fumatori i recettori nicotinici sono da 100 a 300 volte più numerosi rispetto ai non fumatori.

4.7 La tolleranza

L’uso prostratto della sigaretta, al pari delle altre sostanze d’abuso, porta nel tempo ad una ridotta efficacia nell’indurre i suoi effetti, ossia determina il fenomeno della tolleranza.

L’uso cronico di nicotina induce desensibilizzazione ed inattivazione dei recettori nAch; questi recettori colinergici nicotinici si risensibilizzano velocemente (es.; dopo l’astinenza notturna).

“la prima sigaretta notturna è la migliore” a detta dei fumatori.

4.8 Astinenza da nicotina comprende 4 o più dei seguenti sintomi:

- umore disforno
- insonnia
- irritabilità, impazienza, aggressività
- aumento del ansia
- difficoltà di concentrazione
- irrequietezza
- rallentamento del battito cardiaco
- aumento del appetito e del peso.

4.9 Monossido di Carbonio (CO)

a) È prodotto durante la combustione della sigaretta.
b) Si lega ai globuli rossi del sangue con un’affinità molto più forte di quella del ossigeno, formando la carbossiemoglobina, così i globuli rossi non possono distribuire più ossigeno al corpo.
4.10 Il Pico Test riesce a misurare:

- la quantità di (CO) misurata in ppm, presente nei polmoni,
- la percentuale presente nel sangue sottoforma di carbossiemoglobina,
- tali quantità vengono utilizzate per classificare il grado di intossicazione.

4.11 Classificazione del grado d’intossicazione

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ppm</th>
<th>% Carbossiemoglobina</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>0-13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>1.4-2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>2.4-3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-39</td>
<td>4.6-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-100</td>
<td>7.13-14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.12 Effetti del fumo sul cavo orale

La bocca di un fumatore:
1. ha un alito pessimo
2. ha il senso del gusto alterato
3. ha gengiviti e malattie parodontali che portano alla caduta dei denti
4. è fortemente a rischio di carcinoma orale (pavimento della bocca, lingua, orofaringe, labbra).

4.13 Sport: Sai che i non fumatori hanno migliori risultati?

In 12 minuti un ragazzo non fumatore (19 anni) corre una distanza di 2613 metri.
Fumatore leggero – (1-10 sigarette/day): - 95 m
Fumatore medio – (10-20 sigarette/day): -242 m
Forte fumatore – (più di 20 sigarette/day): -360 m
Chi non fuma, migliora le prestazioni fisiche.
P0 210 – Fumando 15-20 sigarette al giorno per 1 anno, si riceve una dose di radiazioni e equivalenti a circa 300 radiografie al torace.

OMS relazione sul tabacco Epidemia globale 2011. Profilo paese Albania
Nota: Quando non erano disponibili dati, "..." mostra nella tabella. Dove non sono stati richiesti dati, "-" mostra nella tabella.
Convenzione quadro dell’OMS sul controllo del tabacco (FCTC) Stato Data della firma 29 giugno 2004
Data di ratifica (o equivalente legale) 26 Apr 2006
Contesto socioeconomico Popolazione (migliaia) 3 169
Reddito medio gruppo

4.14 Prevalenza del consumo di tabacco

Dati di uso del tabacco come previsto dal paese da l’ultimo risultato dell’indagine a disposizione dell’OMS al 1 Nov 2010

Eventuali sigarette tabacco fumato
Prevalenza adulti, il fumo (%) * Corrente giornaliero corrente giornaliera
Maschio 60.1. . . . . . .
Femminile 18.3. . . . . . .
Totale 40.2. . . . . . .
Prevalenza adulti, l’uso del tabacco non da fumo (%) * . . .
Maschio . .
Femmina. . .
Totale. . .
* Età 15+, la valutazione è la valutazione di prevalenza di fumatori tra la popolazione adulta [15 anni] e sottogruppi di popolazione in Albania e di altri indicatori relativi al consumo di tabacco, 2000
* *... Dati non riportati / non disponibile.
OMS standardizzato per età prevalenza stimata del fumo tra quelli di età 15 anni o più: Anno 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prevenza adulti, il fumo (%)</th>
<th>Le sigarette</th>
<th>Tabacco fumato</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uomo</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Femmina</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totale</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.15 Misure e programmi come al 31 dicembre 2010 contro il tabagismo Ambienti senza fumo 2010

4.15.1 Luoghi pubblici con legislazione antifumo:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strutture sanitarie</th>
<th>Sì</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strutture scolastiche, tranne università</td>
<td>Sì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Università</td>
<td>Sì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strutture di governo</td>
<td>Sì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uffici interno</td>
<td>Sì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ristoranti</td>
<td>Sì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pub e bar</td>
<td>Sì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I trasporti pubblici</td>
<td>Sì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutti gli altri luoghi pubblici</td>
<td>Sì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punteggio di compliance</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

La normativa nazionale impone multe per fumare No
Sanzioni comminate sulla costituzione -
Multe al fumatore -
Fondi dedicati per l'esecuzione No
Reclami dei cittadini e indagini -
§ Un punteggio di 0-10, dove 0 è bassa compliance.
Leggi subnazionali in ambienti senza fumo
Giuisdizioni subnazionali non hanno il potere di adottare e attuare leggi antifumo.

4.16 Trattamento della dipendenza da tabacco 2010

Esiste un numero verde telefonico smettere linea / linea d’ aiuto con una persona dal vivo a disposizione discutere la cessazione con chi amanti nel tuo paese? No
Terapia sostitutiva della nicotina (ad esempio, cerotti, gomme, losanga, spray o inalatori) È questo il prodotto legalmente venduto nel paese? . . .
Dove e come può questo prodotto legalmente essere acquistato nel vostro paese? . . .
Fa l'assicurazione sanitaria nazionale / federale o il servizio sanitario nazionale copre il costo di questo prodotto? . . .
È un qualsiasi NRT sulla lista farmaci essenziali del paese? No
Bupropione (ad esempio, Zyban, Wellbutrin) È questo il prodotto legalmente venduto nel vostro paese? No
Dove e come può questo prodotto legalmente acquistati nel vostro paese? -
Fa l'assicurazione sanitaria nazionale / federale o il servizio sanitario nazionale copre il costo di questo prodotto? -
La vareniclina è il prodotto legalmente venduto nel vostro paese? No
Dove e come può questo prodotto legalmente acquistati nel vostro paese? -
Fa l'assicurazione sanitaria nazionale / federale o il servizio sanitario nazionale copre il costo di questo prodotto? -
Per smettere di fumare esiste sostegno disponibili nei seguenti luoghi nel vostro paese? Cliniche o altre strutture Assistenza primaria Ospedali -
Ufficio di un professionista della salute -
Nella comunità -
Altro Sì, a volte
L'assicurazione sanitaria nazionale / federale o il servizio sanitario nazionale coprono il costo di questo supporto?
Cliniche o altre strutture di assistenza primaria
Ospedali
Ufficio di un professionista della salute
Nella comunità
Altro

4.17 Avvertenze per la salute sulle confezioni di prodotti del tabacco

Fa la legge mandato che le avvertenze sanitarie appaiano sui pacchetti di tabacchi? No

La legge prescrive alle visualizzazione delle informazioni qualitative sulle componenti rilevanti e le emissioni dei prodotti del tabacco sui pacchetti di sigarette? No

Le avvertenze sanitarie sui pacchetti descrivono gli effetti nocivi del consumo di tabacco sulla salute? No

La legge vieta la visualizzazione di informazioni quantitative sui rendimenti delle emissioni (ad esempio, catrame, nicotina e monossido di carbonio) sui pacchetti di sigarette, anche se utilizzato come parte di un marchio o un marchio? No

La legge richiede che le avvertenze sanitarie sui pacchetti non sono oscurate in qualsiasi modo, anche con marcature richiesti quali marche da bollo? No

La legge impedisce la visualizzazione delle date di scadenza sulle confezioni di sigarette? No

La legge richiede che le avvertenze sanitarie sui pacchetti non siano oscurate in qualsiasi modo, anche con marcature richieste quali marche da bollo? No

La legge impedisce la visualizzazione delle date di scadenza sulle confezioni di sigarette? No

La legge richiede che le avvertenze sanitarie sui pacchetti non siano oscurate in qualsiasi modo, anche con marcature richiesti quali marche da bollo? No

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La legge impedisce la visualizzazione delle date di scadenza sulle confezioni di sigarette? No

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La legge impedisce la visualizzazione delle date di scadenza sulle confezioni di sigarette? No

La legge richiede che le avvertenze sanitarie sui pacchetti non siano oscurate in qualsiasi modo, anche con marcature richiesti quali marche da bollo? No

La legge impedisce la visualizzazione delle date di scadenza sulle confezioni di sigarette? No

4.18 Divieto di pubblicità del tabacco, promozione e sponsorizzazione 2010

4.18.1 Divieti diretti

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divieto</th>
<th>Si</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TV e radio nazionali</td>
<td>Si</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International TV e radio</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riviste locali e giornali</td>
<td>Si</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riviste e giornali non Cartelloni e pubblicità esterna</td>
<td>Si</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punto di vendita</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altri divieti diretti</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punteggio di conformità di divieti diretti</td>
<td>§ 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.18.2 Divieti indiretti

- Distribuzione gratuita: No
- Sconti promozionali: Sì
- Beni e servizi individuati con marchi di tabacco: Si non-tabacco
- Marchio di prodotti diversi dal tabacco usato per il prodotto del tabacco: Sì
- Aspetto di marche di tabacco in TV e/o pellicole (product placement): Sì
- Aspetto di prodotti del tabacco in televisione e/o film: Sì
- Sponsorizzati eventi: Sì
- Altri divieti indiretti: No

Punteggio di conformità dei divieti indiretti: § 6

Sono leggi o regolamenti non subnazionali che vietano alcuni o tutti i tipi di pubblicità del tabacco, promozione e sponsorizzazione di cui alle domande di cui sopra? No

§ Un punteggio di 0-10, dove 0 è bassa compliance.

### References

American Psychiatric Association Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders IV (DSM-IV ed 1994).
The Loan Market in Lithuania: Evaluation of Developments in 2002-2012 Years

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Author: E-mail: larisa.belinskaja@ef.vu.lt

Abstract

Historically and for a long, banks activity is more connected with providing loans than with borrowings for their own purposes (T. Mayer, J.S. Duesenberry, R.Z. Aliber, 1990). The object of the article is Lithuanian loans market. The task of the article is to present analysis and evaluation of loan market developments during 2002-2012 years. Commercial banking activity in Lithuania has its old tradition. State bank „Bank Polski i Litewski” was found in 1792. This bank had it’s affiliates in Vilnius, Gardinas and Minsk (now – Belarus). In 1795 when Lithuania and Poland third time was divided, and Lithuania lost statehood and independent, as well as a possibility to create and develop own finance and credit system (O. Buckiūnienė, 2011). Lithuanian loans’ market is analyzed using related scientific-theoretical literature about peculiarities of loans market, also statistical data and official facts from the reports of Bank of Lithuania and State Statistical Department in ten years’ (2002-2012). The main factors influenced on loan market developments are GDP per capita, inflation, unemployment, middle average salary, interest rate and volume of deposits in a certain periods etc. Various indicators of loans market development are calculated and presented in article - dynamics according to various factors (dynamics of loans and GDP, dynamics of interests, duration, currency, purpose of loans, mortgage loans proportion), as well as sudden changes in indicators, quality and risk of loans portfolio is evaluated, reasons of market boom and factors influencing on its development are clarified, as well as problems and tendencies are evaluated. There have been employed following methods: Lithuanian and foreign theoretical scientific literature analysis; filling of, sorting out and calculation of statistical data and evaluation of statistical facts; statistical facts comparative and retrospective analysis. After making analysis of loans market, there have been made following conclusions: in 2002 – 2005 loans market was growing because of economical fast growing and overestimated optimism for future welfare, there was loans’ boom in the state during 2002 – 2008 years, although because of financial crisis from 2009, loans’ market recession happened; 2011-2012 is a period of loans’ market stability; from 2014, a growth of loans’ market is forecasted, however it is very important, that it would be temperate after all.

Keywords: loan, credit risk, banks, financial indicators.

1. Introduction

The story of the Baltic State’s economic development since regaining independence in 1990 seems almost too self-evident to tell. The small open economies were flushed with foreign capital, became overleveraged, and are now paying the price. After exhibiting double-digit growth rates during the past decade, the ‘Baltic tigers’ have also become record-setters in the negative direction, being the first countries to enter a deep economic crisis in 2009.

In fast growing economies a creation and successful development of businesses is the most important challenge for internationalized world economy. Only few entrepreneurs can provide these tasks at their own account, many others have to use credit resources as for business creation as for business development and supporting its financial stability. Every business is influenced by many risks, but the most important from them is credit risk. For this reasons banking sector’s influence on economic stability and growth is constantly increasing. Credit risk management problems are under most urgent discussions worldwide and in small economies like Lithuanian and not only because of recent financial crisis (E. I. Altman et al., 1998 2002, 2003); J. Bessis (2002); Bonner E. A. (2008); A. Brown (2004); J. Colquitt (2007); D. Duffie et al. (2003); L. Dzidzevičiūtė (2010); F. Jasevičienė et al. (2000); Kancerevyčius (2004); T. Mayer et al. (1990); Reinhart, C.M., Rogoff, K.S. (2008), Rouz P. S. (1993); A. M. Santomero (1997); V. Valvonis (2006); Vaškelaitis (2003); N. Wagner (2008) etc.

Even commercial banking activity in Lithuania has its comparatively old tradition (though first commercial credit operations started to develop in Renaissance Italy, the first commercial banks was established in European countries in XVII century, and the first commercial bank in Lithuania started to operate in 1792), only after restoration of Independence in Lithuania in 1990 banking sector began to develop under the finance market common practice and rules. Commercial banks in Lithuania rely upon traditional banking activity, i.e. mostly lending credit resources in internal
market. From this point of view banking sector in Lithuania during the latest years of developments experienced almost all possible stages comparing to world finance market’s history and in a very short period indeed, only in 20 years formatted its legal environment, licenced first commercial banks, experienced internal banking crisis in 1995 accompanied by 14 banks bankrupts, when that period loan’s interest rate exceeded 150%, after observed fast growing and calculated huge profits in correspondence with fast growing Lithuanian economy till 2007 and suffered from consequences of world financial crisis from 2008 till now. In recent period, 2 of the biggest Lithuanian commercial bank’s – Snoras and Ūkio bankas – activity have been suspended in 2012-2013 with subsequent revocation of its licence. For all these reasons is very important to analyze situation at credit market taking into account the latest 10 years period as especially in this period credit market in Lithuania was developing under the rules, accountancy principles and supervision system corresponding to the most financial markets in the world. Also such analysis reveals so called bank’s “greed for profit” which promote them to take wrong decisions in lending money and non proper credit risk management policy in different stages of economic development.

2. Loans’ importance for functioning of finance market

Loan and credit are quite closed notions. Shortly, in a narrow sence credit means related obligations and loan means transaction contract. Loans are a source for credit risk in such frames and taking into account that in research period loans have been and still are a dominated part of Lithuanian bank’s assets - almost 70% in average during 2002-2012 according Lithuanian Bank (LB) data – so credit risk is the most important and dangerous risk for Lithuanian banking sector.

Different authors stress different functions of loans in economy – distributing, replacement, control, current assets turnover acceleration, acceleration of the process of concentration of capital, turnover of goods acceleration functions etc. (Alekevičienė, 2005; Bessis, 2002; Bikas, 2013; Bonner, 2008; Caouette et al., 1998; Juozaitienė, 2000; Mituzienė 2005; Nešitoj 2007; Vaškelaitis, 2003; Valvonis, 2004 and oth.), but mostly of them insist upon 2 main functions of loans – distributing and control.

Banks giving loans for private and commercial clients taking credit risk which can be divided into separate elements – loan’s failure to return, non-payable interest rate, breaking of terms for loan’s and/or interest rate paying. Due to these separate elements credit risk assessment and management also has different stages and features in every stage – beginning from evaluation of borrower’s possibilities to take loan, then to return loan, and later to pay interest rate and/or loan in time according the contract. Also there are differences in credit risk between different categories of loans: corporate, mortgage, consumer and export loans.

In literature there are relatively broadly described consequences of rapid liberalization of financial markets, when increased supply determines the growth of prices of separate assets, what hardly can be explained by fundamental factors (Kindleberger et al, 2005). As an example of it could be capital markets’ value enlargement that could be explained by optimistic expectations (not real value). Another example - phenomenon of real estate market as an object for safe investment, it should be noted that duration the housing price declines is quite long-lived, averaging roughly six years (Reinhart and Rogoff, 2008; Belinskaja, Rutkauskas, 2007). Real estate market price bubbles is possible to keep as one from the models of the financial pyramids as a particular case (Girdzijauskas, 2005, 2006). Banks should be more demanding in real estate loan’s regulations as many countries loan markets have a concentration in such type of loans. So, banker’s attitude to borrowing in this sector of loans could cause a cyclical behaviour and real estate market price bubbles (Panagopoulos, Vlamis, 2009).

Therefore, analyzing and evaluating loan market as the most important part of finance market which in turn guaranty functioning and stability of all economy, especially in new growing economies as Lithuania belongs, remains urgently relevant.

3. Analysis and evaluation of Loan market in Lithuania in 2002-2012 years

Overview and analysis of loan market in Lithuania is evaluating in 2002-2012 years. To evaluate qualitative and quantitative developments of loan’s market in Lithuania the main related indicators are observed as dynamics of loans according a various criteria (category of clients, currency’s interest rates, type of economic activity), ratio of special technical provisions and loan portfolio, ratio of special technical provisions and customer loan portfolio, ratio of special technical provisions and mortgage loan portfolio, ratio of special technical provisions and assets, dynamics of GDP and Loan's Portfolio etc. The main sources of statistical data are official information of Bank of Lithuania and State Statistical Department. All Pictures presented below are composed by author using these official data and information.
Dynamics of total Loans shows not only changes in tendencies of its growth, but also helps to look up bank’s credit activity at financial market (Figure 1). Some authors connect fast growing loan portfolio with fast coming and increasing inflation (Kancerevyčius, 2004).

The fastest growth noticed in 2005-2009, even in one year from 2005 to 2006 the growth was 38,48%. This year was one when banks delivered the highest quantity of mortgage loans in so-called new Lithuanian bank’s history. Later, loan portfolio was constantly decreasing and the biggest decline happened in 2009-2010 – up to 16,06%.

From 2009 till 2012 total loan are decreasing because of all financial crisis consequences, but also because banks operating in Lithuania reduces lending as a response to crisis influence and altogether changed borrowing rules into more stringent and limited for customers.

Figure 1. Dynamics of total loans in Lithuania, mln LTL.

There is opinion that banks in favorable economic times have to keep lending in optimal or so-called clever frames and in recession or bad periods have to increase it (Cooper, 2008). But, in practice, and it obviously have happened in Lithuania, banks are delivering loans easily in “good” economic periods and decreasing lending by worsening possibilities to get loans for customers in downtown of economy. As mostly have happened globally and especially in Eastern Europe countries, Central Banks didn’t impose an effective qualitative and quantitative tools of money policy regulating loan market properly and in time as in prosperity periods as in recession.

A total loan portfolio can be divided into separate kinds of loans according terms that give us understanding of market priorities and also quality and credit risk of loan market (Figure 2).

Picture 2. Dynamics of loan portfolio according terms, %

Analyzing dynamics of short-term loans in total loan portfolio during 10 years the highest level was observed in 2002 when short-term loans consisted at 27,83% from total loan's portfolio, after constant decreasing till 2007 year fallen down to 15,24%. This decrease is connected with constant increasing of long-term loans during observed period – at the beginning of period observed the lowest part of long-term loans in total loan portfolio - 16,62% while the highest level of long-term loans have been in 2009 - 59,61% and then fairly decreased till 55,40% in 2012, but still overdominated comparatively with short-term and middle-term loans. Part of middle-term loans during period also changed experienced almost double decline – from 55,55% in 2002 to less than 30% at the end of period with the lowest level in 2009.

Dealing with type of currency completely controversial tendencies are notable – part of Litas-denominated loans
(LTL, Lithuanian currency, fixed rate to euro, 1 euro=3.45 LTL) dramatically decreased from 80.43% in 2002 to 30.19% in 2012, and Euro-denominated loans increased even in one year from 16.39% in 2002 to 29.39% in 2003 and then with some drop happened in 2006-2007 were constantly growing (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Dynamics of loan portfolio-according currencies, %

The reason of decline in Euro-denominated loans in 2007 was increased interest rate in Euro, which jumped in average to 5.52% in 2007, i.e. 1.27 percentage points comparatively with 2006 (connected with 5 risings of base rate in 2006), also rising inflation and broken expectations about entering of Lithuania into Euro-zone in nearest year. Common tendency of growing Euro-denominated loans could be explained by lower interest rate comparatively with Litas-denominated loans with quite big difference between them - and more favorable conditions of Euro-denominated loans contracts for customers. Also it could be explained by domination of foreign banks (mostly Scandinavian) capital in Lithuanian banking sector and loan market. In 2012 Euro-denominated loans consisted 69.81% of total loan portfolio. Loans in other-denominated currencies were not so important for Lithuanian loan market excluding the beginning of analyzed period – in 2003-2004 years these part of loan portfolio reached 21.34% and later not exceed 4% of total loan market.

Composition of loans according customers' lines is the next one important indicator evaluating as loan market structure and its credit risk assessment as to total economic development of country (Belinskaja, Rutkauskas, 2007; Kancerevyčius, 2004). Analyzing a dynamics of distribution of loans according customers lines is obvious that the most important part of loan portfolio during all analyzed period belongs to corporate loans (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Distribution of Loans in customer’s lines in total loan portfolio, %

The highest indicator’s ratio of corporate loans was in 2003 and consisted 66.60%. Then, during all period there are controversial tendencies – declining of corporate loans and increasing of private loans in total loan portfolio. If in 2002 the relative share of private loans consisted only 5.78% of total loan portfolio, and till 2012 – this indicator constantly raised up to 43.51% and in this way almost converged to corporate loan share that was 46.50% in 2012. Corporate loan share decreased during analyzed period as private sector got better expectations with fast growing economy accompanying with rising welfare and consumption. Other loans’ including loans’ to financial institutions shares didn’t changed significantly during period and in overall ranges at less than 10% of total loan portfolio, but noticeably that the highest level of loans to financial institutions was in 2006 – 13.97% (connected with so-called prosperity period in Lithuanian economy developments) and the lowest in 2010 – 3.16% (connected with consequences of financial crisis).
On of the most important indicator for evaluating loan market quality and credit risk assessment is share of mortgage loans in dynamics of private loan portfolio and in total loan portfolio (Figure 5).

**Figure 5.** Distribution of Mortgage Loans in Total Loans Portfolio, mln LTL

The greatest level of all three indicators observed in 2009, year when was reached the highest level of economic development in the country. Later, all types of loans were declining, but not in the same speed. Mortgage loans raised the most in 2004 – from 727 mln LTL up to 1909 mln LTL comparatively to previous year and in 2006 from 3438,6 mln LTL up to 6413,5 mln LTL. Mortgage loans decreased the most in 2011 – only up to 2,49% comparing with 2010 year. Here is possible to see, that mortgage loans beginning from 2009 stabilized as to its volume and even comparatively with private loans that is still decreasing, and with total loans those showed significant decrease from 2009, so is possible to presume that the most decline of total loan portfolio after crisis happened due to the reduction of corporate loans volume. Such composition and its changes in loan market during analyzed period testify from one side about quite good credit risk in private sector and from other side about borrowings potential in this sector of loans that is still remains quite big in Lithuania.

One connected indicator that shows relations between demand and dynamics of loan in longer periods is Average interest rate in dominated currencies in loan market (Figure 6.).

**Figure 6.** Average interest rate, EUR, LTL, %

In the beginning of period average interest rate was quite high in both currencies and loan portfolio was quite small. Later, from 2002 interest rates were decreasing as loan portfolio was increasing till 2006 year. Then, interest rates were increasing together with loan portfolio in the same tendency. In 2008 Euro average interest rate reached its highest point – 6,09%, and at the same time was observing a growing demand for loans that reached its highest point in 2009 and also in this year fixed the biggest level of LTL interest rate – 8,85%. 2009 was the starting point for banks to change their lending policy as a reaction to financial crisis and dramatically worsening overall economical situation in the country. After, both average interest rates were declining and at the end of period consisted 3,49% in Euro and 4,83 in LTL. Of course, also such factors were influenced on interest rates changes as policy of Central Bank of Lithuania in credit and money market, Government economical policy and decisions, inflation, demand, Balance of Payment, currency risks, EU financial policy etc. (Daigler, 1993; Douch, 1998).

Connection between loan and GDP is not less important. The ratio of these indicators help to evaluate correlation and both side influence between overall growth of Economy and bank’s credit activity on the market (Figure 7).
During all analyzed period and until 2011 both figures were in the same movements. It is explained by fast growing Lithuanian economy, integration into EU space, favorable possibilities for investments, good environment for speculations on real estate market, low and reducing level of unemployment, rising middle average salary, improving legal environment, positive expectations in private sector and for this reason fast growing consumption, but also by underestimated credit risk by banks and their so-called “greed for profit”. The latest two years – 2011-2012 – contrary tendencies could be explained from one side with positive and strong turn of growth for Lithuanian economy and from other side still cautious behavior of banks on the credit market taking into account all lessons learned from financial crisis.

Credit risk is influenced very much on loan portfolio quality and thereby on financial stability of banking sector and all economy as well. Related indicator is common ratio or better separate ratios of Special loans provisions and Total loans; Mortgage loans and Consumption loans (Figure 8).

Special provisions like overdue loans, non-paid loans, or measured in terms like 60 days non-paid loans etc. help to measure loan portfolio quality and its tendencies during analyzed period. Here we can see several related ratios and its changes during all period. At the beginning of period the highest ratio fixed to ratio of special provisions and mortgage loans – 44,84% which in the next year suddenly decreased to 11,84% and reached the lowest level in 2008 – 2,7%. Such situation could be evaluated as good enough if not very good as total volume of mortgage loans constantly was increasing (Figure 5), so quality of loan portfolio and level of credit risk were on appropriate level added all other related factors. Ratio of special provisions and total loans as well as ratio of special provisions and consumption loans have been almost at the same level and in the same tendencies from 2002 to 2009 and on a comparatively low level – not exceeding 2-3,5%, but from 2009 till 2011 raised dramatically; 34,71% for consumption loans and 8,6% for total loans ratios respectively. So, possible to conclude that in 2011 credit risk was the highest and quality of loan portfolio was the lowest that brought for banking sector huge losses, but this situation have happened because of credit management policy led in previous years.

Strongly related indicator for evaluating of quality of loan portfolio is Ratio of Special Provisions for Loans and Assets. As lower is indicator as better is quality of loan portfolio (Figure 9).
Possibly to conclude that till 2010 quality of loan portfolio was good and credit risk was framed into proper level. The lowest indicator value was in 2004 – 0.31% and the highest in 2011 – 6.14%. In latest years banks influenced by consequences of crisis and suffered from economic decline very much.

The last indicator presented in this analysis is Ratio of total loans and assets and its changes into longer period that also shows quality of credit risk management and loan portfolio financial stability (Figure 10). If loan portfolio is growing faster than assets it means that banking sector can meet liquidity problems and even bankrupt risk. As we can see, the lowest indicator observed in 2002 – 47.49% and then was growing constantly when reached its dangerous level in 2009 – 79.60%. In latest years banking sector improved credit risk management using different measures and learned their lessons from previous years of operations and financial crisis.

Changes in tendencies of all analyzed indicators testify that overall economical situation and its worsening raises pressure to banks and negatively influence on borrowing and all loan market.

After the latest years of hard difficulties Lithuanian banks have been in a recovery stage from 2012 and under the latest preliminary data and estimations now situation in loan market is going better, but still quite fragile as to compare to former growth and stability: 2011-2012 is a period of loans' market stability; from 2014, a growth of loans' market is forecasted, however it is very important, that it would be temperate after all.

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The Making of Political Rituals in Albanian Society

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Abstract

Society is often treated as a passive structure where are superposed all the ensembles of behaviours and cultures through the ideological, religious and legal rituals. Usually, researchers have the tendency of focusing mostly on the descriptions of socio-cultural phenomenons of a society, leaving aside the way in which these rituals reach the consensus or the resistance of the social group where are distributed. Whatever religion, culture, law or ideology to be constructed must invent several rituals which should conform to the social structures of society. Before the ideology is constituted, the social rituals should be recognized as such by the members of society, who give to these rituals a specific shape that makes sense to them. Therefore, we can say that the constitution of a given ideology, religion, law or ideology depends not only on the will of the leader who has in control its modes of production, but also in the interaction between the ideology itself and the way in which it is translated on the modes of comprehension of society. In this work I’ll try to explain how the religious worships during the Ottoman Empire are transformed and adapted as politico-ideological in Enver Hoxha’s Despotistic regime in Albania. This will be realized by concentrating on the idea that ideological and social rituals in general, to exist they should firstly be recognized as such by the members of society in which these rituals will be routinized.

1. Introduction

In this work I’ll try to explain how the religious worships during the Ottoman Empire are transformed and adapted as politico-ideological in Enver Hoxha’s Despotistic regime in Albania. This will be realized by concentrating on the idea that ideological and social rituals in general, to exist they should firstly be recognized as such by the members of society in which these rituals will be routinized. This hypothesis will be argued by Karl Wittfogel’s theory of “Oriental Despotism” and Max Weber’s concept of sultanistic regimes.

It’s clear that after almost five centuries under conquest, some of the Ottoman social rituals would still remain inside the Albanian culture, although in a modified way. Above all, culture is constructed after a long process of interaction with foreign neighbour cultures. In this context, the religious rituals of the Ottoman invaders would be modified in different forms of social practices during Albania’s despotistic regime. In 1967 the Albanian Labor Party decided the total abolition of religion with all its monuments and rituals, which were all substituted by Enver Hoxha’s glorification and all the social rituals that inspired his personality cult.

Through this approach we’ll be more clear about the social basis of Albanian Despotism, but also the way in which social and religious rituals are manipulated and used as social practices for the birth of personality cult.

2. The great symbol of total submission

Under the conquest of The Ottoman Empire Albanian Christians were subject to extremely harsh rules: They were forced to unpaid work (Drudgery) by Turkish feudal lords; to pay a high amount of rent and taxes; to send their male children in the janissary troops of the turkish army etc. But these material constrains were completed by further symbolic rules. One of these type of constrains was the order according whom “Every Christian who encounters a Muslim in his way, is obliged to descend off his horse immediately.”

The importance of this order is purely symbolic, in the way of maintaining an established level of hierarchy between

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1 Thëngjilli P, Renta Feudale dhe Evoluimi i saj në Vise Shqiptare (Shek. XVII – mesi i shek. XVIII), Shtëpia Botuese e Librit Universitar, Tiranë 1990, p.34
the social groups. This act of submission is roughly similar to that of the bow of the sunnis towards allah. Therefore, it
could be said that here we have to do with two different religious groups with one thing in common: the gesture of total
submission towards the Big Other (in Lacanian terms).

According to Johannes Ostrup “The culture teaches people to obey unconditionally when the despotic authority
demands it. It also teaches them to perform gestures of reverence, where more than the act of submission what is really
needed is the symbol. In fact, every culture has different ways to show respect; and as a matter of fact there are many
ways to express submission. But no other symbol does express total submission as much as the gesture of bow down
(perkulja ne shenje respekti).”2 As Wittfogel puts it in his most known book Oriental Despotism “The inferior man, aware
that the anger of the superior force (wether it material or spiritual) can punish him, prefers to assure his benevolence
(dashamirësi) by humiliating himself.”3 As we see, the identity of the member of a social group is defined by it’s position
in front of the other, wich also uses this ritual towards the sultan and also to allah. Nonetheless, the gesture of bowing
down is not only used by the sunnis towards god, but as Wittfogel reminds us “Under the Oriental Despotism the bow
down is a prevailing form of greeting the ruler or other persons of recognized authority” (Wittfogel: 151). However it
should be emphasized that generally “the bow down is characteristic of Oriental societies while it isn’t present in higher
agricultural civilisations of classical antiquity and European middle ages” (Wittfogel: 152). Meanwhile in the Ottoman
Turkey this practice remained till the end of the sultanate, and here Ostrup also includes “the kissing of feet as another
sign of total submission towards the supreme lord” (Ostrup: 105).

In the symbolic act of submission we find a common tendency on raising the personality of the sultan, from a
political to a divine figure. In other words, the way in wich is perceived the political power of the sultan it also involves
the religious power. The Albanian muslims in all the four vilayets were all subject to this symbolic and material submission
wich puts the sultan at the center of their political and religious worship.

It would be appropriate to add that the Ottoman culture didn’t have a great impact only in the islamisation of
Albanian christians, but also in the humiliation of the christians who maintained their religion. The Islamic domination and
the hard conditions of non-muslims were a huge challenge for the basic principles of christianity as a religion
characterized by a more liberal tendency, with a “modern” god who sent his son down in the material world. Although
these people didn’t turn to islam, they were already forced to follow the religious rituals of Islam in a social way: They only
substituted the bow with the descending off the horse. It appears this was the best way for the Ottoman authorities to
maintain and propagate the same social rituals even for the non-muslims who could exercise their religious practices only
by accepting these rituals of submission.

3. Sultanism as a political outcome

The concept of Sultanism was created by Max Weber in his famous book “Economy & Society: an outline of interpretive
sociology”. He defines Sultanism as “an extreme form of patrimonialism”4. However, some decades later Linz and Stepan
used the notion of sultanism to explain some particular forms of despotism wich characterize mainly the Oriental societies
from Africa to South America, including the Romanian regime under the rule of Ceausescu. In their work “Problems of
democratic transition and consolidation” Juan Linz and Alfred Stepan refering to Weber precise that, according to them,
“he didn’t use the notion of sultanism to explain the religious claims of obedience but only to explain the type of
domination and rulership of a regime.”5 However, it results that – as I explained previously – the ways of perception of the
political regime and those of religion are deeply connected in the social structures of society. Above all, as Albert Doja
remarks correctly “religion is viewed as a tradition wich is distributed through the social community”6 wich means that it
has a crucial impact in the formation and conservation of the social edifice. Especially in Albanian society, religion and all
it’s ensemble of rituals “rather relies in the social culture” (Doja: 2008). Through the social practices mediated by the
Islamic domination we can not only understand the social structures of Albanian society, but also we can comprehend all
the ensemble of behaviours, understandings, modes of perception of this society after five centuries of invasion. To
explain this, I think firstly it would be important to analyse the social intentions of religion in a given society.

Religion - ultimately just like as law, culture or ideology – has an important influence in giving some order to a

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2 Ostrup J, Orientalische Hoflichkeit, Leipzig: O. Harrassowitz 1929, p.72
3 Wittfogel K, Despotizmi Oriental, Botime Toena, Tirane 2000, p. 150
6 Doja A, Bektashizmi në Shqipëri (Histori Politike e Një Lëvizjeje Fetare), AIIS, Tirane 2008, p. 59
social community. It's mission is to conserve an established order through several rituals, worship or modes of glorification which also aim at particular social exchanges in form of social rituals. Hence, religion is not some kind of an isolated myth apart from the social reality, because it is formed only in the moment when it comes in contact with this social reality. For this reason religious rituals are above all social rituals, as the figure of the Sultan in the Ottoman Empire was at once political and religious. By understanding the social basis of the daily rituals we can be able to understand the behaviours of a given society after the changement of political systems. In this regard, Wittfogel emphasizes a general tendency in the political systems that were created after the great Oriental Empires were collapsed. According to him, “they are nothing more than small and separated reproductions of the great despotic model” (Wittfogel: 2000). In his comments about the Oriental societies he also adds that “a civilisation that once was part of this world (the Oriental one), can go on conserving in a later phase, some traces of its previous state, which although are not necessary for the new configuration, they’re compatible with it.”

After the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, Albania was in a chaotic identitarian situation after the verdict of the Congress of Berlin for dividing the country in several pieces. In this moment of confusion, after Prince Wied's arrival, a curious subversive character emerged accompanied with a group of peasants with the exclamation “dum’ babën” (We want our father), referring to the Turkish rulership. This character, called Haxhi Qamili, with his peasants caused lots of riots during this period, but meanwhile his movement also proves the missing of some important symbolic figure at the top of the social edifice. His hate for christians (“the bad people, the christians, even god doesn’t love them!”) and his glorification towards the Islam and the Sultan shows the necessity of a central paternal authority that was inherited after a long time under conquest of Turkey. The absence of passed social rituals was reflected with acts of torture and violence of the movement of Haxhi Qamili towards the local christians, which were accused from the former for “separating us from Turkey” (Arben Puto: 2011). This history shows the cultivation for worship towards the central authorities as a patrimonial figure, was present since the first years of Albanian independent state. All was left to do by the following rulers was just to

4. The consolidation of Sultanistic rulership

Several analysts of totalitarian societies have a very restraint knowledge of Albanian society, consequently they haven’t included the Albanian despotic regime in any part of their categories of despotism. Linz & Stepan in their work “Problems of democratic transition and consolidation” have classified the Albanian regime as semi-Authoritarian, concept which leaves a great void in the analysis of Albanian society. If we look more closely, there can be found many similarities between the impact of Enver Hoxha’s regime in Albania’s social reality and that of turkish Empire. Just like the Ottoman Empire, Enver Hoxha’s Communist Party monopolized the social rituals, which ended with the total abolition of religion and it’s substitution by the Labor Party’s official faith. Enver Hoxha, also known as “the red Sultan” took power of all the social rituals of symbolic dominion. His national-communist ideology was extended from daily routine (oblige
culture for everyone before going to work), till art, literature and national poems.

After a long time under conquest, all the social and religious rituals of the Ottoman Empire became an integral part of Albanian society; Literally, the entire social network of the politico-religious domination, became a system of reference for the society. In a certain way, this “Sultanistic regime” (As I called it somewhere else)10 gave the appropriate solution in isolating a social group under the panic of being divided or invaded once again. Since coming to power, the Communist nomenklatura started a bloody cleansing of all the potential rivals. These purges, with the passing of the years were followed by the construction of a personality cult by the dictator Hoxha which continued with the abolition of religious monuments, practices and faith and the building of Enver Hoxha’s monument in the center of Tirana right after his death. The interesting part was that near the monument of Hoxha was situated another great monument: that of Albanian’s national hero “Skënderbeu” (Skanderbeg). All this ensemble of symbols took intact the collective imagination of the members of society which – like under the Ottoman conquest – continued to stay symbolically under a great paternal figure. When the relations between Albania and the Soviet Union were solid, in the center of Tirana, instead of Skanderbeg there was the monument of the Communist leader Josip Stalin, who was symbolically perceived as “baba Stalin” (father Stalin). It’s important to emphasize that right right after the Stalin’s death, the ritual of total submission was performed again after a long time. Albanian people bowed again on their knees in front of Stalin’s monument to show the divine dimensions of his figure. The continuity of the gesture of total submission is an important sign of the conservation of social practices from time to time, but also, it shows the political impact of manipulation to this practices just to keep awake the socio-symbolical imagination of the collectivity. The enormous monuments at the center of Tirana had a very important symbolical significance towards the social community: at a certain level they made all the citizens conscious of their inferiority against State’s faith: “The national myth” (personified by the symbol of Skanderbeg), and also against State’s beloved missionary of this faith: Enver. Maybe this was the cause of the absence of a religious faith after 1967. Ultimately, the importance of religion is concentrated mainly in keeping intact and maintaining some order in a given social group through several ritualistic and religious practices. The Albanians used exactly with this purpose the conversion in Islam during the Ottoman period, although this choice made great transformations in the inner social rituals of society. It seems the adoption of Enver Hoxha’s nationalist propaganda had exactly the same purpose. This process can be explained by the phrase of the national poet of the Renaissance Pashko Vasa: “feja e shqiptarit është shqiptaria” (the faith of Albanians is Albanianism). Albanian society adopted the nationalistic faith just like it did before with the Islamic faith. But this choice it looks that had it’s side effects in acquiring an inferior position against the missionaries who propagandize these faiths. Albanian christians had to submit themselves to various acts of humiliation towards the muslims, similarly the converted muslims learned and adopted the ritual of total submission just like almost every member of the Oriental societies. An analogous fact happened in times of Hoxha’s regime when people re-adopted their already learned ritual of total obedience, nonetheless this meant leaving behind all the principles of equality promoted during the years of the independece by the national poets of the Renaissance.

5. Conclusions

The performation of similar rituals from time to time doesn’t show that the society haven’t changed. On the contrary, it shows that the ideological instruments of domination have remained the same in society’s perception. In this case, the figure of the ideological leader or missionary, still remains as a crucial point of reference and also a point when all the practices of respect, benevolence or submission are concentrated. The tradition of religious tolerance in Albanian society maybe hides an important fact: it’s not very important of whom are adressed the performations of respect, submission or benevolence. Albania’s national movements before the independece shaped the figure of a material god, whom wasn’t above the people, but inside of them. It seems that this perception, shaped the future of Albania’s political regimes where the absence of god in the center of their social being, constructed a powerful paternal figure inside the political dimension. This political god seems have dominated all Albanian history, but also it has conserved and inspired a strong sense of unity among the members of society.

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BoP and MNCs: Where is the Market and Where the Source of Innovation?

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Abstract

In 2004 Prahalad made managers aware of the great economic opportunity that the population at the BoP (Base of the Pyramid) could represent for business in the form of new potential consumers. However, MNCs (Multi-National Corporations) have continued to fail in penetrating low income markets, arguably because applied strategies are often the same adopted at the top of the pyramid. Even in those few cases where products get re-envisioned, their introduction in contexts of extreme poverty only induces new needs and develops new dependencies. At best, the rearrangement of business models by MNCs has meant the realization of CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility) schemes that have validity from a marketing perspective, but still lack the crucial element of social embeddedness (London & Hart, 2004). Today the challenge is to reach the lowest population tier with reinvented business models based on principles of value co-creation. Starting from a view of the potential consumer at the BoP as a ring of continuity in the value chain process – a resource that can itself produce value – this paper concludes proposing an alternative innovative approach to operate in developing markets that overturns the roles of MNCs and the BoP. The proposed perspective of ‘reversed’ source of innovation and primary target market builds on two fundamental tenets: traditional knowledge is rich and greatly unexploited, and markets at the top of the pyramid are saturated with unnecessary products / practices that have lost contact with the natural environment.

Keywords: Base of the pyramid, grassroots innovation, inclusive development, poverty alleviation, traditional knowledge.

1. introduction

The BoP can no longer represent for MNCs just the new market opportunity identified by Prahalad in 2004. The emphasis of their international business development strategies cannot be based on making a profit by selling products and services to 4 billions of poor people; the concept of ‘selling to the poor’ needs to be replaced with a new terminology aimed at solving together the great challenges of the world, among which is poverty. Open business models (Howe, 2008), requalification of the consumer as prosumer (Toffler, 1980), strategies to co-create (Hart & Sharma, 2004), appreciation of traditional knowledge (Seyfang & Smith, 2007) are some of the concepts discussed in this paper.

One of the primary causes of the failure by MNCs in penetrating the BoP is considering the poor as regular consumers, representing the last link of the economic value chain only devoted to destroy value. It is only recently that MNCs have started to recognize the potential of the BoP in terms of its innovative power. Another reason for the difficulty of MNCs in gaining a positive presence in developing countries is the incorrect or insignificant implementation of CSR strategies (Davidson, 2009), too often used as a ‘mask’ for conscious consumers and to gain access in BoP markets. But the use of CSR to somehow justify business wrongdoing in the eyes of society is just a temporary patch as information travels fast in today’s world and consumers are growing more and more alert (Hart & Sharma, 2004). Also, CSR as a marketing strategy carries only short-term rewards that are often not worth the time and resources invested.

Those organizations that seek to successfully enter the BoP can do so if they acknowledge the latent potential of the people in those settings and learn to co-operate with other stakeholders in order to achieve sustainable development. Furthermore, there is growing evidence that the BoP might contain precious knowledge, lost by the western world, that could solve global challenges and set human development on a new course.
2. The Failure of MNCs in Penetrating the BoP

In 2004 Prahalad found a new market opportunity at the BoP. He suggested the idea that 4 billions of poor people have immense business capacity and purchasing power, though individually limited. They represent, therefore, a market that still has to be conquered. Since markets at the top of the pyramid are characterized by ever-shorter product life cycles and almost completely satisfied needs, the Indian economist urged MNCs to turn their efforts toward the BoP. However, Prahalad did not go beyond the concept of ‘selling to the poor’, considering poor people only as new potential consumers able to absorb the supply of MNC products.

As a result, MNCs have repeatedly tried to penetrate the BoP on a market-based strategy, backed up by the belief that “market-based approaches offer an attractive alternative” (London 2008, p. 6); they help fostering a ‘participated’ economic growth that can arguably alleviate poverty in the world. Despite such hope, Monitor Group (2011) demonstrated that unfortunately most MNCs fail because they try to penetrate the BoP without rearranging their business models. Why don’t MNCs define business models appropriate for new markets at the BoP? This is primarily due to two factors. The first is linked to the company itself: business model rearrangement is a very complex and expensive process requiring innovation and changes at the organizational culture level. The second set of causes relates to what companies think about the BoP: it is not worth enough to make organizational changes; it does not have a great purchasing power; it is hard to reach due to wide media-dark areas and a weak infrastructure; people do not have clear needs.

The practical consequences of such activity over the last decade are that MNCs still try to sell products to the poor that people at the top of the pyramid no longer want; consumers at the BoP do not appreciate or find useful the newly introduced products because, in most cases, are not fitting their basic needs; and the corporate involvement at the BoP gets reduced at best to CSR exercises to strengthen reputation in the eyes of the Western world.

When Nike launched its World Shoe program in 1998 with the scope of penetrating low-income markets, it pursued a new business model. Local-for-local manufacturing, concurrent engineering product development approach and market classifications had been envisioned as the three main pillars of the market entry strategy. However, as the company failed to understand that selling to the poor requires complex interaction, empathy (Hart & Sharma, 2004) and a deep understanding of local needs, culture and habits, so did its business plan. Nike’s misstep provides the insight that unless businesses are locally embedded in the targeted region, plans for conquering new markets in developing countries are bound to fail in the long run (Simanis & Hart, 2008). Accordingly, business models need to be re-shaped in light of the urgencies of the communities at the BoP, specifically by focusing efforts on satisfying unmet needs able to absorb the supply of MNC products.

The Reuters Market Light (RML) project, as an example, found its success by providing Indian farmers with a customized information service aimed at improving their yields. RML follows the simple idea of providing rural farmers with a comprehensive set of information, from crops market price and weather forecast, to crop advisory tips and commodity news. SMS messages are received by subscribers in English or the language of their choice on a daily basis. The scope of the service is to enhance farmers’ ability to negotiate with buyers and to enable them to arbitrage better across sales outlets. Furthermore, weather forecasts allows them to reduce crop losses due to unforeseen storms. Crop advisory information, finally, has the scope of letting farmers develop better cultivation practices and to push them in making timely decisions to adopt new crop varieties when needed (Fafchamps & Minten, 2012). In India, a country with 127 million cultivators (60% of the total population) devoted to crops’ cultivation either directly or indirectly, where agriculture contributes to 20% of GDP, the penetration of RML represents a unique opportunity to enable farmers to operate more efficiently while minimizing uncertainty.

When approaching consumers at the BoP, companies must realize that value creation is the key. Usefulness and affordability are the drivers that will eventually mark the line between success and failure. The Swiss-based healthcare technologies company Vestergaard Frandsen, provides products that embody both characteristics of being useful and relatively low-priced. The company pursues a “profit for a purpose approach” by delivering innovative emergency response and disease control devices in the most disadvantaged regions of the planet at affordable prices. Its products, ranging from a mosquito net that releases anti-malaria insecticides in the air to portable water filters, have been successful by virtue of the fact that the company operates at the core of the communities it serves. A consequence of this

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approach is simple: urgent needs are readily identified and promptly satisfied. By placing laboratories in Côte d’Ivoire and Vietnam and centres of production in China, India, Korea, Thailand and Vietnam, Vestergaard Frandsen can match its local embeddedness with the capability to perform fast responses to humanitarian emergencies and disease outbreaks in many parts of the world.

3. CSR To Mask Common Practices

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has definitely contributed to change the practice of MNCs. Over the last decades, MNCs have been increasingly forced to modify their behavior towards stakeholders, largely because of the major changes occurring in the environment they used to operate. Firstly, the number of NGOs monitoring MNCs practices especially in third world countries has increased dramatically during the last ten years (Hart & Sharma, 2004). Additionally, the spread of the Internet and the explosion of social media have contributed to make consumers more informed and aware of MNCs unethical practices. Millions of people are now able to access information live and can communicate with each other instantly, thereby creating a global network of ‘conscious consumers’. As a result of such major changes, large corporations have been exposed to public opinion in a way that is nearly impossible for them to behave unethically without ending up under the attack of some NGO, consumer association or an individual blogger.

According to this logic, several industries are undergoing important transformations. Some of the largest pharmaceutical companies, for instance, have lately implemented more socially sound business models setting drug prices based on a country’s population ability to pay. This has resulted in price dropping in developing countries up to 90% (Gottlieb, 2000). After having repeatedly been accused of operating detached from society, the pharma business has now come to realize that in order to sustain long-term success, expectations from a growing body of conscious citizens have to be met. Similarly, when in April 2008 Greenpeace International publicly condemned Unilever by releasing a report entitled: ‘How Unilever palm oil suppliers are burning up Borneo’ it became clear to the company that a new stakeholders-oriented strategy had to be pursued or the report would have jeopardized the reputation of Unilever worldwide. Therefore, on 1st May 2008 Unilever announced its commitment to import only Certified Sustainable Palm Oil by 2015 and launched a partnership with WWF to halt further deforestation.

In other words, it is reasonable to say that CSR has emerged amongst MNCs as the new frontier for reconciliation with the global community. International companies seeking to protect their corporate image against human rights scandals, environmental catastrophes and unveiled corruption practices have found the way to ‘greenwash’ their brands by committing themselves to CSR behaviors and transparency.

However, CSR practices at the BoP have generally been limited to projects unable to have a substantial, long-term impact (Davidson, 2009). At best, companies’ commitment has resulted in projects sponsoring social initiatives or the delivery of low-cost services to underdeveloped regions in Africa, South-America or Asia. As a result, CSR often appears to be no more than a marketing tool, a ‘mask’ that MNCs can wear to appear ethical.

In fact, when CSR initiatives approach the poor distributing them products or services at apparently convenient terms, negotiations still follow the traditional market notions, according to which companies are autonomous in the design and manufacture of goods/services and customers are just users (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). This is a typical firm-centric view of the market, which considers consumers as the last link of the value creation process and dedicated only to consumption. The two sides of the economic equation – producer and consumer – remain distinct and the only connection between them are activities such as customer satisfaction and customer relationship management, none of which however allow consumers to actively participate in the production process. Therefore, the vast majority of implemented CSR initiatives do not seem sufficient to satisfy the needs at the BoP because they continue to create value just for MNCs and not for the communities they serve.

4. MNCs Recognize the Potential of the BoP to Innovate and Co-Create

The obvious consequences of adopting a standard transnational business model (Bartlett & Goshal, 1989) at the BoP are the creation of new needs amongst the poor, the introduction of hardly sustainable products in markets not ready to accept them (largely because of missing specific infrastructure), and the encouragement of new habits far from ordinary life. Keeping the distance between who creates value and who consumes it, the transnational model excludes the

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2 Glaxo Wellcome, Boehringer Ingelheim, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Hoffman-La Roche and Merck & Co.
possibility that the BoP could create value.

On the other hand, the co-creation model (Prahalad & Ramaswami, 2000) lies on the principle that companies can harness their customers' competences by engaging with them and move beyond the mere buyer-seller relationship. Thus, on the basis of this new set of co-creation experiences (Prahalad & Ramaswami, 2004) the interaction between the company and the client becomes itself the locus where the value creation process finds its climax.

Examples of co-creation in mature markets are growing and spreading over the entire spectrum of industries. Take Amazon. Since its inception, the online book-seller business model has relied heavily on readers' feedbacks and reviews, encouraging the customers' network to thrive and share information about books. Or take FIAT, the Italian automaker. Prior to taking the final decision about the design of its new Punto car, the company invited potential customers to visit the website and choose amongst different features and options. By doing so, the firm was able to test different designs at a negligible cost ending up with a vehicle that was way more inclusive of customers' preferences. Future clients, on their part, had the chance to shape the model according to their wants and needs.

Companies operating in mature markets pursue the co-creation approach in order to gain competitive advantage and build a long-term customer relationship. Similarly, we suggest that analogous strategies could apply to the BoP. Indeed, forms of co-creation are emerging even in the poorest parts of the globe. The Sawa World project\(^3\) seeks to eradicate poverty by training young generations of journalists to document local agricultural best practices and then sharing them via a global network. Essentially, short videos about bold solutions are reported, regularly updated, and presented to nearby communities by the 'Sawa Youth Reporters'. By doing so, rural populations are encouraged to implement, adapt and upgrade innovative techniques: co-creation processes thus thrive amongst diverse neighbourhoods and in different locations simultaneously.

There is growing evidence that MNCs are beginning to recognize the potential value of consumers at the BoP to more effectively penetrate those markets (Simanis & Hart, 2006). As highlighted by Hart and Sharma (2004) 'fringe' stakeholders – those who lie at the periphery of a company's network – can indeed become a source of innovation, provided that they are enabled to raise their voices and express their ideas. For them to do so, companies must therefore focus their efforts on building a network able to engage with these groups. Thus, Hart and Sharma propose a new approach of stakeholder integration, which “moves beyond the static management of known parties in the center of a network to the dynamic process of identifying and engaging actors from the fringe” (Hart & Sharma, 2004:9). In light of this assumption, the BoP assumes the new role of a business partner instead of being considered just a passive body of consumers.

In evaluating alternative innovation-driven business models there seems to be an emergent trend towards open systems (Brabham, 2008; Howe, 2008) that promote dialogue among the various stakeholders involved and contemplate different provisions from each actor. As depicted in figure 1, economic and social transformation can result from the interactions of native people who bring know-how and traditions, BoP entrepreneurs who contribute with their drive to grow, MNCs which supply processes, technology, and resources, aid and development agencies that provide cultural mediating skills, government bodies that set laws and regulations, and BoP consumers who are given a voice.

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This indication of a possible alternative way of conducting business operations is in line with what was proposed by the World Business Council for Sustainable Development in 2001: a joint growth between MNCs, governments and civil society in order to sustain social development. In this regard, the United Nations had also launched in 2000 a robust campaign to involve the business world in the practice of sustainable development and poverty alleviation. The Global Compact program aims in fact to establish global ‘sustainable development partnerships’ between the UN, governments, civil society, labor, and business to promote the achievement of the MDGs (Millennium Development Goals). However, the results still appear controversial as being a member of the program has not yet proven to be a guarantee of effective CSR management (Ecovadis, 2012).

When interactions among stakeholders work, the results can be really promising in setting a path that will eventually lead to the elimination of challenges that have for centuries plagued most of the southern hemisphere. In this regard, the Lighting a Billion Lives (LaBL) project provides a clear understanding of the magnitude of the potential benefits deriving from an open-system approach. Launched in 2008 by The Energy and Research Institute (TERI) and the Indian Government with the aim of bringing clean light and socio-economic development to remote un-electrified villages in India, the initiative is based on a localized, bottom-up entrepreneurial model. Essentially, local social entrepreneurs are trained to run small enterprises within the context of their villages offering the rent of high-quality solar lamps to rural people for an affordable fee. In order for the project to have effective, large-scale impact (1 million rural Indians was the original target) promoters envisioned a 5P’s plan of action: ‘pro-poor public-private partnership’.

Embracing both, purely commercial and social welfare approaches (UNESCAP, 2010), the 5P’s main scope is to encourage community participation and education and the generation of income for social development. To this end, not only governments and the private sector are involved but also NGOs, development banks, philanthropic institutions, community-based organizations and even private citizens are called to give their contribution to the success of the project.

Thus, in this new form of inclusive partnership, the ‘pro-poor element’ has been added to the usual public-private relationship. By enabling the poor to play the double role of end consumers and business partners, this pioneering business model intends to move beyond the traditional public-private partnerships (PPP), which have often ignored the needs of those at the BoP (UNESCAP, 2010). Accordingly, LaBL’s pro-poor commitment pursues the main objective of effectively empowering and engaging with rural communities through a 5-stage process. As illustrated in Figure 2, communities are first approached to evaluate project’s acceptance and to forge it according to local needs and requirements. Subsequently, an intensive in-loco training program is provided to the selected entrepreneur on both technical and economic aspects of the solar enterprise. The third stage is focused on the engagement of second level users and aims at making them aware of their consumers’ rights and of the proper usage of lamps by a next-door after-sales support. TERI then harnesses feedback from the populations it serves so as to continuously ameliorate the design and the functionality of its service. Finally, the project aligns with other social programmes to bring training to the BoP on other income generation activities such as tailoring and selling mobile services (Chaurey, Krithika, Palit, Rakesh &
Thus far, the implementation of LaBL 5P’s framework has proven successful. Major benefits for the poor have been attained by virtue of a well-orchestrated mechanism. Governments commitment to financially support the inception of the program has proceeded hand in hand with the willingness of the private sector to devote technological knowledge and business skills to a new typology of customers. Concurrently, non-profit and community based organizations have played the fundamental role of bridging the gap with rural communities by involving them in the co-creation and development of the project.

This is clearly a successful case, but not all scenarios are the same. When the process is manipulated by corruption, lobbying, short-term goals, and unethical business conduct aimed solely at profit maximization, then the consequences can be devastating. The African Agriculture Growth Corridors project, as an example, whilst being acclaimed by its sponsors and the media as the way to tackle food security concerns and poverty, raises a series of questions on why local communities have not been consulted over its implementation. The idea of African Agricultural Growth Corridors was envisioned to speed up the process of converting millions of hectares of land in the African continent to industrial agriculture use. Originally presented at the UN General Assembly in 2008, the project, endorsed by the World Economic Forum as a part of the broader “New vision for Agriculture” strategy, claims the transition to industrial agricultural practices in Africa will boost economic growth in the continent thereby lifting targeted regions out of poverty. In the words of the key sponsor of the project, the agribusiness multinational Yara International: “by connecting these areas to infrastructure, efficient logistics providing inputs, storage and transportation to markets, the goal is to forge viable value chains supporting both large-scale and smallholder farming”.

But to what extent smallholder farming will benefit from the development of the agricultural corridors? Land grabs, impoverishment and vast displacement due to the shift to industrial agriculture are amongst the many troubles farmers will likely have to face. Local communities and farmers associations (e.g. the International Peasants Movement) complain the massive project is being implemented with no previous public debate, especially with smallholders. Local knowledge, land management, habits and culture are not only being left out of the conversations, but are also jeopardized by the advent of western agricultural systems. By narrowly directing their attention to old mainstream stakeholders management practices, agribusiness companies have made no efforts to engage with local communities and to get the best out of the native knowledge.

5. Innovation at the BoP May Hold the Key to Global Challenges

Low tech, grassroots-level innovations (GRI) may hold the key to overcoming some of the resource challenges we face today. Over the last decades, the concept of ‘sustainable development’ has gained increasing importance and popularity as the challenges posed by climate change, resource and food scarcity, environmental degradation and biodiversity loss have become tangible threats for humanity. Within the nascent field of sustainable innovation studies, attention has been raised on the magnitude required for innovative ideas and practices to overcome sustainability challenges. Indeed, in order to radically revolutionize modern consumption habits and lifestyles, changes with systemic impact are needed (Hargreaves, Longhurst & Seyfang, 2013). In light of this assumption, a variety of innovations have recently been the promoters of sustainability trends, both technological (the spreading of renewable technologies) and social (ethical consumers movements). However, very few of these new developments have been capable of having repercussions on a

Yacouba Sawadogo is the subject of a documentary feature film ‘The Man Who Stopped the Desert’ made by 1080 Films.
Nation: "The transformation has been so pervasive that the new greenery is visible from outer space via satellite pictures" (Hertsgaard, 2009). Local farmers are thus succeeding where government agencies, NGOs and development-project planners have always failed: winning the fight against desertification.

Bottom-up innovation is often triggered by desperate living conditions. Mr. Sawadogo’s achievement has to do with his unwillingness to surrender to the desertification of his land and be forced to leave his country. Therefore, when it comes to fighting massive challenges such as poverty, drought and famine GRI might not surprisingly hold the key to success. In India, the spreading of an organic, fully sustainable and ultra-productive crop cultivation method developed by farmers at the BoP for example, promises to dramatically increment rural farmers yields whilst, at the same time, offering a concrete solution to the feeding of a fast-growing world population. Originally devised in the early 80’s by the French Jesuit and agronomist engineer Henri de Laulanie in tandem with Malagasy farmers, the System of Rice Intensification (SRI) was brought to Asia in later 1990s by Norman Uphoff, an American scientist and professor. After a slow beginning that lasted more than 20 years, the outcome of the implementation of this alternative farming now seems miraculous.

Since 2001, the Darveshpura village in the Nalanda district has been renamed "the miracles village": yield production world records are being broken one after the other in this remote village of one of the Indian’s poorest states. In the beginning was just about rice, with an outstanding result of 22.4 tonnes of rice produced on one hectare of land attained by the local hero Mr. Sumant Kumar. Few months later, similar astonishing yield performances had been achieved by potatoes and wheat growers. The reason for that impressive outcome is SRI which, as described by The Guardian, consists in: *instead of planting three-week-old rice seedlings in clumps of three or four in waterlogged fields, as rice farmers around the world traditionally do, the Darveshpura farmers carefully nurture only half as many seeds, and then transplant the young plants into fields, one by one, when much younger. Additionally, they space them at 25cm intervals in a grid pattern, keep the soil much drier and carefully weed around the plants to allow air to their roots* (Vidal, 2013).

By leveraging this revolutionary crop intensification system, farmers end up using less water, seeds and chemicals. With no harmful impact on the environment and no additional investment required, cultivators in the Nalanda district region have been able to increase their yields up to 45% on average. Presently, it has been estimated that approximately 4-5 million farmers are utilizing SRI worldwide, with governments in China, India, Indonesia, Cambodia, Sri Lanka and Vietnam sponsoring it. In light of recent events, SRI has the potential to become what in the business environment is known as a “disruptive innovation” (Christensen, Baumann, Ruggles & Sadtler, 2006; Schumpeter, 1942). As Uphoff (1999) also suggested, if SRI proves to be successfully scalable, industrial agricultural practices worldwide would likely have to be re-conceived and brought back to their biological roots. Over the last decades, agribusiness corporations have narrowly focused their efforts on enhancing crop yields by utilizing fertilizers and chemicals while guiltily forgetting about crops management. So did not farmers at the BoP, apparently.

The two cases presented here offer clear and convincing proof of the great potential impact GRI can have at the BoP in overcoming some of the world’s most urgent needs. According to this view, traditional knowledge in indigenous settings can therefore represent the springboard for that type of innovation that has the potential of redirecting socio-economic development towards a more sustainable and greener future for all of humanity (Figure 3).

Figure 3. A reinterpreted role of the BoP

6. Conclusions

The old inclusive capitalism of "selling to the poor", without involving them in a value co-creation process, just ends with a temporary improvement of the poor conditions, but it keeps them at a perpetual dependence from the Western world. The main potential of the BoP is not so much represented by its purchasing power, but rather the embedded entrepreneurial
spirit and capability. According to this logic, we consider the BoP a rich source of innovation and opportunity that needs to be nurtured rather than exploited.

Several cases of GRI at the BoP have recently captured the attention of the global community. The cases provided by the authors offer indeed clear evidence of the fact that rural practices in underdeveloped countries hold a latent potential to benefit the entire world and not just to solve local problems. For centuries, rural communities in Asia, Africa and South America have nurtured a kind of knowledge the western world seems to have lost due to the fostering of the kind of specialization that has progressively isolated biologists into separate camps – experts on soil structure versus plant nutrition – causing disastrous effects for the humus, critical ingredient of the nitrogen cycle. The natural tendency of the modern society (and therefore MNCs) to think of only one thing at a time is a chief reason why we have failed to understand the environment on countless occasions and are on the brink of destroying it.

As in the case of agribusiness, the same principles of identifying traditional knowledge and applying it on a large scale – in place of existing harmful business practices – can be valid for many other industries. This has to be empirically further explored. A second consideration that we hope will lead to future research is related to the acknowledgment that everything on Earth (and beyond) is interconnected. Keeping things simple, the four geochemical cycles critical for life – nitrogen, water, carbon, and oxygen – are governed by the laws of nature according to which "everything is connected to everything else" and "everything must go somewhere". As a result of these assertions, what happens at the BoP will eventually impact the way of life of those in developed countries and vice versa, hence we can no longer think of us' and 'them'; a new understanding of 'globalization' needs to emerge and be recognized by society at large.

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Abstract

Byzantium was theocratic empire with heterogeneous populations. The unifying factor to manage the politics, faith and national identity in the first place, as the best candidate, was religion. She was closely associated with the state. Religion was allied with the monarchy. The Glory of Byzantium is material and cultural heritage of humanity, which impresses with its richness and complexity. Luxury goods, rich decorated manuscripts, icons, works with engraving, ecclesiastical and liturgical decorated in gold and silver are important examples that stimulate the curiosity for the luxury of the byzantine religious culture. The majority of byzantine art was commissioned for religious purposes and predestined to be used in churches and monasteries. The churches could have three different types of clients-commitenti, not always easily distinguishable from each other: the state, the local church and private benefactors. The members of the imperial house and the courtyard were zealous patrons for buildings and works of religious art. The best example is the Hagia Sophia in Constantinople, built by Justinian. Byzantium has formed an image that is identified by the iconography (Christ, St. Mary, iconoclasm), mosaics (symbolism, techniques, naturalism), orthodox churches (type, construction techniques). The Byzantine Empire is one of the great lost civilizations, with an extraordinary eternal culture.

Keywords: Byzantium, religion, politics, culture, heritage

1. Introduction

Bizanti was a multicultural state. Emphasis on language, not in ethnicity, as a symbol of culture, followed a precedent Roman tolerance. State - modern nation, was hiding in the future. Such as racial prejudice is not a feature of Byzantine culture. (Cameron, Bizantinet, 2008:31) Byzantine prejudices existed, but they had other directions.

The term Byzantine Emperor, is a definition of modern historiography. In reality there was never a state to define in this way. There was in fact the Roman Empire, with its capital in Constantinople (New Rome). Residents of the Empire, considered themselves Roman, or simply Christian. (Mango, Architettura Bizantina, 1974:9)

Traditional dates, the year 395 (the division of the Roman Empire by Theodosius) and 476 year (fall of the last Roman Emperor) are more symbolic than effective, for a specificity of eastern romanity. Indeed, the crisis of the third century, climbing to the throne of Diocletian (285) had ended unity of the Roman Empire, now governed by two or four August and Caesar. (Castellan, Histori e Ballkanit, 1991:34)

According to Norwich, Byzantium was a magical ringing words, as few other stories. That name will probably remain indelible in the memory of people musicality and images to arouse even today. Then the strategic location between East and West. And finally man: Constantine I, Emperor of Rome. This epochal Sovereign took two decisions that changed the course of history: the adoption of Christianity as the official religion of the empire and the transfer of the capital from Rome to a new city was built upon the ancient Byzantium, Constantinople. History of Byzantium starts with. (Norwich. J. J, Bizanti – Shkelqimi dhe renia e nje Perandorie, 2005:15)

But although never lost consciousness and his ties of old Rome, because ideally, for reasons of political interests of great power, constantly insisted Roman heritage. Byzantium nevertheless will leave more and more of the original characteristics of Roman civilization. In culture and language, Greece-isation progressed rapidly. At the same time church became a ubiquitous element of Byzantine life. Development and evaluation was also felt in the economic, social and political. Unlike what is commonly thought, the development of the Byzantine state was very dynamic. Movement, improvement, renovation were his features, as far as the end of its historical development, the Byzantine Empire was no longer anything in common with the old Roman Empire, except the name, traditions and aspirations unfeasible. (Ostrogorsky, Histori e Perandorise Bizantine, 2007:22)

Why study Byzantium? Even now, for most Europeans, except the Greeks, and other Eastern Orthodox tradition,
his word Byzantium, makes you think of something exotic, and perhaps bureaucratic, corrupt. According to the Oxford
English Reference Dictionary term "Byzantine" signifies something that is: a) extremely complex, b) or c fixed) that
realized by means of secret. An anthropological work, Nupe tribe in Nigeria, based on field work done in 1930, used the
title A Black Byzantium, apparently to show hierarchy, social stratification and complexity. (Cameron, Bizantinet, 2008:23)
In Western European popular consciousness, the mention of Byzantium, promotes two main reactions: either he still
thought of as irrelevant and outdated, predecessor of the Ottoman Empire and somehow involved in the religious and
political problems of contemporary Balkan or mysteriously, seems to have a powerful attraction, as it is attached with
icons and spirituality. (Guerdan, 1954) Each of these reactions, perseverance reveals the deep-rooted stereotypes that
do not give what is due, or even Byzantine Greeks, as indeed exist. There is also a big difference between the
perceptions that are Byzantines, Orthodox and non-Orthodox world, responding to the degree to which Byzantium, was
the national story or not. (Cameron, Bizantinet, 2008:24)

2. Religion in Byzantium

The Byzantines were mystical and had blood Christ, St. Mary and the saints. (Norwich, J.J, 2005:10)

With the division of the Roman Empire into two parts, between them showed significant differences in the way of religion
and preaching. So the Byzantine churches language used was Greek, while in Western Europe, the language was Latin
religious services. Were differences in the performance of religious ceremonies, fasting on Saturday, the use of bread in
mass, in determining holy days, religious figures and rights to the clerics to marry or not.

It was again the Byzantine period, it gave the Church of the East, its character and location specific. First, by
recognizing, on July 16, 1054, the division of the Christian Church, a Church under the Patriarch of the Byzantine East,
detached from the Western Church under the Pope of Rome. This trend conflicts marking the completion of centuries,
who tried in vain to mitigate the XIII and XIV centuries. On 1425, faced Pontifical delegate, a Byzantine dignitary said:
"better to see the Turkish turban, in the middle of the capital, than Cardinal hat". (Castellan, Histori e Ballkaniti, 1991:37)

Since the mid-twelfth century, from Crusade II, we find a western fanatic. Langras Bishop, now dreams of taking
Constantinople, and urges the king of France, Louis VII, which states that the Byzantines are "true Christian in name
only", that they are guilty of heresy, and a large part the army of crusaders thought that "the Greeks were not Christians
and had little to kill them." This antagonism was the result of a departure, which, from the IV century, was transformed
into a large gap separator. As one side, and on the other were not agreed, especially Westerners, who, even knowing
Greek disregarded. (Goff, 1998:173)

Since its origin, the church had been closely associated with the state, to the point that had precious basileus it
was his duty to intervene in matters of church discipline, even in the doctrine. Constantine convened the mind here Nikes
(325) to determine Christian doctrine, and the role of emperors known in the fifth century Christological disputes, the
struggle icons who did the shaking empire VIII and IX centuries, the crisis of the fourteenth century. (Castellan, Histori
Ballkani, 1991:37)

So there was nothing like dualism pope - the emperor, who caused power conflicts as "Investiture war". There was
a very strong symbiosis between the state and the church orthodox although not excluded personal conflicts. Patriarch
intervene as imperial heritage issues as well as secular justice or the State University while under the archbishop and
bishops often see themselves as leaders of the city, as Isidore of Thessalonica who defended the city against the
Catalans. Church had taken over a part of the Byzantine State attributes. (Castellan, Histori Ballkani, 1991)

Christian Church as a spiritual force strength gains ever greater under Christian rule. In the early Byzantine
emperor retains absolute authority over the Church, because, according to Roman tradition, considered trust of its
citizens as part of jus publicum. But in medieval Byzantium Church wins in a significant political power by creating serious
obstacles Emperor power. The fact is that even in Byzantium were often power struggles between the secular and the
spiritual. Not always won these wars empire. But however in Byzantium is not characteristic tension between church and
state but close and intimate connection between their progressive symbiosis between Orthodox and Orthodox state as a
political organization - religious. Characteristic is the combination of interests and convergence of two factors and their
conscious cooperation against any danger that threatened the theocratic rule of the empire, whether the threat came from
enemies foreign or domestic Emperor, if it were the source of the corrupting effects heresies. But such a symbiosis puts
invariably Church under the tutelage of imperial power. Nevertheless this is typical and normal for the supremacy of the
Byzantine emperor power versus power of the Church. (Ostrogorsky, Histori e Perandorise Bizantine, 2007:23)

The emperor is not only the supreme commander of the army, the highest judge and legislator alone, and he is the
defender of the church and of the true faith. He is the chosen of God and as such is not only the head master of all but
the living image of the Christian empire given in good faith from God. He is in direct relationship with God, he transcends the temporal and humanity, it is the object of a special cult politico - religious. Such a cult practiced every day in the yard under a suggestive ceremony in the church and attend all court. He said that every portrait is Christian emperor, in every object that surrounds his sacred person, in every word that he leads others and what others ask him. (Aifoldi, 1984:187)

3. Byzantine art

Byzantine art has been a criterion of importance. From the mid-nineteenth century, its success or failure, judged by the degree to which he was seen as a continuation of the classic tradition, identified with ancient Greece. Byzantine art, or not put it like that classic, or lauded as an image of the same tradition. (Spieser, 1991:338-362)

In the cultural field, the Eastern Roman Empire became Hellenic. Some modern Greek historian decide between VIII and IX centuries neohelenismit infancy, namely the use of the new Greek, detached from the language of Attica and set the "genesis of literature neohelenitike circa 1000". In fact, Greek was the language of the State and the Church and everything written in this language. Just Vlachs, nomadic shepherds, many in the highlands of Empire, speak dialects that come from Latin. (Castellan, Histori e Balkanit, 1991:38)

Byzantine culture was seen to be based on two elements: Greek influence, classic, embodied for example in the education and teaching of rhetoric and Jewish and Christian traditions. Cyril Mango, Byzantine culture sees as an amalgam of the two, with a predominance of the latter, Christian influence. (Mango, Byzantium: The Empire of New Rome, 1980)

At the points of view, superstitious elements and medieval Byzantine culture are emphasized more strongly. Rather, Speros Vrionis mention this combination as "hybrid", and Byzantine culture as a culture of character "hybrid". (Vryonis, 1967:31)

Education elites dominated by the study of Greek rhetorical techniques. Specialized fields such as law, philosophy and theology receive a thorough motivation, which Magdalino Paul called "vital lubricant of all government machine". (Magdalino, 1993:336)

A large part of this preparation, skillful exercises standing in for classical themes or subjects, and was preceded by grammar, detailed study of old authors. His language was artificial high style, based on the style and vocabulary of the study authors, who were far from the Greek spoken at the time. In fact "imitation" was announced as a goal of education expressed in Byzantine and Byzantine literature. (H.Hunger, On the imitation of Antiquity in Byzantine litarature, 1969 - 70:17-38)

Much more than the study of Byzantine literature thriving history of Byzantine art in countries historically associated with religious and architectural heritage Byzantine scholars may often see it as part of its Orthodox tradition. (Barber, 2005:147-156). It has also been slow to focus its secessio from the style and patronage. Esthetic evaluation, Byzantine art can actually be more difficult than that of Byzantine literature, because many people are drawn from Byzantine icons and Byzantine churches, without being aware that Byzantine art and architecture were also associated with contemporary conventions and played a special role in Byzantine society. Byzantine Art seduce directly as an art of beauty, luxury and spirituality, as indicated by the popularity of Byzantine exposures in Europe in recent years, especially the iconographic exhibition. (Cameron, Bizantinet, 2008:237)

Visual Arts in Byzantium were not excluded from this intellectual approach and classical. Even the artistic and literary production in this society dependent on patronage and concept artist was still crude, in addition, the relationship between patron and artist are something that usually does not have information. (Belting, Likeness and Presence: A History of the Image Before the Era of Art, 1994). Byzantine artists working environments embedded within technical and iconographic. Byzantine Icons born not far from personal inspiration and spontaneous painter often convey a message more complex iconographic and doctrinal. (Cameron, Bizantinet, 2008:207)

Byzantine pictures and medieval art and literature as it generally took place within religious topics. Feudal class and the clergy have used painting as a means to distract the masses from the real-world problems. They aimed to create the illusion believer of "a heavenly world" and hope to provoke the eternal life of heaven, which I really identify with human life. According to scholars, the Byzantine Divine contemplation achieved through sensual images. From this conceptual Esthetic principle derived propensity to everything that has gone on painting material. In Byzantine art Unreal principle triumphed. Requested by the artist within the strict rules and canons, which exclude his imagination, not reflected the real figures but the idea that lay at the basis of the ideal type, the unchanging essence expressing its metaphysical. Types iconographic tradition that recognizes, the prototype features portraits of Christ, the Virgin Mary and other saints and iconographic schemes in the process of developing more secular medieval art have changed quite small.
That’s why they are valuable human traits of living life as a true expression encountered rare but very meaningful and side of reflecting objective reality to these paintings conceived by religious mysticism. (Ohamo, 1974)

Byzantine visual culture had emerged from the rich visual culture of antiquity but is different from it, facing in the same time with the dilemmas of identity and well characterized reference Byzantine literature. Because of this ambiguity identity, some buildings dating is difficult: the so-called "ivory of Trier", for example, that reflects the achievement of memorabilia in Constantinople and their reception by the emperor, has been well established in the fifth century in the ninth. (Clanan, 2002: 24-26) Even Teodorës and Justinian mosaics in Ravenna room for disagreement even though in a narrower range. (McClanan, 2002:136)

4. Byzantine architecture

Religious buildings, being requested and completed their religion, well show different aspects of historical development, economic and social development and therefore their study is of great interest. (Meksi, 2004:7)

Important works of art with that known from centuries of medieval architecture belong. This is explained by the fact that the architecture was associated with everyday needs, housing, land protection, cult, and the needs of leading political forces of the time for monumental works.

Period of Justinian (527-565), was most intense in the area of construction, especially those of a military character. But there exist a civil constructions as waterworks, and profanity, as churches:

But there were only adornment that gave St. Sophia glow. Visitors see its architecture seemed magnificent. Greater sign of witchcraft constitute the cupola, an unprecedented height and width, a concave area with full forty windows on all sides, which made it seem "like hanging in the sky with a golden perch". (J. J. Norwich, Bizanti, 2005:69)

An important place among the monuments of medieval architecture, buildings occupied Christian worship. While apartments within castles were simple, Christian religious buildings consisted of large buildings, the basilica type or central plan. Basilicas were buildings that had a pronounced longitudinal stretch. They were divided into three main areas (naves) through a system pilastra or arcades on the columns and the roof covered with wooden lattice (Hellenistic version) or vault (Oriental version). On the eastern side was placed where the altar apse, while the main entrance from the west and was usually preceded by a parasalë (narthex). More rare are religious buildings with central plan. Their characteristic is building on a main environment located in the center of the building. Unlike basilicas in these constructions prevail against him longitudinal axis vertical. These buildings covered in most cases with a dome, are the basic features of Byzantine architecture. Other features of Byzantine ecclesiastical architecture: massive drums on which supports the dome, after painting the brick and rich conception of interior space that creates a sense of grandeur. (Historise, 2002:356-359)

History of Byzantium in 324 starts with the establishment of Constantinople and ends in 1453, with its conquest by Muslim Turks. According to this definition, Byzantine architecture, had a duration of 11 centuries, regardless of its survival after 1453 in many countries with Orthodox religion. In other words, monuments raised in this empire represent some common characteristics Byzantine and make readily distinguishable from some other cultures and styles as Romanico, Gotico or Islamico. After the seventh century or better after the ninth century, Byzantine architecture created a physiognomy that maintained itself until the end. While in previous centuries IV - VI is deeply ancient architecture even in the transformation process. There would be many reasons to establish a dividing line in the seventh century, to distinguish so early Christian architecture and Byzantine period precedent for the period ahead. With such a definition would leave out exactly Byzantine architecture during its first golden era Justiniana, "without St. Sophia Byzantine architecture is like a body without a head." But sometimes historical chronologies, do not coincide with architectural chronologies. (Mango, Architettura Bizantina, 1974:9)

Byzantium fell in 1453, but his spiritual tradition, and political, not disappeared. Faith, culture and Byzantine spiritual concept, continued to live exerting their influence, and riddled political and cultural life of the European peoples, whether in the former Byzantine territories beyond old if the empire. (Ostrogorsky, Histori e Perandorise Bizantine, 2007:451)

References

Integration Policy Concerning Temporary Labor Migrants as a Part of Geoeconomical Strategy of Russia in Eurasia

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Abstract

Recently Russia joined the countries depending on inflow of foreign labor force. We concluded that immigration into Russia from main countries of origin was chaotic. Attempts of its regulation are unilateral, and depend on Russian side only. Countries of origin “push” their inhabitants trying to solve financial and social issues at the expense of migrant population. But Russia gets significant costs such as illegal migration, social conflicts increase and outflow of the part of money supply from host country. Recently approved Conception of Migration Policy makes the Government of Russia responsible for labor migrants exclusively, without taking into consideration the responsibility of other actors of foreign labor force market (including authorities of countries of origin) to take part into the integration of temporary labor migrants in host country. It requires fundamentally new approaches to research of emigration potential of countries of origin and immigration potential of host country in respect to economic and demographic capacity on host country, settlement policy of migrants and arrangement of much more comfort conditions for them in the aggregate with decrease of potential sources of conflict on the territory of migrants settlement and occupation. We consider that Russia should apply several new methods of economic, financial and social stimulation of participants of foreign labor force market in Russia. These methods allow to work out consolidated model of integration policy concerning temporary labor migrants and to make responsible for integration policy both host country and states of origin.

1. Introduction

State integration policy is based on the evaluation of criteria which are indexes of country attraction for migrants and comfort of conditions of their entrance, residence and employment in the territory of host country. It being known that unlike adaptation the efficiency of integration is also willingness of local inhabitants to share immigrant values, cultural norms and rules of behavior.

Index MIPEX, developed by British Council and Migration Policy Group, contributes to analysis of the integration policy using seven criteria: labour market mobility; family reunion for third-country nationals; education; political participation; long-term residence; access to nationality; anti-discrimination.

It should be paid much attention to such aspects of temporary migrants integration in Russia: access to labor market and labor discrimination; labor migrant’s desire to have permanent residence in Russia, bring the family into Russia, to get residence permit and citizenship. Integration of foreign temporary labor migrants and permanent migrants in Russia (living more than 3 years according to Russian legislation) has its own features. Many migrants, being temporary labor migrants, may stay for long terms in Russia or move from origin countries and to Russia from time to time.

Former investigations based on MIPEX demonstrated that Russia is the country from the group of states with “varied exclusion” (Prokhorova, 2011). This approach to migrant’s integration includes precise differentiation of rights and opportunities between temporary migrants and citizens of the country. Migrants are considered to be like temporary labor resources without permit for permanent residence: they are successfully involved in the labor market but don’t have many civilian rights, for example, political ones. The principal feature of “varied exclusion” approach is employment of illegal labor migrants who can’t protect their rights (Schierup, Hansen & Castles, 2006).

Relying on former investigations of various researchers (Bommes & Morawska, 2005; Carrera, 2006; Drobigeva, 1998; Iontsev & Ivakhnyuk, 2013; Mukomel’, 2012; Penninx, 2005; Vasilyeva, 2010; Vermeulen, 1977), it should be noted that the most important types of integration are linguistic, cultural, social and economic ones.

Linguistic integration is acquirement of official language of host country, its active use in various living situations.

Cultural (social) integration is acquirement of rights and opportunities by migrants equal to residents ones to get residence permit, protect from discrimination, take part in political life and reunite with family.
Economic integration is active involvement of migrant in economical relations on the basis of parity relations with residents. It relates to equal rights in access to labor market, getting equal payment for equal work, getting education, and other rights.

Efficiency of these types of integration will be considered in the paper.

2. Background: Tendencues in Labour Immigration into Russia

Russia has joined the countries depending on foreign labor force recently. In 2011, according to official statistical data, migrant inflow from CIS came to 356535 persons, it being known that the greatest part of labor migrants come from Uzbekistan (20.8%), following the Ukraine (12.2%), Kyrgyzstan (11.7%), Kazakhstan (10.2%), Tajikistan (9.8%). There is tendency for increase of migration inflow despite of declarations of future demographic resources lack and exhausting of source of cheap labor force from Central Asian states correspondingly. Taking into account that the most migrants come to Russia from the Central Asia, we intend to evaluate the efficiency of integration of temporary labor migrants from this region. Significant intensity of migration movement of labor force from the Central Asia to Russia bears the necessity in adequate integration policy with respect to coming unskilled labor force and responsiveness of local community interests. The significance of migration from the Central Asia towards Russia is very great. Russia faces with continuous inflow of Russians from this region, but at the same time the proportion of title nations of the region (Tajik, Uzbek, Kirghiz, Kazakh, Turkmen) increases rapidly in migration outflow towards Russia. For example, during the first decade of XXI-century every third migrant from Tajikistan, who arrived and settled in Russia, belonged to title nationalities of the Central Asia region, for migration exchange with Kyrgyzstan – every tenth was the representative of title nationalities, and with Uzbekistan – only every eighteenth. Approximately 30 thousand students from Central Asia study in Russian high schools. Many of them have a job, representing transitional group among scholar and labor migrants. In 2010, about 1.5 million regular temporary labor migrants from Central Asia worked in Russia, and it reached 60 percent of all the foreign labor force (Ryazantsev, 2007).

Studies demonstrate that over the past decade migration activity of population in Central Asian states increased rapidly. New socio-demographic categories of population were involved in migration flows. In particular, rural inhabitants, women and young men began to take active part in the migration. It being known that demographic disparity among CIS countries has great impact on migration outflow growth from Central Asia. Russia faces great issues with natural reproduction whereas population in Central Asia has continuous growth. Over the past decade the substantial population increase was typical for Uzbekistan, where the population increased from 24.5 million persons to 27.1 million persons (since 2000 till 2008). Uzbekistan is the most multi-populated country from the Central Asia region, where birth rate is 2.5 child per a woman (on the average for the period since 2005 till 2010). The highest birth rate is in Tajikistan – 3.3 child per a woman in childbearing age. Since 2005 till 2010 the population in Tajikistan increased from 6.1 million to 7.2 million persons. Kyrgyzstan and Turkmenistan demonstrate the same birth rate, but the increase of population was less than in Tajikistan. Kazakhstan has the least birth rate – only 1.9 child per a woman in childbearing age, but increase of population was registered (from 14.9 million to 15.6 million persons).

Till 2020 the size of population in CIS will rise and amount 282 million peoples. But increase will be uneven. Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan like two main suppliers of labor force into Russia, and also Turkmenistan will be the main demographic leaders.

Taking into account extreme differentiation of migration flow, labor migrants make a lot of problems for residents and authorities. However, there are several backgrounds, which allow to use potential of migrants from the Central Asia more productively comparing with emigrants from the countries of Far abroad. It’s determined by the following factors:

1. Cultural and historic factor. Eurasian migration system has predominantly emerged in the borders of the former Soviet Union. Socio-economic links between national republics and Russian language spread became the fundamental basis of USSR creation and genesis. It’s evidently that citizens of Central Asia choose Russia as a host country, taking into consideration that Russian language proficiency and understanding the mentality increase the chance for job placement in Russia.

2. Political factor. Eurasian integration enlargement gives an opportunity for free movement of Eurasian Economic Commonwealth residents in borders of this integration grouping. In present time citizens of Tajikistan, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan, excluding Turkmenistan, have free entrance into Russia. Customs Union (Russia, Byelorussia, Kazakhstan) with its future members including Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, on the one hand, promotes legalization of temporary labor migrants from Central Asia on the territory of Russia, and on the other hand, facilitates their arrival and employment in Russia which determines the increase of migration inflow into Russia. At the same time, the Government of Uzbekistan doesn’t approve
of its state accession into Customs Union and condemn its citizens for problems with Russian legislation in the case of violation of rules of visa, border or migration control.

3. Reduction of barriers in acception of labor migrants and members of their families will bring out of the shadow the significant part of migration flow, but the main actors of the foreign labor force market will keep on responsibility for adaptation of labor migrants on the Russian territory.

Social factor. Sustainable “migration networks”, based on social contacts, relative and social communications, developed in Russia. As different studies show, the major part of labor migrants from Central Asia get fixed up in a job using social networks and private agents. At the same time, the part of state offices and private employment agencies is considered to be very insignificant. It's undoubtedly that similar networks became important elements of successful integration of temporary labor migrants in Russia.

On the other hand, geopolitical proximity of Russia to the states of Central Asia reinforces illegal migration flow, what complicates integration of temporary labor migrants in Russia and their account by migration authorities. Besides, there are some internal issues in Russia preventing successful integration of citizens from Central Asia in the host country.

3. Results and Discussions

Our research results demonstrate that effectiveness of integration of temporary labour migrants is extremely unfavorable. Using content-analysis for studying of principal elements of integration (access to labor market and work satisfaction; absence of work discrimination; issues in getting of citizenship and permit for residence; desire for permanent residence and conditions of residence; existence of linguistic issues; opportunity of political activity; opportunity for family reunion; access to education and healthcare services; communication with authorities and law), we concluded:

1. The work discrimination is the most important problem which lies in absence of legal labor contracts and guarantees of employment and social provision. The issues in the field of medical care and dwelling are the greatest for labor migrants from Central Asia.

2. Extreme bureaucracy in getting of legal documents, problems with communications with authorities and power structures. The number of crimes, committed with emigrants from Central Asia, increases. It especially relates to those migrants who lost job and didn’t intend to leave Russia.

3. Russians neglect natives from Central Asia, feeling threads from them. Such emotions bear intolerance and negative relation to the temporary labor migrants. Although many Russians find that the country needs in labor of migrants in some fields of the economic, but at the same time about 56% of Russians are not able to live near the families of labor migrants, work together with them, to led own children in the same school with the children of Central Asia emigrants. Thereby many residents advocate the limitation of labor migrants entrance using quotas, organized engaging and etc.

4. By expert’s opinion, residents from Central Asia consider the job placement in Russia as a strategy of life success since childhood. At the same time, many of them come to Russia alone, working here and sending solid remittances to homeland. Only about 14 percent of temporary labor immigrants wish to get citizenship in Russia by any channel (education, marriage, etc.). However, over last years we may observe the tendency when labor migrant comes to Russia with family, and his children became more successful in integration into host society.

5. By expert’s estimates, many of labor migrants from Central Asia live illegally on the territory of Russia, at the same time many have legal entrance and legal labor contract, but often stay over the terms of contract and violate Russian legislation – so, they became irregular (illegal) migrants. Concern of Russian Government relative to labor migrants from Central Asia is linked with impossibility to account their exact number.

6. It's evidently that residents from Central Asia can’t take part in Russian political life, but their significant number in Russian economics forces Government of Russia to be more diplomatic in its geopolitical strategy.

7. Compact living is inhere for emigrants from Central Asia, their social circle is limited to the alignment of communication with the employer, the owner of the dwelling, the law enforcement authorities and Federal Migration Service. Most successfully adapted are those who speak Russian well, but there are practically no such representatives among the migrants of new generation.
4. Conclusions and Policy Implications

We conclude that immigration into Russia from the principal countries of origin was chaotic. Attempts of its regulation were unilateral and depended mainly on Russia. Countries of origin “push” their citizens, trying to save financial and social issues at the expense of migrant population. However, Russia faces significant costs as illegal migration, increase of social conflicts and outflow of the part of money supply from host country. Temporary labor migrants themselves face significant issues with integration into host community. None of the types of integration can’t be called as a success.

Besides, approved Conception of Migration Policy till 2020 has inadequate view at the organizational system of promotion to foreign workers, doesn’t consider migration filters for limitation of unskilled labor force flows. Besides, the Conception makes responsible only the Government of Russian Federation for the integration of temporary labor migrants, and doesn’t pay attention for responsibility of other actors of foreign labor force market to take part in integration of labor migrants, including authorities of the countries of origin. Besides, in Russia there is no acknowledged model of integration policy by society and state, whether it is to be its own model or borrowed from other countries importing labor force. The situation is complicated by the fact that the majority of migrant workers in Russia stays illegally with violation of the rules of visa, border and migration control.

Should be developed a new model of integration of labor migrants in Russia with the commonality of socio-cultural, political and economic values of the major donor countries and the host country.

This will require the use of new approaches in the study of emigration potential of donor countries and the capacity of the host countries from the point of view of economic and demographic burden on the host community, the policy of resettlement of migrants and creating of more comfortable environment of their living conditions together with a reduction of potential sources of conflict in the territory of their residence and employment. Designed with regard to Russian conditions model of integration of temporary labor migrants should be a system of multi-level adaptation, including intergovernmental dialogue at the level of the federal government, provincial, municipal levels of government, as well as specific employers experiencing labor shortages. Preparation of worker for life in Russia must start in the country of its origin.

The mechanism of equal economic relations is to develop a scheme of distribution of powers between the actors of foreign labor force market (donor governments, the government of the Russian Federation as the host country for temporary labor migrants, regional governments and municipal governments, business and NGO’s, Diaspora and the media) and the provision for them financial, material, production and technological and social benefits in their implementation of the mechanism of integration policies that will promote these areas of work for temporary labor migrants as the policy of settlement with provision of dwelling for migrants, employment and socio-cultural adaptation of migrants in the host community.

References


Policy
The Dramaturgy and the Amateur Arberesh Theater

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Abstract

In the framework of the artistic literary creativity of the Arbëresh of Italy, after a relatively long period of silence during the last decades, nowadays it can be noticed a revival of the creative activity of arbëresh poets and writers. Once, in the Arbëresh environments poetry has been more developed, but also Albanian drama originated there, but if we consider that "Emira" of AF Santori actually marked the beginnings of dramaturgy in Albanian. The development of Arbëresh poetry has been favored by the circumstances connected to the idea that there have always been poets there. However, it should be mentioned that in terms of diversity, Arbëresh literature has never been richer than today. To the volumes of poetry are added further dramatic creations, especially by the comedies of Di Maxhios, the Dushko Vetmos etc., but there is also a development of the short prose. This paper deals with the richness and the linguistic and literary features of the dramatic works of the Arbëresh, by considering it as a developing genre in the literature of the nineteenth century, but now from a different prespective. The simple, communicative language with lexical richness clearly shows the values and its foundation on the tradition and living Arbëresh culture.

Keywords: arbëresh comedy in Albanian language, thematic diversity, dramatic genre, Albanian language, literary traditions, ethno-cultural values.

One of the most interesting sides of that literary and cultural revival of Italy in our time is certainly also the dramaturgy, as written composition but also as an amateur movement. You know, that on the historical - literary, just in the settlements arberesh Italy is the starting point of the drama as a genre. Anton Francesco Santori with his "Emira" still remains the first playwright of the literature arbëresh and overall dramaturgy Albanian. Santori was one of the most productive authors of the arbëresh literature, but unfortunately also one of the most unfortunate; most of his poems, prose and drama, for tens of years have been forgotten, without being published. Lately arberesh scholars have published or are preparing to publish some of the most unknown work by this author. A few years ago, with Karmell Kandreva, it was announced on "Drita" the discovery of a manuscript with the title "Satire," A work which we later transcribed and we have provided with notes and then we published it (Shkurtaj, 1982). In 1984, on the occasion of the centenary of the death of F.A.Santore, the arberesh scholar Francis Solano has published its entire work "Ermira." Also adding acts that were not known before. (Solano, 1984) "Ermira" is, therefore, the first drama known in the Albanian language.

Another dramatic work also unknown lately is "Aleks Dukagjini" which has been found and provided with notes by Professor Francis Solano and was published in the series "The Fire." With "Aleks Dukagjini" the figure of Santore as a playwright acquires new dimensions and values. This is an opera in four acts with a person in the period of Skenderbe. At the center there is a known conflict between Aleks Dukagjini and Zaharia Gropa because of the beautiful Jerina. The author has been able to paint the character of the main representative personages of two known Albanians ports and acquired an interesting dramatic atmosphere.

If F.A.Santore, as the first Albanian playwright but also as the first author arberesh and also the author of the first Albanian-language drama has the merit of the precedence in this genre, the circumstances known to the arberesh diasporas, among his plays and those that were written after the arberesh authors, it has come to create a great time interruption, a distance that cannot be not taken into consider. Indeed, in the arberesh drama of nowadays, the influence of Santore is neither sensitive nor direct.
Many of the contemporaries of F. A. Santore as you know, are dedicated to poetry and have not come close to the drama; perhaps also the fact that at that time they did not see in those environments no real possibility for the development of an artistic life and even conditions to build a theater, even amateur. This, perhaps, for reasons that poetry, being more spontaneous but also more binding for authors had more chance of being published. However, it remains the fact that the drama would start arberesh generations in the santoriana direction only in the last thirty years. The principal authors are three: Dushko Vetmo in Frasinite (Calabria) with only two plays, mainly the type of "Lesedramma" (= a drama just to read): "And even the moon" and "The stone desert". The second, Zef del Gaudio (Giuseppe del Gaudio) Shen - Koll from parts of Cattanzaro with a series of dramas mainly with the theme of the history of Albania and the establishment of arberesh in Italy. We can mention among other things, the trilogy of Skenderbe "The marriage of Jaceria" consists of three parts: "The return of the brave", "The bleeding marriage" and "Moses of Dibra." Part of an another trilogy, not yet completed, are also the dramas "Axhiselao Milan" and "Zef Serembre", which were disclosed in the ranks of arberesh readers and beyond. Let's focus on the most accurate data on the drama "Axhiselao Milan", whose stories, as you also know the name of the hero, take place in the period of the Kingdom of the Bourbons.

The protagonists are: the known arberesh, the valiant Axhiselao Milano and his arberesh compatriots Shen - Benedikt, Shen - Miter Korones, Spixanes etc, men and women who are fighting against the tyrannies. In a paper on this work of Del Gaudio, Paskal Renda writes: "Choosing the work (= reading) the drama so many ideas come to mind: the bad luck that you will act around people, against the poor, against those who are thirst for freedom and who are convinced that you cannot live without freedom, against the people who cannot stand violence and injustice of the tyrant. And Axhiselao? A hero who has the courage to raise his hand against the king, a guy who has the in the veins hot Albanian blood, of honor struggling with all his might and who gives his life for freedom and falling like a hero to win the tyrannies (Renda).

The last act of the drama reminds us, in some way, the farce known Italian Sako and Vanseti: situations change but the injustice is always the same... The drama is an apotheosis of arberesh heroism. We also see how they fight and how willing to unsay women also arberesh are. In the embodiment of Madalena and Hareza there is represented the arberesh woman that unlike the women of southern Italy, in the front part of the war, in the revolt and this makes him because inside his chest emerge feeling of freedom. With so much strength and masculinity stands out is the mother of Axhiselau, his internal conflict, "she says at the beginning not to hurry since it was not yet time to war, so she asks her son and his friend's patience and sapience. She does this, not because she feels it, but as a mother, because she fears not only for her husband but also for her son. On the other hand she resists, until the time comes that there is no longer: she oppose to tyrannies.

Her words are: "How can you continue to live in his modest, suspects, without peace in the family and under control day and night .... for them (= then) we are anarchists, foreign, nests of snakes in our homes, hungry wolves arberesh students and their professors masters of hate.

The play ends with very significant words and suitable not only to characterize the inner world of Axhiselau but also with values always present and that touch the hearts of all democrats in every time and place "Freedom is not offering or buying, but deals (= you earn it) just struggling. This is the message of this drama, which, if it will ever staged, surely it would be discovered even with much weight power and influence. The third Zef Skiro Maji (Giuseppe Schiro May) that acts and works at the Arberesh Hora (Plana degli Arberesh) in Sicily, is undoubtedly the best known name in the field of dramaturgy arberesh today.

Much of the works of Di Maggio are now known even among us: in the past, in addition to the poems published in anthologies "The strong roots " (Ismajli, 1978) and "Green Branch" (Jorgaqi, 1998) was also published in the collection with poems selected by him "Beyond the mountain behind the hill" instead of the theater A.Z.Cajupi "of Korca had staged the comedy" The Wedding ", the subject of which, later, were also booklets of works for the Theatre of Opera and Dance with the music of N.Zoraqi. Meanwhile, it must be said that Zef Skiro Maji is not only a poet and play righter. He is distinguished by the two other authors mentioned above for the reason that while they (Dushko Vetmo and Del Gaudio) wrote only dramas, at the same time he was the director and organizer of an amateur arberesh theater, the first of its kind in the Albanian diasporas. The center of the theater is the Hora or Piana degli Albanesi, a place with about 7000 inhabitants, mainly arberesh who speak Albanian and strongly related to the language and Albanian traditions.


After "The Wedding", which was one of his early comedies made up in the scene with amateur actors of the Plain,
he has staged and has successfully represented (in Hora and in other arberesh establishments of Sicily and Calabria) most comedies he wrote that we mentioned before. In particular, were seen "The Cider 1860," "Buonaora," "Many visits." "Magic love".

Let us pause a bit in a short presentation of the main ideas that form the basis of the plays by this author. May is known as a poet with trends of humor and satire. His creations, in general, are affected by the current situation, the lives of today's arberesh, giving priority to the expression of identity and of the virtues of this diaspora.

Through a cute humor, irony and involving satire he hits and denies, first, those parts that stops him, in being clearly arberesh. So he wants to express and spend more fury to the preservation of traditions, rituals and the Albanian language as the clearest indicators and ethnic of Albanians in a foreign land. This tendency of satire is spread over in his dramatic works, as in, "Magic love," "The robe," " Many visits "and especially" Buonaora".

He thinks that these "modern times" are ruining the people, are doing to become like the sons of the old Stefan, the protagonist of" The robe "who want to take his wealth, while others are not feelings towards him. "Their parent is only their dresses, I have only the name".

"Ah, this modern life"- says Stefan neighbor. "Before the children honored their parents. And we, arberesh, had always them in the heart. But today, in these times. We see that the feelings have changed. However, the author draws the lesson that the parents are always warmhearted; it knows neither anger nor hate to his son. The old Stefan divides his entire robe (= richness) to his hereditary soon occur uncarrying towards the fate of his father. The old man spends his days in the old nursery, away from his children, who flattered only to have his richness and to ensure their lives only. Here ends the play and each dialogue and said assumed a tone of unmasking satire.

"Many visits" is one of the works in which, as already noted, the criticism arberesh, Di Maggio has taken an important qualitative step. The action here becomes thicker, the dialogue is weighed and relevance valid and in accordance with the Pirandello subject. The drama makes you think, but also make you relive, and also suffer. The drama is set as always in Piana degli Arberesh: two families' lives (resides) in the same house, one of them is from this world, but the other is from the world of the spirits. Who sees the other family? The boy represents people who find themselves in difficult situations and who are looking for reasons to give meaning to life. The other brother "the beautiful" and the sister, representing the youth of today. At the end the sick boy heals and the comedy, as it is usual for the genre, ends so cheerful.

Another work is well received by the audience arberesh "The cider in 1860." It is located in the Plain of Arberesh as always, but in the time of Garibaldi, just when he landed in Sicily and the patriotic forces arberesh helped him to organize a revolt against the Bourbons. Certainly one of the plays most affected of Di Maggio is "Buonaora" written on the occasion of the 500th anniversary of the establishment of Piana degli Arberesh. The scenes of "Buonaora" belong to the last years and to the very period when immigration of arberesh increased in the west of European countries and America, especially to Germany. In the house of Masi Muzaka, a retired worker, an important event happens: suddenly all his three children (Jakini, Poles and Marku) decide to immigrate to Germany, since they could not find work in the Plains. Without overwhelm the contrast between the father and the mother's tears, (Vo Menes) the boys leave, with the faith and the promise that they would return as soon as they had at their disposal a bit of money. The first takes with him his pregnant wife, while the latter, Poles, leaves his beloved with the promise that he would return and they would be married to the Plain. But life in Germany, wanting and not wanting, involving into its vortex arberesh the three boys, their acquired behavior, mentality and German culture. Since Muzaka Masi and his wife, as typical representatives of the traditional life arberesh and how conservative devotees of the Albanian language, traditions and virtues remote with which generation after generation had grown up in the Plains, smell the evil that was approaching. Muzaka is fully convinced that "the fate of arberesh that emmigra twice is heavier than the other "so for this he begs the children not to leave, but to stay in the village with what they had."

"When someone is forced to leave the plain, I am reminded of when our fathers left Albania; think of the pain of those who leave their home with their people.... tha the elderly parent, who his mother, who, a few younger brother .... that he could not go along with them. And then came here with the idea of returning one day ... But then again their children were born to them and the suffering of their grandparents became nostalgia and mewmories.... always feeling that arberesh were here, some more than others .... But you go now in Germany! The pain is still larger..."

Vo Mena, when she sees that his three sons are leaving for Germany, hastens to give it an arberesh buonaora (= pendant), in which he also put a bit of the plain, with the hope that "with that in the neck would not forget the Plains and the native language ...."But she was very disappointed when after four years; the children that visited the Piana are completely changed: the eldest, Jakin, became a father, but instead that the mother was filled with joy feels like poisoned since he does not have taught him not an arberesh word; the grandson speaks only German. The second, Pal, forgetting his promise to Mara, that he would married here just when he would put a little money aside to build the house etc., Comes without any shame with a nice little German who looks like her mother MARIA and so it bends to pray. The
smallest of the three, changed and influenced too much by foreign culture has brought with it English "boyfriend" with hair that looks like a woman and is regarded as such by all the Plain. The house of Masi Muzaka looks like the Tower of Babel: someone speaks German, some English ... and English with his face as a wash of milk mocks the language and traditions arberesh.

The comedy Estata well designed and the action flows so cute, attractive and scenes full of humor, with dialogue and of those impressive, full of irony and sarcasm heavy on the wounds of the time, such as immigration apex of youth arberesh in other countries, inside or outside Italy. "Germany - says Di Maggio - is regarded as a symbol, because this can also be Palermo, Rome, Milan, Turin, etc. as possible places of internal migration of arberesh. In very significant figure of Masi Muzaka, Di Maggio has created one of his most beautiful, has embodied the arberesh that even after five hundred years from the time of the shift from Albania, feels proud of his origin. Significant are the words that Muzaka tells his son, Pal, in the last scene:

"That pendant that your mother gave you were two of us, your parents and the Plain, that came with you, so you could stay in touch with the traditions that we have had in the past and that we still have today, even if it has been five hundred years, it looks like a game that to you we were arberesh for all these century? You left for work, I know! Here there was no work to date and have passed all these century. But what was the need to change your soul? You could not remain those who you were: calm, honest and arberesh? I do not say that you have become criminals too but now you are honest Germans."

Mazi Muzaka looks at the reality in the eye, without disappointment, without getting lost. He understands that under current conditions of southern Italy, the immigration is an irrepressible process for which he not blame the children who went to Germany, and they would still went to another place to earn a living. Like an arberesh and like how honest person who is asking him to their children not to humiliate the good name of his country, to not try a fake shine of the civilization of modern Europe. "You can be arberesh in Germany, if you live with the hope of returning. But, if those who come into your home will break down you with their "civilization" then you will change.... I do not want you to change, and every person has the right to be what it is. But I want you to stay strong, because our civilization is beautiful. When civilization is civilization it must be respected.

The comedy "Buonaora" which is the seventh work of Di Maggio marks a success, a nice gift for the author in his Arberesh Piana degli 500th anniversary of its establishment and its population with arberesh.

References

Renda, P. “Mondo Albanese”.
To What Extent is the HDI a Good Indicator of the Relative 'Success' or 'Failure' of National Social Policies?

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Abstract

The Human Development Index was launched in 1990. The idea was to measure development not just through income but also by looking at various indicators such as life expectancy and schooling. The HDI is not a good indicator of national social policies' success or failure. It suffers from many problems including; having fewer indicators to monitor for the sake of simplicity; poorly chosen indicators; methodological problems; calculation flaws and trade-off issues between variables. However, this does not change the fact that the index is, at the moment, is one of the most trustworthy and cited indexes in the field of development and it is welcomed by many governments and institutions around the world. Having said that, there are still more ways for us to develop more accurate and targeted, well grounded indexes to monitor the progress of countries in human development.

Keywords: Human Development, Social policy, HDI.

Human development is an idea, which encompasses improving the richness of human life, enlarging the choices of people and enhancing their wellbeing (UNDP, 1990 p. 10). For many years, human development was measured only by GDP (Gross Domestic Product) which is an economic indicator. When the UNDP realised that the economic growth itself does not necessarily create human development, the idea of the human development index (HDI) was developed (UNDP, 2011 p. 1).

The Human Development Index was launched in 1990. The idea was to measure development not just through income but also by looking at various indicators such as life expectancy and schooling. Since 1990, the index has been revised many times. The last index, which is 2011 at the time of writing this essay, was published in November 2011. The last index aims to monitor the progress of national social policies in three dimensions: health, education and living standards. Each dimension has different indicators. If we have a look at the indicators that the index employs, we can see that there are three main indicators that are newly revised by the UNDP. Life expectancy at birth is the indicator of the health component of the HDI. It takes 20 years as the minimum value and 83.4 years (Japan's life expectancy) as the maximum. If a country's life expectancy at birth is 75.2 (Vietnam), it is allocated a value 0.870. If it is 83.4 (Japan), it gets 1.00 from the health component (UNDP, 2011 p. 168).

As for education, this is measured by two variables; the mean years of schooling for adults aged 25 and expected years of schooling for children of school entering age. It used to be measured by adult literacy rate, and enrolment rate into primary, secondary and tertiary schools (UNDP, 2011).

For living standards, the indicator is gross national income per capita. Again, this is a new indicator. The minimum income is $100 and the maximum is $107,721 (Qatar's income per capita in 2011). In the same way as health, each country is ranked and allocated a value from 0-1. The higher gross national income a country has, the nearer to 1 it gets.

Exploring the indicators, it can be seen that they are very simple and straightforward. However, there are debates and discussions concerning the method of the index. In this regard, two main issues will be discussed in this essay: first, the indicators that the index employs will be examined and evaluated. Secondly, the methodology that the index uses will be analysed in the light of the calculation system of the HDI values for each country. Since Stiglitz (2009) stated, "What you measure affects what you do", it is very significant to evaluate what and how an international body, which represents 193 countries around the world, measures in the name of human development (Forgeard, Jayawickreme and Seligman, 2011 p. 79).

This essay will argue that the HDI is not a good indicator of the relative success or failure of countries. What we mean by the HDI is not the Human Development Report, which monitors the progress of countries in many areas even in contraceptive prevalence rate and satisfaction with life (UNDP, 2011). Unlike the human development reports, the HDI
itself lacks indicators in many areas of social policy such as political participation, social security and environmental issues. It also does not monitor moral development in anyway, which is one of the elements of human development (Basu, 2005 p. 3). Furthermore, the variables that the index uses are far from reflecting human development in a given country and the methodology of the index is highly debatable and causes concerns such as trade-off issue (Ravallion, 2010, p.7). Having said that, this essay will also argue that the HDI is one of the most comprehensive and reliable databases which monitors 187 countries and territories in the world at present on an annual basis (UNDP, 2011b).

In terms of the indicators, there have been considerable discussions about the appropriateness of the variables, which the index uses, even though the UNDP acknowledges that all criticisms are taken into account (Klugman, Rodriguez and Choi, 2011). It is obvious that choosing an indicator for the index is a challenging task. In order to introduce an indicator to the index the data has to be internationally comparable, reliable and regularly available since the index aims to monitor countries’ progress over time (Raworth and Stewart, 2003 p. 141). First of all, excluding many variables from the index to make it more accurate and simple, prevents it from being comprehensive and reflective of human development. Secondly, some of the indicators are based on predictions about the future and they do not necessarily help us to understand current policies in a nation: rather they are the result of previous policies. Furthermore, as acknowledged by the UNDP, the index is not capable of monitoring short-term changes within a country. The reason for this is that two components of the HDI, namely life expectancy and mean years of schooling, are changing slowly.

For instance, the life expectancy indicator assumes that “...prevailing patterns of age-specific mortality rates at the time of birth will stay the same throughout the infant’s life” (UNDP, 2011 p. 130). The number of years that the index estimates might be representative of the policies of the number of years before which affects the mortality rates at present. However, even if there is a strong relationship between the healthcare policies of a country and mortality rates, it does not necessarily mean that it is not affected by a war, epidemic or natural disaster.

Moreover, it could be argued that in order to get higher ranks in the index, one country could simply invest in an infant healthcare system and improve its rankings dramatically. In that case, it is only an infant care system that has been developed in that country not human development at all. Furthermore, I also argue that for countries that are experiencing internal war such as Turkey, it might be somehow problematic to address this issue without solving the war within the country. These numbers then do not necessarily display the efficiency of countries’ social policies. Iraq and Sri Lanka are obviously going to have problems with the index due to war. Yet, the index tells that the life expectancy was 57.7 years in Iraq according to 2005 statistics right after the war with the U.S, whereas in the last report it was 69.0 years (UNDP, 2011 and 2008). It seems that the UN managed to obtain updated data from Iraq. However, how relevant these numbers are in the case of human development is again a matter of discussion.

As for the education dimension of the index, it has two indicators and one of them is expected years of schooling. As the name suggests, this is an estimation that the index makes by looking at the prevailing patterns of age-specific enrolment rates at the time of data gathering in each country (UNDP, 2011 p. 130). Therefore, we see the very same problem as the life expectancy here. The number of years of schooling therefore does not reflect current policies. Furthermore, countries like Turkey, can make efforts to improve the mean years of schooling by increasing the years of compulsory education but not the quality of it. In that case, we see Turkey has higher rankings due to an increase in the education indicator of the index but the outcome of the years spent in classes could be overlooked. Hence, knowing the number of years people spend in education says little about human development. Moreover, the main purpose of education should be something, other than keeping children within school buildings. For this reason, many international organisations around the world who deal with the education sector aim not to increase the time that people spend in education institutes but to increase the quality of education and to equip people with the necessary skills for life (The World Bank, 2011).

The problem of substitutability is also widely discussed in academic circles (Ravallion, 2010 and Desai, 1991). Any nation who wishes to maximise its ranking in the HDI can focus solely on one indicator either education or life expectancy, (GNI would be the hardest one to improve I suppose), and disregard the others. Even though the UNDP states that “we should not let changes in any of the dimensions go unnoticed” (UNDP, 2010 p.15), Ravallion argues that this might not be the case. He goes on to say that it is not at all clear how the index, by switching the calculation of the HDI values from the arithmetic mean to the geometric mean, makes poor performances in any dimension get noticed (Ravallion, 2010 p. 6).

As for the indicator of a decent standard of living as the index named it, GNI (Gross National Income per capita) replaced GDP in the 2010 report. The rationale behind this change is that GDP does not include transfers from other countries that people receive, such as remittances, whereas GNI includes them (Klugman, Rodriguez and Choi, 2011 p. 20). However, it may well be argued that there is a little need to include an economic indicator in an index, which stresses the importance of human development. Moreover, GNI or GDP plays a very small role in human development or...
happiness or in expanding capabilities where most of the population of a nation live in high living standards and above material needs (Helliwell, Layard and Sachs, 2012 p. 91 and Klugman, Rodriguez and Choi, 2011 p. 30).

As far as the decent standard of living dimension of the index is concerned, it is also worth mentioning that the index shows insightful data about the countries which have a higher GNI per capita but low human development compared to the countries which have low economic values but a higher HDI value in total. For instance, Yemen has $2.213 GNI per capita and ranks 154 in the HDI index, whereas Madagascar has $824 GNI per capita and ranks 151 in the HDI (UNDP, 2011a). The gap between the two countries can be informative. By exposing these kinds of cases, the UN actually does put pressure on these countries who have problems of transparency in money spending, and draw the issue to the attention of international communities.

As for the second main issue, which is the methodology of the index, setting maximum and minimum values for each dimension of the index seems to have the potential to cause debates. At the moment, the index sets a maximum value according to the highest observed values in the time span (1980-2011) and those countries that have lower values score lower on each dimension. It seems very illegitimate that a country like Qatar should receive the full score of 1.00 in the income dimension whilst countries like Sweden or Scandinavian countries which are often shown as model welfare systems (Andersen, 2007 p. 2) receive lower score as their income is not $107.721. Does this really say anything about their human development?

Instead of using GNI for each country, a minimum amount of income per capita for good living standards can be calculated for each country according to their own circumstances. For instance, Turkish civil organisations calculate the minimum amount of money to live in a decent standard for a family of four for one month as approximately $1000 in Turkey (Turk-Is, 2012). As long as countries can provide this minimum amount to its citizens and regardless of how much more they can have, they should score 1.00 full point whereas for countries which cannot provide the fixed amount for any given year, the index should give a value less than 1.00 based on how poorly paid people are in that country. Therefore, the total HDI value would decrease. This would decrease the importance of income and make the index more human development centric. However, going into the technical details of estimation or aggregation of this proposed indicator exceeds our limits in this paper. Yet, having this kind of economic indicator may make more sense to those who are not convinced with the significance of economic indicators in a human development index.

In terms of the education dimension of the index, the observed maximum value of mean years of schooling is 13.1 (Czech Republic's mean) and it is 18.0 for expected years of schooling in the HDI 2011. The more a country educates its citizens, the more they score in the HDI no matter how they achieve that. Is that what the UN wants in countries like Kyrgyzstan, in which 9 years compulsory education policy is implemented and it scores one of the lowest in the PISA (OECD, 2010) evaluation? Moreover, 1/3 of the students in Kyrgyzstan do not even have basic reading skills, yet it has 9.3 years schooling in the HDI with 0.71 mean years of schooling index. On the other hand, even though Singapore has one of the lowest mean years of schooling scores (8.8) amongst very high human development countries and lower than Kyrgyzstan in the HDI 2011, the students in Singapore are the 5th highest performing in the PISA 2009 results (OECD, 2010 p. 52 and 13, and UNDP, 2011 p. 127-129). There seems to be a legitimate compatibility problem between the purpose of the index and what the index measures in the education dimension. If the expected outcome of the education process is not to equip people with basic reading and mathematic skills, then there is no problem with measuring the years spent in education. However, as the index implicitly advocates if not explicitly, increasing the years in education should not be ultimate goal of education policies around the world. Nevertheless, some countries seem to be practicing UNDP’s recommendations about schooling.

For example in Turkey, compulsory education was raised to 12 years recently without the necessary infrastructure and skilled professionals (MEB, 2012). Even though this does not prove that Turkish education policy is inspired by the HDI, it may well be argued that it may have been influenced by the HDI approach.

In terms of the weighting of dimensions in the index, it may be argued that although UNDP made it clear that the idea of giving equal weights is not an accident, it is still not convincing. The report suffices by saying that giving equal weights to each dimension shows their equal importance in human development. However, without giving any explanation and logic behind it, this choice seems random. Some even claim that it is arbitrary to give equal weights to the indicators without a legitimate rational (Chowdhury and Squire, 2006 p. 761).

Furthermore, the level of criticism arises in academia at times when academics find this kind of index misleading. Hoyland, Moene and Willumsen (2012 p. 10) argue that the HDI should classify countries into groups instead of ranking them on the grounds that the findings are uncertain and imaginary. An index like the HDI which ranks countries can be deceptive "... not because of wrong indicators, but because the estimation of the scores inherent uncertainty" (Hoyland, Moene and Willumsen, 2012 p. 10).

Although the HDI has attracted many criticisms from a wide range of followers including the Rwandan government...
(2011), it still deserves attention. According to Klugman (2011), the HDI is more searched on Google than its competitor the World Bank's World Development Report (WDR). In terms of academic citations, 4470 articles cited the HDI as oppose to the WDR, which was, cited 3020 times (Klugman, Rodriguez and Choi, 2011 p. 1). Moreover, it revises itself constantly. The reports, which are written by UNDP staff, are informative and enlightening. One of the main advantages of the index is that it comprises excessive international data, which are collected through reliable means so that all countries with few exceptions can be compared. More importantly, it challenged the hegemony of GDP based measurements. Many believe now that the HDI is a much better measurement than GDP, even though it is not perfect (The New York Times, 2010).

In conclusion, The HDI is not a good indicator of national social policies’ success or failure. It suffers from many problems including; having fewer indicators to monitor for the sake of simplicity; poorly chosen indicators; methodological problems; calculation flaws and trade-off issues between variables. However, this does not change the fact that the index is, at the moment, is one of the most trustworthy and cited indexes in the field of development and it is welcomed by many governments and institutions around the world. Having said that, there are still more ways for us to develop more accurate and targeted, well grounded indexes to monitor the progress of countries in human development.

References

Informal Economy in Albania

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Abstract

The main purpose of this paper is to assess the size of the informal sector of the economy in Albania by using indirect approaches: national accounts discrepancies, simple currency ratio, electrical energy consumption and some evidence by the labor market developments. A few studies have attempted to estimate the size of the informal economy in Albania in the previous years and there’s no evidence of recent estimates of informality (at least they are not publicly available), especially after 2007. Also, there are some other available studies which give some point assessments of informality in Albania but without information on its development over time. Using indirect measurement approaches we found that informality still accounts for a large share to GDP, but, differently from findings in other studies we found lower figures. This may be the result of vast reforms and a formalization process undertaken by the Albanian governments over time. Despite these results, it’s important to highlight the fact that the average ratio of the informal sector of the economy to GDP presents a declining trend over the period 1996 – 2012.

Keywords: Albania, informal economy, indirect approaches, economic development.

1. The Informal Economy in Albania: Genesis and Development

Genesis of the informal economy in Albania can be found in the early stages of transition towards an open market economy at a time when the development of the legal, regulatory and institutional framework progressed at a slower pace compared to private enterprises. The sudden political and economic changes, causing transition shocks, created a favorable ground for informality to flourish in Albania. Gërxhani (1998) argues that the crisis of the years 1990-1992 was crucial to this phenomenon. This condition served as a strong impulse to respond in a “creative way”, passing over difficulties in the informal sector of the economy (Gërxhani, 1998). According to Ruli (2003), “The most disturbing manifestation of informality in the fiscal area lays in small and medium enterprises even large ones, which are legally registered but hide their incomes, their profits, and the number of employees and the real level of salaries. These businesses represent the majority of economic activities: trade (especially the retail), transport (passenger and freight), with services (bars and restaurants), construction and manufacturing activities which are highlighted and underlined as particularly important in terms of the informal economy.” The Albanian Center for Economic Research (ACER) (1999), using a direct survey on informality, found that from the perspective of an enterprise 75% of respondents stated that tax evasion occurs very often; 73% of respondents stated that they hide their real profits; and 94% of respondents stated that tax evasion is caused by the current tax system and policies adopted by the fiscal administration. Regime changes in Albania over 1991-1992 were accompanied by the absence of a regulatory framework for the normal functioning of an open market economy. This created favorable conditions for an informal culture of doing business, without rules and without control. At the time public authorities were too weak to exercise control and were also suffering from lack of experience in an open market economy. All of these factors were manifested in the economic, social and political turmoil that accompanied the collapse of pyramid schemes in the years 1996-1997, which delayed further development of a
coherent institutional framework, thus widening the gap between institutions and the real economy. This can be considered as one of the most extreme examples of consequences brought about by the informal economy in the politics and economy of a country. In recent years, considerable efforts have been made to reduce the informal economy, but the informal economy rate as a percentage of GDP still remains high (OECD, 2004). On the other hand, according to Gërxhani (2003) the informal sector helped the Albanian economy during the first years of transition by providing households with employment and supplementary income in the absence of other opportunities. According to the OECD (2004), the informal sector has been the most dynamic component of the economy in Albania. This has pushed informal activities into becoming a structural and problematic element of the Albanian economy. Factors behind the informal economy have evolved over time. In a joint study carried out by EBRD-WB in 1999, policy instability, crime and corruption were underlined as the main causes of informality. Muço & Sanfey (2002), in a survey on more than 100 small and medium enterprises, concluded that the biggest problem for businesses operating in the formal sector of the economy was the unfair competition from the informal sector of the economy, followed by constrained access to finance and taxes.

In addition to classic causes of the informal economy, in Albania and in Southeast European countries, a number of similar aspects, specific to these countries, are also observed, such as: lack of trust in public institutions (e.g. legislation, administration, courts and bureaucracies) very often considered as inefficient and corrupt; constraints in doing business; property rights not able to be guaranteed by competent institutions; inadequate strengthening of the legislative and regulatory framework; fiscal burden combined with an inadequate supply of public services and infrastructure; low probability of being discovered as an illegal worker or fiscal evader, leading to cost-benefit calculations where a job in the informal sector is more attractive than a job in the formal and official sector; a widespread acceptance of informal work that makes its reduction almost impossible. Constraints in doing business represent an important factor in determining the informal economy in Albania even though some improvement is now being observed. While some enterprises remain informal because they cannot afford the costs of formalization, others (those that are in a more advanced stage of development) operate partially or totally in an informal way even though they are able to afford at least some of the criteria for being formal (Mlinga & Wells, 2002). These kinds of enterprises make a cost-benefits estimation between staying informal and regularizing (Loayaza, 1997; Djankov, Lieberman, Mukherjee, & Nenova, 2002). When the costs of becoming formal are higher than the benefits, then companies prefer to operate informally. Informality in Albania occurs in various forms and in almost all economic activities: (a) external trade channels through non-declared goods and declarations of lower value of imported goods, and transmission of remittances through informal channels; (b) introduction of prohibited goods in the internal market; (c) poor tax collection and weak tax administration; (d) use of working hours, material and equipment of public companies for private purposes; (e) unregistered performance of different sectors of the economy especially those of services, trade and construction; (f) unreported income from agricultural entities; (e) informal lending activity outside banking channels; (g) illegal construction of residential and business premises, usurpation of land (private and public) and land built upon without permission (World Bank, 2006); and (i) non-declaration of employees and declaration of minimum wages.

A number of studies have attempted to estimate, with different methods, the size of the informal economy in Albania. Besides the valuable studies of Schneider (2002) and Christie & Holzner (2003), the Albanian National Institute of Statistics is engaged in measuring the informal economy in Albania. In these studies the informal sector of the economy is estimated to account for more than one third of the GDP even though according to Olters (2003) the size of the informal sector is ‘higher than elsewhere’. Muço, Peter, Luçi, & Hashorva (2004) using the national discrepancies method for the period 1996-2001, found that the informal sector of the economy accounts on average for about 29.1% of GDP. Schneider at al. (2010) found that the informal economy in Albania over 1999-2007 accounted in average for about 34.3% of GDP. The different sources mentioned above suggest a level of informal economy of above 30%, which means negative consequences on tax revenues, low level of public services, poor competition in the private sector, holding back of financial deepening (Gobbi & Zizza, 2007), and in general more hindrance towards a transparent and functioning market economy, crucial for a country like Albania which aims for sustainable economic development and European Union membership.


The literature on the informal economy expounds several methods of estimation, as mentioned in the first section of this paper. Limiting ourselves to the availability of data relevant to Albania, we use three indirect approaches to assess informality in Albania: national accounts discrepancies, simple currency ratio, and electrical energy consumption. Also, we take a brief look at labor market discrepancies.

2.1 National Accounts Discrepancies Method
In theory and practice, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) can be calculated by using three different methods: the production, expenditure and income approaches. All of these methods should ideally yield the same aggregates. In general, statistical offices using independent sources of information calculate a higher GDP according to the expenditure approach than the income or production approaches. The rationale behind this argument is that individuals usually tend to hide their income through tax declarations rather than through their consumption in household budget surveys (Öğünç & Yilmaz, 2000). Therefore the difference in GDP figures obtained by these two approaches can be interpreted as income generated in the informal sector of the economy. The main problem related to this method is that the discrepancies may be the result of unreported economic activities, errors and failures of national accounts statistics. Muço et al (2004) used the national accounts discrepancies method to assess the size of the informal sector for the period 1996-2001. They found that the informal sector of the economy accounted on average for 29.1% of GDP for the considered period. Following the same reasoning, we apply the same method for the period 1996 – 2013. Data on GDP by the expenditure approach for the period 1996 – 2008 are available from Instat. For the years 2009 – 2013 we apply the forecasted GDP growth rate (by expenditure approach) as by IMF (World Economic Outlook, April 2013) to the original time series of GDP by Instat. GDP data by the production approach is available for the period 1996 – 2011 (preliminary) from Instat. For the years 2012 and 2013 we will apply the projected nominal GDP growth rates as the sum of the average inflation rate (Instat for 2012) and the forecasted real GDP growth rate as by WEO, April 2013 excluding the assumptions on informality (available from Instat for the period 1996 – 2010. For 2011 – 2013 we will assume an average 0.5 percentage points decline in informality).

Table 1. Size of the informal economy for the 1996 – 2013.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>GDP by expenditure approach</th>
<th>GDP by production approach</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Difference/GDP by Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>346403.2</td>
<td>257377.4</td>
<td>89025.8</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>346197.8</td>
<td>244415.8</td>
<td>101782.0</td>
<td>41.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>409208.8</td>
<td>297904.2</td>
<td>111304.7</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>471578.5</td>
<td>331990.9</td>
<td>139587.6</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>523043.4</td>
<td>372406.6</td>
<td>150636.8</td>
<td>40.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>583368.6</td>
<td>416525.5</td>
<td>166843.1</td>
<td>40.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>622710.8</td>
<td>444615.7</td>
<td>178095.1</td>
<td>40.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>694097.5</td>
<td>501832.1</td>
<td>192265.4</td>
<td>38.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>751021.6</td>
<td>541486.9</td>
<td>209534.7</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>814796.7</td>
<td>588283.4</td>
<td>226513.3</td>
<td>38.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>882208.8</td>
<td>653716.9</td>
<td>228491.9</td>
<td>35.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>967670.0</td>
<td>719946.5</td>
<td>247723.6</td>
<td>34.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1088132.1</td>
<td>832219.9</td>
<td>255912.3</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>1150155.7</td>
<td>877134.8</td>
<td>273021.0</td>
<td>31.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>1236417.4</td>
<td>964522.6</td>
<td>271894.7</td>
<td>28.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>1317891.2</td>
<td>1012340.1</td>
<td>30550.1</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>1364017.4</td>
<td>1012981.3</td>
<td>351036.1</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>1414486.1</td>
<td>1066169.2</td>
<td>348316.9</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Institute of Statistics in Albania (INSTAT), IMF, author's calculations.

According to our calculations, the informal sector of the economy still accounts for a large part of GDP even though it has followed a progressive reduction path from year to year. According to the national accounts discrepancies method, the informal sector of the economy accounted on average for about 36.2% of GDP over the period 1996-2012 and a coefficient of variance (measured as the ratio of the standard deviation to the simple average) of 0.12. The years after the 1997 financial crises were characterized by high levels of informality (42.0% of GDP in 1999). Data suggest that after 2006 informality has followed a declining trend till 2011 and increased again in 2012. The results obtained by this method corroborate those of Schneider et al. (2010) on informality. The negative aspect is that informality has been decreasing at a very slow pace from year to year; suggesting that steps undertaken towards formalization have not yet had the desired effects. This method seems very easy to apply but results should be interpreted very carefully. Usually, GDP figures are published from statistical offices with time lags, and in each publication previous figures are revised. Also, improvement in
existing statistical sources and the introduction of new ones result in lower discrepancies; and statistical errors in calculations may be present. Meksi (2012) investigated how preliminary first estimates of the quarterly GDP, subject to quarterly revisions, are or are not a fundamentally reliable indicator of the respective series. She found that revisions of the quarterly GDP were high in average terms compared to 7 OECD countries where they are generally 0. Meksi (2012) also found that revised GDP figures are significantly different from the last released ones. Also, Feige & Urban (2008), in the case of Greece, suggest that every major revision in the published accounts must somehow be made comparable with previous published data in order not to distort perceptions of changes in total output over time. Stringent safeguards for consistency and transparency are crucial at this point in order to avoid allegations that the accounts have become more subjective and opaque, and thereby more potentially vulnerable to political manipulation. As a result, using the GDP approach in the case of Albania to assess the informal economy may lead to misleading conclusions and to questionable reliability of the results. Efforts should be directed especially towards measuring the formal economy, minimizing errors and improving statistical sources, and then using this data to estimate the size of the informal sector of the economy.

2.2 Simple Currency Ratio (SCR) Method

According to Cagan (1958), and later Guttman (1977), in cases where there is a lack of data to estimate a complete money demand function, the simple currency ratio method can be used in order to assess the informal economy. In the simplified version proposed by Guttman (1977) changes in cash in the overall money supply are ascribed exclusively to the dynamics of the informal sector of the economy. Muço et al. (2004), in the case of Albania, and Öğünç & Yılmaz (2000) for Turkey, used this method to assess the informal economy. Using the following equations and identities:

\[ C = C_r + C_u \]
\[ D = D_r + D_u \]
\[ k_r = C_r / D_r \]
\[ k_u = C_u / D_u \]
\[ v_r = Y_r / (C_r + D_r) \]
\[ v_u = Y_u / (C_u + D_u) \]

The general formula is:

\[ Y_u = \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{(k_u + 1)(C - k_u D)}{(k_r + 1)(k_u D - C)} \]

To obtain a solution this method we consider the following underlying assumptions: (i) there’s no use of other payment instruments in the economy, only cash is used; (ii) \( k \), ratio of currency outside banks and total deposits remains constant except changes deriving from unreported income increase; (iii) \( v \), money velocity in the informal sector and money velocity used in the official sector of the economy is the same. From the first assumption, when \( k_u \) approaches infinity the limit of \( k_r \) goes to a constant as a result of the second assumption and the third assumption implies that \( \beta = 1 \). Considering the above assumptions the general formula can be written as:

\[ Y_u = Y_r \frac{(C - k_u D)}{(k_r + 1)D} \]

We apply the simple currency ratio method in the case of Albania to estimate the size of the informal sector of the economy for 1993-2012. We use the currency outside banks and total deposits. GNP data were available only for the period 1996-2010 as by Instat. We calculate GNP for the period 1993-1995 and 2011-2012 by adding the net income factor derived from the Balance of Payments data for Albania to the GDP series (IMF, WEO April 2013 as we did in 4.1). Also, we have to choose a base year where the ratio of currency outside banks to deposits is at a minimum (in this case 2012 where \( k = 0.21 \)). By doing so, we assume that in that base year there is no informal economy or it is so low that it can be ignored.

Table 2. Simple currency ratio method (base year 2012, in mln Lek).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>C* (mln Lek)</th>
<th>D** (mln Lek)</th>
<th>k=C/D</th>
<th>GNP*** (mln Lek)</th>
<th>Informal economy (mln Lek)</th>
<th>IE % GDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>17989.4</td>
<td>31206.7</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>139318.2</td>
<td>42636.8</td>
<td>30.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>27626.3</td>
<td>41811.0</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>211888.7</td>
<td>79641.8</td>
<td>37.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>41905.0</td>
<td>63518.5</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>255768.0</td>
<td>95919.5</td>
<td>38.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>47813.4</td>
<td>103575.8</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>322298.0</td>
<td>67974.2</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>72724.3</td>
<td>122118.4</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>329484.0</td>
<td>106038.7</td>
<td>32.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>68322.4</td>
<td>166912.7</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>423925.0</td>
<td>71040.9</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>81334.1</td>
<td>206091.4</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>484755.0</td>
<td>75339.4</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>99233.6</td>
<td>222568.3</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>538420.0</td>
<td>106521.2</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the simple currency ratio method, the first years of transition towards an open market economy were accompanied by high levels of informal economy, as expected and consistently with other studies on this topic. The informal sector of the economy accounted on average for about 32.0% of GDP during 1993-1996. In 1996 our estimations show a notable decline in the informal sector and then a sudden jump over 1997 (coincident with the financial crisis). Estimates for the succeeding years are too low compared to those expected. Also, the coefficient of variation (measured as the ratio of the standard deviation to the simple average) resulted in 0.68, suggesting high volatility in estimations of the informal economy. Muço et al. (2004) also, did not obtain reliable results using monetary data, and the reasons behind this are primarily concerned with the underlying assumptions we stated above. First of all, the choice of a base year without informal economy is not realistic and brings questionable results. Different base year choices would bring different results in terms of size of the informal sector of the economy. Secondly, there is no reason to believe that the same money velocity exists in both sectors. Since in the informal sector cash is commonly used, the money velocity in this sector should be higher.

2.3 Kaufmann – Kaliberda Method

Another method used to assess the informal economy is the Kaufmann-Kaliberda method or the so-called ‘electricity consumption method’. By using the physical consumption of energy independently from the national accounts discrepancies method and the simple currency ratio method, we can check the consistency of the previous results (those obtained using the SCR method and the national accounts discrepancies method). As in Kaufmann & Kaliberda (1996), there is a unitary elasticity of change in consumption of electricity to changes in the overall GDP. The difference between official GDP growth rate and energy consumption can be attributed to increased activity in the informal sector of the economy. In our case we will use the total consumption of electrical energy. We assume that the informal economy in 1993 is 30.4% of GDP, as calculated by the simple currency ratio method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>GDP growth rate, in %</th>
<th>Electricity consumption changes, in %</th>
<th>IE, % of GDP (change)</th>
<th>IE as % of GDP (IE in 1993 = 30.4%, SCR method)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>49.9%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>-37.8%</td>
<td>68.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>-3.5%</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>-12.2%</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>-27.7%</td>
<td>58.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>-1.7%</td>
<td>32.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>-0.1%</td>
<td>-10.3%</td>
<td>40.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>-5.4%</td>
<td>-16.9%</td>
<td>47.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>-6.8%</td>
<td>37.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>GDP Growth</td>
<td>Energy Growth</td>
<td>Energy Consumption</td>
<td>Informality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>-2.8%</td>
<td>33.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>-8.0%</td>
<td>38.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>-0.2%</td>
<td>-8.9%</td>
<td>39.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>-4.4%</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>-6.6%</td>
<td>-16.3%</td>
<td>46.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>-2.4%</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>-1.0%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>-1.7%</td>
<td>32.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>-1.2%</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013**</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>27.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* GDP time series from IMF (WEO, April 2013).
** Total electrical energy consumption for 2013 estimated by applying the average growth rate in electrical energy consumption in the last five years.

Source: IMF, Albanian Energy Regulatory Entity (ERE), author’s calculations.

The results suggest that informality level in Albania marked its highest value in 1994, about 68.1% of GDP. In average for the period 1996 – 2012 the informal economy accounted for about 37.1% of GDP and the coefficient of variation was 0.28. Also, from the estimations obtained using this method we found that even following a declining trend over time, informality in Albania still accounts for a large share of GDP. Using IMF projections on GDP for 2013 and applying the average growth rate in electrical energy consumption in the last five years we obtain a projection of the size of the informal sector for 2013. According to these projections, the size of the informal sector is expected to increase in 2013 to 27.0% on GDP. This result may be related to the relative political instability of the last year and the forthcoming elections of June 2013.

This attractive and simplified method of estimating the size of the informal sector of the economy has been widely criticized. The method does not take into account a number of factors: the differences between electricity intensive and labor intensive industries (some service industries which are labor intensive easily switch to the informal sector); technological improvement which leads to lower energy consumption and alternative energy sources (Schneider & Enste, 2000); rationing of electricity since Albania depends on hydro-production of electricity; unreliable data on consumption since part of the energy is stolen; and non-payment of energy bills by both enterprises and households. The results on informality using the electricity consumption method does not support those obtained using the simple currency ratio. Instead, they are rather consistent with those generated using the national accounts discrepancies method.

3. Formalizing the Informal Economy in Albania.

The existence of the informal sector of the economy in Albania has been, and still is, considered a serious challenge faced by the government. In order to reduce its size and to soothe its consequences in the economy, several measures should be taken. According to Gërxhani (1997), efforts should be focused on the following: improvement and modernization of a legal institutional framework, improvement and creation of a favorable business climate, reduction of bureaucracies, accountability and transparency of legal institutions, property rights protection, further financial development, a flexible and effective system of taxation and social and health insurance contribution system, and improvement of statistical systems. Besides the relatively positive contribution of the informal sector in relieving poverty effects and sustaining consumption in the first years of transition, it is not sufficient to support the long-term economic growth, financial deepening and integration of the country. At this point, the integration of the informal sector into the formal sector of the economy is becoming an emergent element for the future sustainable economic development of Albania. One of the steps undertaken by the Government of Albania is the adoption of the “Action Plan for the Reduction of the Informal Economy for 2006-2009”. Approval of this action plan was formalized with the Decision no. 430, dated 28.6.2006, which organized the central reviewing group and the implementation of the action plan for reducing the informal economy in Albania1. Simultaneously with the informal economy, the cash-based economy has also developed.

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1The working group chaired by the Minister of Economy, Trade and Energy and include the Deputy Minister of Finance, Deputy Minister of Labor, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, General Director of the Department of Taxation, General Director of INSTAT, the
Data show that in Albania there is still a large amount of currency outside banks which fuels the informal sector of the economy and also reduces the effectiveness of monetary policy decisions and transmission. The ratio of currency outside banks to monetary aggregate M3 has decreased steadily from 39.0% in 1994 to 16.7% in 2012 (data refers to the end of November 2012), but it still remains high. Infrastructural changes in the banking sector, which have helped to reduce currency outside banks, include the following: a better distribution of the banking sector throughout Albanian territory; an increased number of banking services which facilitate financial transactions, and an improved payment system; reduction in the number of documents requested by banks; ATM and POS, debit cards, credit cards and e-banking; and the establishment of the credit register for the Republic of Albania. Other important decisions taken concern the transfer of public administration salaries through banks, distribution of pensions from post offices, and payment of monthly bills for electricity, water and phone by e-banking. Also, the decision according to which businesses of all sizes are obliged to open and conduct transactions by means of bank accounts is an important measure for reducing cash and informality. The fight against fiscal evasion, corruption and informality represents a considerable challenge faced by the General Tax Directorate (GTD) in collaboration with the Ministry of Finance (MoF). Efforts have been concentrated on extending the taxable basis and higher tax compliance, modernizing the fiscal administration, legislative improvements, and higher credibility and commitment of the tax administration, since operating in the formal sector of the economy means being subject of a series of expenses, because of their importance, fiscal burden and complexity of the fiscal system have a major impact. Reducing the fiscal burden has been a policy priority in recent years. Profit tax was reduced from 30% in 2000 to 10% in 2008 in order to encourage businesses to declare the real figures of their balance sheets. In this way, they are enabled to access financial resources from the banking sector, which will be result in in higher investment, employment and economic development. With regard to personal income tax, a flat tax system was introduced (2007), eliminating the progressive taxation scale and keeping an exclusive threshold level of 10,000 Albanian Lek for salaries up to 30,000 Lek. All categories of PIT have been taxed at the same level of 10% since the second half of 2007. In order to respect all commitments with the EU and WTO, the customs tax for imported vehicles was reduced to 10% from 30% in 2000.

1. From 2003 RTGS system was introduced and from June 2005 AECH system was introduced. Source: Bank of Albania
2. From 2005 the number of operating banks in Albania with 399 branches and 130 agencies operating in the territory of the Albanian Republic, 19 non-bank financial institutions, 301 foreign currency exchange offices. Source: Bank of Albania
3. In 2011 there were 16 operating banks in Albania with 399 branches and 130 agencies operating in the territory of the Albanian Republic, 19 non-bank financial institutions, 301 foreign currency exchange offices. Source: Bank of Albania
4. In 2011 there were 13 operating banks in Albania with 399 branches and 130 agencies operating in the territory of the Albanian Republic, 19 non-bank financial institutions, 301 foreign currency exchange offices. Source: Bank of Albania
5. In 2011 there were 16 operating banks in Albania with 399 branches and 130 agencies operating in the territory of the Albanian Republic, 19 non-bank financial institutions, 301 foreign currency exchange offices. Source: Bank of Albania
6. In 2011 there were 16 operating banks in Albania with 399 branches and 130 agencies operating in the territory of the Albanian Republic, 19 non-bank financial institutions, 301 foreign currency exchange offices. Source: Bank of Albania
7. In 2011 there were 16 operating banks in Albania with 399 branches and 130 agencies operating in the territory of the Albanian Republic, 19 non-bank financial institutions, 301 foreign currency exchange offices. Source: Bank of Albania
8. In 2011 there were 16 operating banks in Albania with 399 branches and 130 agencies operating in the territory of the Albanian Republic, 19 non-bank financial institutions, 301 foreign currency exchange offices. Source: Bank of Albania
9. A widespread practice is that wages are declared at the minimum level in order to pay contributions on that basis, while the difference resulting from the real and the declared salary is paid to the employee in cash.
11. Statement of the Prime Minister during the Council of Ministers 20.08.2008.
12. Council of Ministers Decision No. 55, dated 03.02.2010 and Order of the Minister of Finance No 2, dated 28.01.2010.
December 2010\textsuperscript{15}. This is expected to have a very positive impact on informal economy reduction, fair competition and higher revenues to tax administration. At the end of 2009, some amendments were proposed to the law on tax procedures that aim the reduction of informal economy and specifically deal with: self-employed individuals about the registration and payment of social insurance contributions or their de-registration; non declaration of employed individuals, setting more severe penalties for any newly employed non declared; penalties for not installed fiscal devices. After the first years of transition, informal construction activity by both individuals and enterprises, for housing and business purposes, flourished in Albania. None of this was declared to the competent authorities and no taxes were paid for them. Households and enterprises could not use this as collateral and could not access credit in formal markets, thus hindering financial deepening. According to the UNDP, this created a huge amount of ‘dead capital’, amounting to about US$ 15.8 billion (in 2004), and equal to 11.7 times the total reserves minus gold of 2004, and 11.4 times FDI-s (1993-2004). In order to mobilize this dead capital and in the context of formalization of the economy (this is part of the complex reform on property rights), an Agency for Legalization, Urbanization and Integration of Informal Areas/Constructions (ALUIZNI)\textsuperscript{16} in Albania was constituted. This agency was established as an executive structure, responsible for managing the legalization, urbanization and integration of informal areas/settlements across the country. This process is still going on in Albania. Important steps have been undertaken to improve aspects of doing business. Comprehensive reform has been undertaken in order to permit free entrance and exit of businesses to and from the market. According to the ‘Doing Business’ Report, Albania improved its ranking by 54 positions (from 136 to 82) during 2008, and was declared second in the world in terms of quality and intensity of reforms to improve the business climate in the country for the period 2007-2008. In this context, it is worth noting the adoption of the new legislation for the establishment and operation of the National Registration Center (NRC), which changes business registration from a legal act at the court of Tirana into a simple administrative procedure (registration of a business in one day and for 0.81 Euros). Lowering registration costs reduces the number of contacts with administrative employees, and so reduces corruption. The NRC started operating on September 10, 2007, and operated as a “one-stop-shop” to register a business within a single day for 2008, 2009, 2010 and 2011. Reforms carried out during 2007 brought about a reduction in the number of steps for starting a business from ten to five, in 2008, 2009, 2010 and 2011. With recent changes, the law on chambers of trade and industry has been amended, by removing the obligation of companies to be registered in this institution. In 2007 about 36 days were needed to start a new business. In 2008, this was reduced to 7 days, and from 2009 to 2011 a new business could be started in 5 days. Another change concerns licenses: 104 out of 166 licenses and permits have now been removed. Albania is now a country with one of the smallest number of permits and licenses in Europe and beyond. In 2009 the National Licensing Center (one-stop-shop for licenses) was established, and a silent consent principle was implemented. At the beginning of 2011 the “Electronic register for business law” was functioning. This contains all legislative acts from 30 institutions on line.

4. Conclusions

In this paper we have attempted to assess the size of the informal economy in Albania from the first years of transition until 2012 and gave some hints about informality over 2013. We used four different indirect measurement approaches to assess the informal economy in Albania: national accounts discrepancies, simple currency ratio, the electricity consumption method and some evidence from labor market discrepancies. Overall, according to the previous methods of estimation, the informal economy in Albania still accounts for a large share of GDP. Using the electrical energy consumption method we obtained the highest values of informality (on average informality accounts for about 37.81% of GDP for the period 1996-2012), and with the simple currency ratio the lowest ones (on average informality accounts for about 13.6% of GDP for the period 1996-2012). National accounts discrepancies suggest that the informal economy still accounts on average for about 36.2% of GDP over the period 1996-2012. The results obtained with the simple currency ratio method are the most volatile, as measured from the coefficient of variance, and those from the national accounts discrepancies the least volatile ones. Muço et al. (2004) also found that the estimations of the size of the informal economy using the monetary method were unreliable, since they led to absurdly high estimates for the informal economy.

\textsuperscript{15} CMD No. 781, dated 14.11.2007 “on Technical and functioning characteristics of fiscal devices, computerized integrated system on periodical automatic transfers of fiscal declarations, communications system, on the procedure and documentation (…)”

\textsuperscript{16} Law No. 9482, dated 03.04.2006 on “Legalization, urbanization and integration of informal areas/constructions” and further updates: Law No. 9786, dated 19.07.2007; Law No. 9895, dated 09.06.2008; Constitutional Court Decision No. 3, dated 02.02.2009, Law No. 10099, dated 19.03.2009; Law No. 10169, dated 22.10.2009; Law No. 10219, dated 04.02.2010.
In our case, the result was the same but the simple currency ratio method yielded very low estimates of the size of the informal economy in Albania. The results obtained using the national accounts discrepancies method are supported by those obtained from the electricity consumption method and both of them corroborate those obtained by Schneider et al. (2010). All the methods used to assess the informal economy in Albania are constrained by the absence and accuracy of the data and the restrictive assumption on which each estimation method lies. Furthermore, there is no “best” method to assess the informal sector of the economy. What seems important from our estimates is that informality has followed a declining trajectory over time. This may be the result of all the widespread reforms undertaken by the Albanian government and other institutions in order to reduce the informality, the introduction of a new culture of doing business, attempts by the banking system to achieve further financial deepening, and constraints imposed by the European integration process.

5. Acknowledgements

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"APPLE" Ad or not Ad: That is the Question

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Abstract:

Someone stop the “Apple”! I want to ask, how many of you own an Apple product right now or used one before? I’m sure that the number will not be few. Well, let’s take a look at the reason why. Quality, design, social pressure, just fashion or maybe another thing but advertising is not in the first place for sure. Or let’s say this; nobody runs into the first electronic store at the corner after watching a creative commercial. Apple; our favourite April Fools At the 1st of April 1976, Apple has been born like a little joke with huge effects beneath. In years it has became a joke that gets bigger and bigger inside. At the present time i will not bother explain the word to you but I can say that, we laughed at that joke so hard that we have been laughing at it for 37 years, sadly it makes us cry sometimes. Don’t fire us “Apple”! This tasty company takes a role in our lives with simple but effective ads. Actually they do not need too much ads on nowadays. Maybe that’s why they are following their recent path. But how long will it go on like this? Before talking about this I would like to mention about Steve Jobs. He made so many things and said so many words in so many various areas but in the essence of the matter he said “Think different!” via Apple Company. I don’t know if we could have thought as he said or not but we took a bite from his ‘apple’ as he wanted to. We have to urge on that he spoke to us as himself without any middlemen or an agent. We can not ignore that despite he is a modern technology genius and a chairman of a big company, he is also a really successful PR and maybe a promoter too. Besides the simplicity of his adverts, his talents of mass controlling, management and addressing took an important role in where the ‘Apple’ today. Because ‘presentation comes before advertising’ is exactly used in its meaning. There is a word about it; the person who can present a fruit best is the owner of its garden, nevertheless he was the owner as he was the worker at in this copious garden. Also not mentioning about his good looking and attraction will not be fair when it comes to gloss. All over the world when it’s asked, how many of chairmen in information technologies will be remembered as significantly as him? Not many. However tragically, he passed away so young. Can Apple walk on its path in long term? In my opinion it is highly unlikely. Think about the opposite, what if all major companies follows the Apple’s path and kill the creative advertising day by day? I am not on this ‘advertising road’ to serve a world like this. One of the most rapidly changing fashion, will have no mercy on Apple too. Right now they are on a locomotive and speed up every single day but I am not sure that the steam will be enough for another 37 years. How long a company which repeats itself with tiny little changes can stay on its path? Apple, I am calling you. It is time to take the arm that named creative advertising or the time will come in near future because you do not have a second Steve Jobs. Apple is not forbidden anymore There’s been said Apple’s logo comes from Adam and Eve and the bite referred to Alan Turing. An apple sets off the entire human history and so to say another apple carries it into another dimension. Now it is a sin that not tasting from this apple or it is still forbidden and no one can stand the pleasure and ease. Now I am asking to you; Another bite?

1. Someone make the “Apple” stop.

I need to ask; How many people owns a Apple Product or used one? It is obvious that figures are not few. And now let’s take a look at the reasons. Is it quality ? Is it design ? Is it trend or social pressure ? Maybe the real reason is not told in this article but we do know the fact that it is not the advertisement. Well , to be precise ; no one runs to an electronics store after watching a creative TV commercial. (Of course there are exceptions.)

2. Our favorite April Fools Day Joke “Apple”

In first of April at 1976 “Apple” was born as a teeny tiny but effective joke, and within years this joke kept getting bigger and larger. Today, I don’t think I need to explain the meaning behind this word, however I can say; We loved this joke so much, we are still laughing and crying together after 37 years.

3. “Do not make us unemployed “Apple”.”

This pretty company is in our life with its simple but effective ads. Actually it does not need any advertisement anymore. Maybe this is why it decided to go this way.
Well, first we need to have a look at the history; Apple introduced the “Apple Macintosh” with the famous 1.5 million dollar budget “1984” TV Commercial. The Commercial directed under the Ridley Scott took air at the third quarter of Super Bowl XVII at 22 of October 1984.

-This event is considered the corner stone of its success- And it is stated that it was one of the masterpieces in advertisement history. Some people acknowledge this advertisement as the most famous and some acknowledge it as the best advertisement of all times... (for me personally I named it as the “die Ad”.)

*The one who created the ad was the Chiat/day Agency. Agency’s head Lee Clow made the Rabbit of Energizer and Taco Bell’s Chihuahua advertisement campaigns after the “die ad”.

- Even the “die Ad” was aired once in the national TV, it was aired in a Local TV Chanel in Twin Falls Idaho in 15th of December 1983, participating in the 1983 Advertisement Awards. Afterwards with the week starting with 17th of October (1984), “die Ad” was screened in theaters.

- Even with its narrowed screening “die Ad” has created a massive media madness. According to Nielsen Ratings “die Ad”s views rate at the Super Bowl was 46.4%. (male viewers rate 50%, female viewers rate 36%)

- These figures and tactics made the “die ad” the first example of Events Marketing.

- Also “die Ad” has triggered and shaped today’s Super Bowl advertisement’s madness.

- The woman who throws the hammer to big brother in the “die Ad” was Anya Major. (she was an athlete and a model.) Big Brother was acted by the David Graham and the outer voice at the end of the “die ad” belongs to Edward Grover. (my personal opinion is his voice is really similar to Malcolm McDonell’s voice.)

- “die Ad” also conquered a huge spot inside of the Popular Culture. 84th minute of the movie titled “Fight Club” shows as one of the events of Project Mayhem; an Apple Macintosh computer being shattered into pieces.

- A TV Animation Series called “Futurama” made a advertisement parody in a episode named “Future Stock” in its 3.season.

- Inside of the video game named “Grand Theft Auto Vice City Stories” one of the radio channel has a “Fruit Lo” ad and this ad is directly a 1984 parody.

- Barack Obama’s campaign in 2006 is exactly the copy of “die Ad” and one of the few differences between 2006’s copy campaign was Big brother. It has showed as the Hilary Clinton.

As you see an incredible “start”. Effective, impressive, creative and ambitious. Year 1997 and the time has come to the Ad that made me write this article, that Ad was yelling at my face as “Steve Jobs is back.”. That Ad “Think Different”. (and for me it was the breakthrough of my destiny, after years I understood and named this ad in my mind with simple two words “M-Ad”. The “M” was there with the meaning of mentor.)

I remember when I watched the ad of my life for the first time. It mesmerized me within seconds. M-Ad was showing to me people who were breaking the realms chains and that moment my decision has been made. I said to myself in my inner thoughts “I am gonna be an advertiser”.

M-Ad shows that there is no boundaries to mankind’s capacity, in the same time M-Ad tells me that a advertiser has to erase all the boundaries and has to remove all the limiters and M-Ad was encouraging this idea. At least that was what I understood and this was the what was important.

But unfortunately “Apple” started to fall and this fall is not in a good way. Apple changed its direction to a darker and scarier way and again, unfortunately there is no technology that can light this way and show the greatness they showed in the past.

4. So How Long They will be able to go on?

Before starting to talk about this topic, I wanna talk a little about Steve Jobs. He did lots of thing in many different areas, he said lots of things in many different topics however he told us with a tool named “Apple” - “Think Different”. I do not know if we did or didn't but I know we all did what he wanted us to do and bit the apple without a second thought. Well, I have the feeling that we have to take a closer look at the reason why he said this to the world. We can't deny that he is not just a genius on modern world technologies in the same time he is a great Pr and probably one of the most creative advertiser of 21st century. One of the elements of Jobs is the solid and never changing plain and simple design and again we can't deny that his global manipulation talent is the main reason of the status of “Apple” in now a days. - Person who knows the apple best is the owner of the apple- And jobs wasn't only the owner, he was the gardner of this productive farm. Of course not talk about its beauty would be a disgrace. Around the world, how many of technology companies founders are known by people? I do not know the exact number but I am sure it's just a few and unfortunately he left this
world and us in a really young age.

5. “Can Apple go further?”

My personal opinion is its not gonna happen however think a world goes in the opposite direction of my thought system; other big firms goes in the same direction of “Apple and this kind of path slowly kills the creative advertisement day by day. I did not choose the advertisement sector for serving this kind of world system.

I think the thing called fashion shift won't have any mercy to the apple. At the present its has this trend and continues its marketing by this trend however can it continue an other 37 years like this. A firm which repeats its self by little variations, how long can it keep its self before crumbling.

Kan Segal says in the book named “Insanely Simple”; Apple started to walk a way without human source in fact we can say Apple’s advertisement's source are their product. With out a doubt , I agree with this thought and Apple ads are getting further away from creative advertisement day by day.

6. That Era has ended long ago ! Apple , WAKE UP !

In today's market, advertisement does not have the echo it should has, and main cause of this is global market has growth a lot and changed a lot, variations increased with the competition. Creating the right attention is no more a tool, now it is a must for companies. First of all we should understand this, people in this world which understands the small differences between the technologies are few than people who doesn't understand those differences. Instead of reaching the target audience, why not collect all the mass appeal in one place?

This has been done before and can be done again. At first “Apple” wanted us to “Think Different” but now it started to became one of the stereotype firm....

Apple! I am calling and telling you; You have to take the gun named “creative advertisement” one more time and that time is really soon because you no more have an ammo named “Steve Jobs”.

7. Apple is No more a “Sin”

It is said that Apple's logo's origin is widely known; Adam and Eve's apple, forbidden fruit.
(Some people say its logo is for the respect of Alan Turing.) And I wanna ask you in the end of my article one more time;

One A Bite Just one time?
A Bite from apple started the mankind's history
Second bite brought the evolution
Third Bite is a known human's mystery
And book lies biting is no more a sin
How could someone can say no
To its mesmerizing taste
And now I ask you one more time
Do you want one more bite
Hardiness as a Resource of Personality’s Coping Behaviour in Difficult Situations

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Abstract

Coping behaviour plays a great role in solving a difficult, conflict situation. Hardiness can be considered as a personality resource of coping behaviour in a conflict. In our research we use the following methods: S. Maddi’s questionnaire (hardiness) and A. Heim’s technique (coping strategies). 227 people, 108 men and 119 women, participated in the research. The correlation analysis has shown that strongly pronounced hardiness is connected with the choice of adaptive coping strategies, and feebly pronounced hardiness is a predictor of the choice of non-adaptive emotional strategies. Hardiness and its components - commitment and control, have a positive correlation with adaptive and relatively adaptive variants of cognitive, emotional and behavioural strategies and a negative correlation with the choice of non-adaptive strategies. Challenge has a negative correlation with adaptive behavioural strategies. In the conclusion, we show that studying the influence of hardiness on a person’s choice of coping strategies in conflict situations can help to prevent similar conflicts in the future. As such, the findings of our research can be considered as a good prognostic and diagnostic tool.

Keywords: conflict, hardiness, commitment, control, challenge, personality resources, coping strategies.

1. Introduction

The social-psychological intensity and pace of modern life can lead to a great number of conflicts in different spheres. Destructive conflicts create negative effects, such as disorder, instability, and hostility and can result in the waste of a lot of material, time, cognitive and emotional resources. Conflicts slow down and complicate decision-making, reduce solidarity, lead to stress and negative emotional conditions (Antsupov & Shipilov 1999).

Coping behaviour plays an important role in resolving interpersonal conflicts (Folkman & Lazarus, 1998). Coping behaviour consists of the cognitive, emotional and behavioural efforts that an individual undertake to overcome difficult situations (Heim, 1988).

A coping strategy may be defined as a personality’s actions in dealing with complex situations and adaptation to existing circumstances.

There are different classifications of coping behaviour in modern psychology. For example, R. Lazarus and S. Folkman considered problem-focused and emotionally-focused strategies (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). The former assume a cognitive estimation of existing difficult situation and search of possible ways of solution, the latter are directed to work with a personality’s attitude to problems.

E. Heim suggested considering emotional, cognitive and behavioural strategies. These types of coping strategies involve behaviour that can be adaptive, relatively adaptive and non-adaptive in a conflict (Heim 1988).

E. Frydenberg considered coping behaviour depending on success in solving of existing problem and offered three categories of coping strategies: reference to other people, efficient and inefficient coping (Frydenberg, 2004).

D. Amirkhan viewed three groups of coping strategies - problem-solving, search for social support and avoiding (Amirkhan, 1994).

The issue of coping behaviour has a topic of research in the field of psychology since the 1960s and 1970s. In Russian psychology this problem has been actively researched the last two decades. Researchers involved in this area of study have focused on gender, age, professional experience, medical, social, and cultural conditions and contexts, and other features of coping behaviour (Holahan & Moos, 1987; Endler & Parker, 1990; Skinner, 1995; Folkman & Lazarus, 1998; Amirkhan, 1999; Frydenberg, 2004; Bodrov, 2006; Caplan & Schooler, 2007; Ryabinkina, 2007; Sircova, Mitina, 2008; Vodopianova, 2009). Nevertheless, there is a lack of research devoted to the interrelation of coping behaviour and conflict situations. While conflict interactions remain one of most urgent topics of a modern psychological science, features related to coping strategy choice in conflict situations are little-studied.
1.1 The Personality “Resources” of Coping Behaviour

Recently, many psychologists have examined coping with difficult, conflict situations according to “the resource approach.” This approach assumes the existence of specific personality features that help people to overcome difficulties (Hobfoll & Lerman, 1988; Folkman & Lazarus, 1998; Brisette et al., 2002; Frydenberg, 2004; Bodrov, 2006; Belinskaya, 2009). These specific personality features can in turn define the choice of coping strategies within the context of a conflict.

Our analysis of psychological research allows us to suggest that a choice of coping strategies in conflict situations can be considered in connection with such personal resource as hardiness (Solcova & Tomanek, 1994; Williams et al., 1995; Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999; Aleksandrova, 2004; Loginova, 2009; Esschleman et al., 2010).

S. Maddi and his colleagues have revealed connection of optimism and hardiness with the choice of coping strategies. Indicators of hardiness and optimism had strongly pronounced correlations with coping behaviour. However, only components of hardiness were negatively connected with the choice of non-adaptive coping strategies (Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999).

It is necessary to consider I. Solcova and P. Tomanek’s researches, which testifies that a person with strongly pronounced hardiness is inclined to choose cognitive strategies and use more variants of behaviour when handling conflict (Solcova & Tomanek, 1994). Hardiness has a positive correlation with the choice of effective coping strategies. Thus, it is negatively connected with the strategy of problem avoidance (Esschleman et al., 2010).

Researches of P. Williams and D. Vibe have shown that strongly pronounced hardiness has a positive correlation with the choice of adaptive coping strategies and a negative one - with the choice of non-adaptive strategies (Williams et al., 1995).

According to L. Aleksandrova, hardiness is a personality resource defining the ability to overcome difficulties. This difficulties can be usual and every day, but also - critical or extreme one. Hardiness includes such base personality’s resources as cooperation, trust and creativity (Aleksandrova, 2004).

In M. Loginova’s opinion, a person with strongly pronounced hardiness uses active coping strategies and overcomes stressful and difficult life situations, based on involvement and control of problems, ability not retreat in difficult conditions (Loginova, 2009). Nevertheless, it is necessary to notice that there is a lack of modern psychological research devoted to investigating the correlation between hardiness and coping behaviour in conflict situations.

2. Methodology

As a result, the goal of this research is to investigate hardiness and its role in a personality’s choice of coping strategies in conflicts situations.

This paper brings forward the following hypothesis: hardiness is connected with the choice of coping strategies in situations of an interpersonal conflict. Strongly pronounced hardiness has a positive correlation with the choice of adaptive cognitive and behavioural strategies and it is negatively connected with the choice of emotional strategies.

2.1 Participants

The sample included 227 participants, 108 of them were male and 119 of them female. The participants ranged in age from 18 to 53 years old (the median age was 31). The participants were: students of Moscow universities (n=86), and workers of different organizations (n=141).

The participants were divided into three age groups:
- younger age group: under 25 years (n=79);
- middle age group: from 21 till 40 years (n=71);
- senior age group: over 41 years (n=77).

2.2 Materials

To prove the stated hypothesis we used the following materials:
- S. Maddi’s questionnaire (Leontiev, Rasskazova, 2006).
- E. Heim’s inventory (coping strategies) (Heim, 1988). It is worth noticing that according to E. Heim’s technique, our respondents were offered to choose from the listed coping strategies of behaviour in a difficult situation the
one that was most familiar to them. All strategies were subdivided into three types - cognitive, emotional and behavioural. There were adaptive, relatively adaptive and non-adaptive variants among them. It is important to mention that in the instruction to E. Heim’s technique the respondents were offered to choose from three described conflict situations the one they face most often. The given conflict situations were referred to three different spheres of human life - family, organizational and domestic. In case none of the listed conflict situations suited the respondents, they were offered to describe their own situation. And only after that the respondents marked different strategies of behaviour which they use to cope with this conflict situation.

3. Results and Discussion

SPSS 14.0 was used for statistical data processing. Data has been verified in the case of normal distribution by means of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, asymmetry and excess indicators. The obtained distribution of the variables, which were relevant to the personality features investigated, does not differ from a normal distribution. This allows us to use parametrical techniques.

Firstly, it is necessary to consider respondents’ preferences in the choice of coping strategies in a situation of interpersonal conflicts. Our research testifies that the most preferred coping strategies of behaviour in a conflict situation are cognitive ones - they were chosen by 48% of respondents. Thus, 33% of the interrogated respondents prefer behavioural strategies, and only 19% - emotional strategies. It is an important point to be made that among all types of coping strategies in almost 50% of cases their adaptive variant prevails over others.

Besides, the results of the research allow us to state that there are gender features of coping strategies’ choice in a conflict situation. In interpersonal conflicts women most often resort to emotional coping strategies (38% of respondents). While the majority of men (62% of respondents) prefers cognitive variants of coping strategies. Emotional strategies have appeared the least popular among men, they were chosen only by 7% of the respondents. Also the given differences have been confirmed statistically (Mann-Whitney Coefficient p<0.05 in the choice of emotional strategies). Thus, among variants of coping strategies men prefer adaptive cognitive strategies (47% of respondents).

It can be explained by the fact that generally women interpret emotions of others better; they also express their emotions better. At the same time, men tend to analyse the existing conflict, think of possible ways of its solving and try to undertake any actions to cope with it. It is important to notice that these features are not predetermined gender characteristics; they correspond to the social environment’s expectations in a large extent.

The results of coping strategies’ choice have been also analysed according to the respondents’ age differences. As it has been already mentioned, our respondents have been divided into three groups. Our research indicates that among all three age groups the choice of cognitive strategies prevails. Thus, the peak of this choice is in the second age group (47% of respondents), and is gradually falling with increase of the respondents’ age to 30%. The highest percentage (35% of respondents) of behavioural strategies’ choice is in the third age group (respondents over 46 years). The choice of emotional strategies practically doesn’t vary depending on the respondents’ age and has averaged 26% of all respondents. Also it is necessary to mention that among all three variants of coping strategies the choice of adaptive strategies is the highest in the senior age group.

One of our explanations of this fact is that the older a person gets, the more experience in conflict resolution he or she has, being capable in some cases to anticipate possible conflicts. It allows a person to solve another conflict situation with fewer losses.

The prevalence of cognitive strategies in the senior age groups can be explained in the following way. In a pubertal period and in youth a person can have a strong emotional reaction in a difficult situation, concede conflict escalation instead of trying to stop it at the beginning. In the mature age people are inclined to consider possible ways of conflict resolution and consequences of their actions before undertaking something. Therefore, at this age adaptive cognitive and behavioural strategies are on the foreground.

The results of correlation analysis allow us to find the connection of the choice of coping strategies with hardness and its components. All statistically significant correlations are in Table 1.

Hardiness as a whole and one of its components - commitment, has a positive correlation with adaptive and relatively adaptive variants of cognitive, emotional and behavioural coping strategies. They are negatively connected with the choice of non-adaptive tactics.
Table 1. Pearson correlation between the choice of coping strategies and hardiness and its components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Hardiness</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Challenge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of problem</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.127**</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.153*</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-possession</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.244**</td>
<td>0.365**</td>
<td>0.354**</td>
<td>-0.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of own importance</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.278**</td>
<td>0.359**</td>
<td>0.212*</td>
<td>-0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativity</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>0.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religiousness</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.114*</td>
<td>0.199*</td>
<td>-0.089</td>
<td>0.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Searching for sense</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>-0.113*</td>
<td>-0.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ignoring</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.257**</td>
<td>-0.284**</td>
<td>-0.344**</td>
<td>0.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humility</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.297**</td>
<td>-0.282**</td>
<td>-0.213</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissimulation</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.166*</td>
<td>-0.262**</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>-0.056</td>
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<tr>
<td>Confusion</td>
<td></td>
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<td>-0.075</td>
<td>0.113</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protest</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.321*</td>
<td>0.231*</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optimism</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.318**</td>
<td>0.317**</td>
<td>0.215*</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional relief</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.188*</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>-0.178*</td>
<td>-0.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive cooperation</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.182*</td>
<td>0.123*</td>
<td>-0.179*</td>
<td>-0.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppression of emotions</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.345**</td>
<td>-0.355**</td>
<td>-0.322**</td>
<td>-0.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obedience</td>
<td></td>
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<td>-0.255**</td>
<td>-0.214*</td>
<td>0.156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-accusation</td>
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<td>-0.116</td>
<td>0.106</td>
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<td>Aggression</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.134*</td>
<td>-0.186*</td>
<td>-0.155**</td>
<td>0.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation</td>
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<td>0.131*</td>
<td>0.216*</td>
<td>0.177*</td>
<td>-0.378*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
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<td>0.132**</td>
<td>0.367**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
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<td>0.332**</td>
<td>0.398**</td>
<td>0.306*</td>
<td>0.119</td>
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<td>Distraction</td>
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<td>0.115</td>
<td>-0.149</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indemnity</td>
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<td>0.155**</td>
<td>0.117</td>
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<tr>
<td>Constructive activity</td>
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<td>0.122*</td>
<td>0.149**</td>
<td>-0.098</td>
<td>0.099</td>
</tr>
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<td>Active avoidance</td>
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<td>-0.333**</td>
<td>-0.281**</td>
<td>-0.308*</td>
<td>0.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retreating</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.412**</td>
<td>-0.389**</td>
<td>-0.338*</td>
<td>0.189</td>
</tr>
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</table>

* - significance level p ≤ 0.05
** - significance level p ≤ 0.01

It is important to notice that control has strong correlations with the choice of adaptive cognitive, behavioural and emotional strategies. Thus, control has a negative connection with the choice of relatively adaptive and non-adaptive strategies.

Besides, challenge has only one statistically significant correlation. It is negatively connected with the choice of cooperation - adaptive behavioural strategy.

Our results allow us to suggest that a personality with feebly marked hardiness uses emotional strategies in conflicts, and a personality with strongly pronounced hardiness prefers behavioural and cognitive coping strategies. Besides, strongly pronounced hardiness assumes the choice of adaptive variants of behaviour. Low level of hardiness, on the contrary, is connected with preference of relatively adaptive and non-adaptive coping strategies with a conflict situation.

Hereby, a personality with strongly pronounced hardiness does not avoid conflicts, ignoring incipient problems, does not retreat in the face of difficulties, and, on the contrary, tries to analyse a problem, to find possible variants of solving. He or she does not accept a conflict, does not try to consider it as something insignificant and unimportant.

Our results testify that respondents with strongly pronounced hardiness prefer rational analysis of conflicts, try to create ways of its solving. They do not choose such strategy as suppression of emotions, obedience and self-accusation or, on the contrary, aggression. They are optimistic and sure that they can find solving of any conflict situations. They protests against the circumstances. Seldom people with strongly pronounced hardiness can be lost in a conflict situation, they keep their self-control and self-possession, believe in own ability to cope with a conflict. And only in most difficult situations they can use social support and help of other people.

The research indicates that a personality with strongly pronounced commitment has ability to cope with negative emotions in conflicts. Thus, his or her actions are also adaptive. A personality does not avoid conflicts; he or she uses
such strategies as altruism, cooperation and communication with other people. He or she even in a conflict tries to find possibilities for progress. This conclusion has been proved in a number of other researches (Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999; Loginova, 2009).

Besides, the results of our research allow us to state that a personality with strongly pronounced control tries not to ignore a difficult situation. He or she keeps self-control, tries to find constructive ways of conflict solving. He or she believes in own ability to overcome a conflict situation. A personality understands that only his or her own active actions, control the circumstances, and interaction with other people can lead to effective solving of a conflict situation.

The statistical analysis has shown that challenge is significant negative correlated with the choice of an adaptive behavioural strategy - cooperation. We can explain it by the fact that a personality with feebly marked challenge is afraid to be accountable for own actions and decisions in conflicts. Therefore, he or she tries to use help of other people which can increase their chances to solve a conflict effectively.

As a result, the hypothesis formulated in the research has been partially confirmed.

4. Findings

Our research allows us to make the following findings.

1. A person's choice of coping strategies in a conflict situation has gender specificity. Women chose emotional strategies more often while men prefer cognitive ones.
2. Strongly pronounced hardiness is connected with the choice of adaptive coping strategies and feebly pronounced hardiness is a predictor of the choice of non-adaptive emotional strategies.
3. Hardiness and its components - commitment and control, are positively connected with the choice of adaptive and relatively adaptive variants of cognitive, emotional and behavioural strategies and are negatively correlated with the choice of non-adaptive strategies.
4. Challenge is negative correlated with adaptive behavioural strategies.

5. Conclusion and Future Research

This study provides examination of the role of hardiness in coping with an interpersonal conflict. The connections ascertained in this research between hardiness and coping strategies in conflict situations can help to prevent similar conflicts in the future. Indeed, the research material can be used in psychological training and consultation and can be a good prognostic and diagnostic tool.

Our future researches will be connected with examining particular features of personality resources of coping with difficulties in a context of dispositional and situational factors.

References

528.
Ryabinkina, I.V. (2007). Strukturnaya organizatiya vremennoi perspektivy starsheklassnikov s raznym yrovнем yspeshnosti (The structural organization of time perspective of senior pupils with different level of educational success): Dissertation abstract (PhD in psychology), Saint-Petersburg.
Difficulties in Translating the Language of Pirandello’s Novels

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Abstract

Studying the language of Pirandello’s novels is not simple. Pirandello has its own special style. When he writes he aims at writing naturally and spontaneously as if taking among friends. Thus, his way of expression is much similar to spoken language, whereas written language sometimes sounds as harsh and antiliterary. In this paper we would focus on Pirandello’s diction by analyzing his loan words from different layers of the language and the way how this diction has been translated into Albanian. First, we are going to analyze dialectical words and phrases used in Pirandello’s novels. He thinks that dialect can add liveliness to the language. Next, we are going to analyze words from other languages used in his novels. A writer with a wide and rich vocabulary as Pirandello cannot leave aside the use of other languages words in his novels. These words could have been suited or not to the orthography of Italian language. But there are cases when we come across entire sentences written in a foreign language. As far as other languages presence in his novels there are: French, English, Spanish and Latin. We are going to study the difficulties these words pose to be rendered into another language as well as Albanian translators strategies to convey these peculiarities of Pirandello’s language into their respective languages.

Keywords: translation, literature, dialectalisms, borrowings.

1. Introduzione allo studio

Fare uno studio sulla lingua delle novelle di Pirandello non è facile. Pirandello ha un suo stile di scrittura particolare. Quando scrive pretende farlo con la spontaneità della parlata tra amici. Il suo modo di esprimersi si avvicina di più alla lingua parlata, mentre quella scritta suona talvolta aspra e antiletteraria. In questo studio intendiamo prendere in analisi il lessico che Pirandello prende in prestito dalle altre lingue ed il modo in cui questo lessico viene tradotto nella lingua albanese. Oggetto di analisi saranno i segmenti testuali in dialetto e quelli appartenenti ad altre lingue.

2. Caratteristiche della lingua delle novelle di Pirandello

«Se letteratura, o meglio, tradizione letteraria ha mai fatto impedimento al libero sviluppo d’una lingua, questa più d’ogni altra è l’italiana» scrive Pirandello nei Saggi, poesie e scritti vari criticando la retorica. Ecco perché la lingua di Pirandello è antiletteraria, spontanea. Nel suo stile narrativo, espressivo e senza retorica, la prosa italiana incontra un modello a seguire, anche se a volte la sintassi del periodo si rompe o perde la sua grazia. Sono pochi gli studi concentrati sul lessico delle novelle di Pirandello e sulla provenienza di tale lessico. Pirandello come lo dimostrano i suoi scritti (Lo Vecchio-Musti 1960) sente una grande preoccupazione per la lingua italiana della sua epoca e cercherà di fare uso di tutti gli strati della lingua senza rifiutare le parole per la loro provenienza. Il suo è il lessico appartenente alla lingua comune impiegata dagli italiani dell’epoca.

2.1 Dialettalismi e traduzione

Pirandello, educato in un ambiente della filologia romanza, si prende cura del dialetto come prezioso strumento con il
quale arricchire la lingua italiana, per rinnovare una lingua morta e sostituire le deformità della retorica. Il dialetto è capace di dare vivacità alla lingua. La ricerca della naturalità espressiva è una costante dello stile pirandelliano. Dall'analisi delle traduzioni delle novelle che costituiscono anche il corpus del nostro studio notiamo l'uso di parole in siciliano, toscano e poche parole appartenenti ad altri dialetti.

Per quanto riguarda la traduzione del dialetto occorre dire che le varietà diatopiche sono state sempre oggetto di riflessioni per la difficoltà che rappresentano nel trovare un'equivalenza linguistica. Rosa Rabadán esclude in maniera categorica la possibilità dell'equivalenza. La critica pensa che si tratti di uno di quegli argomenti problematici per i quali non esistono soluzioni soddisfacenti.

Si offrono comunque delle varie soluzioni a proposito. La prima possibilità è la traduzione del dialetto con la varietà standard o neutrale della lingua d'arrivo. Questa possibilità permette di trasferire il significato semantico del testo originale, però si produce una perdita di tono e di ricchezza espressiva, specialmente se la varietà linguistica è importante nella costruzione delle identità (Carbonell i Cortes, 1999: 92). Per alleggerire un po' questa perdita, si intromette una glossa intratestuale (del tipo «detto in dialetto») oppure extratestuale (nota a piè di pagina) in modo da informare il lettore che un personaggio parla in una determinata varietà.

La seconda possibilità consiste nella traduzione o la sostituzione del dialetto originale con una varietà specifica della lingua d'arrivo. Catford e Julià sostengono la traduzione del dialetto come possibilità di conservare la ricchezza funzionale che esiste tra le varietà geografiche del testo d'origine. La critica esclude questa possibilità. Lefevere (1992: 69-70) ritiene che le connotazioni prodotte dalle varietà linguistiche negli utenti della traduzione di solito sono assai differenti; a questo va aggiunto il fatto che la scelta del dialetto nella lingua d'arrivo può essere condizionata da qualche approccio ideologico del traduttore. (Lefevere 1997: 78).

La terza possibilità invece prende come punto di partenza la varietà standard della lingua d'arrivo e suggerisce di sottometterla ad un processo di manipolazione introducendo vari elementi a diversi livelli (lessico-semantico e morfosintattici) per dimostrare al lettore che alcuni personaggi parlano in un modo particolare e diverso dalla forma considerata standard.

Occorre dire che nessuna delle tre opzioni non assicura la mancanza della perdita dell'espressione o del tono.

2.1.1 Pirandello e il dialetto siciliano

Pirandello per un lato s'accosta al dialetto della Sicilia e per un altro ne rimane sdegnosamente lontano. In Pirandello hai l'artista che mescola, non fonde, lo stile suo con quello delle sue creature, ma con la segreta speranza di spremere da quest'ultimo solo la parte sostanziosa onde farla passare nell'altro e renderlo più vitale. Nella prosa di Pirandello avverti non poche stonature (Puglisi 1968: 119). E non solo i termini, si tenga presente, stridono tra loro per la diversa fattura e provenienza, ma le costruzioni stesse della proposizione, del periodo, si trovano non di rado a disagio nella prosa pirandelliana (Puglisi 1968: 122).

Più che un accordo in Pirandello, tra la lingua dotta e quella dialettale, c'è un compromesso. Si direbbe ch'egli conceda, sì, ai suoi personaggi la facoltà di parlare nel loro dialetto, ma tosto li ferma per far passare sottobanco nel loro frasario qualche termine suo, quasi li volesse abituare a poco a poco a parlare la lingua madre (Puglisi 1968: 123).

Ecco, ci sono esclamazioni, modi di dire, propri dei Siciliani, ma, siamo sempre lì, cacciati a forza all'interno del periodo, del discorso, e che restano pertanto soli, soli, spauriti (Puglisi 1968: 126).

Cos'è che resta dunque della Sicilia nello stile di Pirandello? Non il vocabolario (...), non la sintassi ben presto superata, ma il fremito, l'ansito come direbbe lui, il nervosismo dei Siciliani che si ripercuote sul loro linguaggio, a scatti, convulso, mai pago di sé, che fa ricorso alla mimica per completarsi e che rimane, malgrado ciò, in aria il più delle volte (...) (Puglisi 1968: 119).

Ecco alcuni esempi presi dalle sue novelle.

- Quel giorno si parlava della nuova comitiva d'emigranti che la mattina dopo doveva partire per l'America. (L'altro figlio)
- Asaj dite flitej për karvanin e ri të mërgimtarëve që do të nisej për në Amerikë. (Djali tjetër, p. 146, «Jeta lakuriq», Naim Frashëri, Tiranë 1963)

Usa l'imperfetto (doveva) come fanno i siciliani per indicare un'azione che si svolgerà nel futuro. Nella traduzione, ovviamente, non si percepisce minimamente questo uso del dialetto da parte dello scrittore siciliano.

Bisogna dire, però, che ne il vocabolario dove si sente meglio l'influenza della sua terra. La forma dialettale, penetrata nella prosa di Pirandello non poteva non comprometterla:

- Ecco laggiù la Casa della Colonna, (...). Era una catapecchia, veramente; una “roba”, come i contadini di
Sicilia chiamano le loro abitazioni rurali. (L’altro figlio)
- Në të vërtetë ish një kasolle, një plaçkë si i quajnë fshatarët e Siqilisë banesat e tyre. (Djali tjetër, p. 158, «Jeta lakuriq», Naim Frashëri, Tiranë 1963)

Nella traduzione la parola roba viene riportata in grassetto. Questa informazione iconica non riesce però a trasmettere al lettore il fatto che si tratta di una parola in dialetto visto che la parola albanese appartiene alla lingua standard.

- Ehi, commilitone! Picciotto! Picciotto! (Le medaglie)

Dall'Italia settentrionale proviene (attraverso la colonizzazione gallo-italica) il suffisso –ittu, alquanto diffuso nella Sicilia settentrionale, per esempio piccittu "piccolo". Nella traduzione il termine usato appartiene all'albanese standard.

- I "carusi", buttando giù le spalle peste e scorticate, seduti su i sacchi, per rifiatare un po’ all’aria, tutti imbrattati dai cretosi acquitrini lungo le gallerie o lungo la lubrica sala a gradino rotto della “buca”, grattandosi la testa e guardando a quella collina attraverso il vitreo fiato sulfureo che tremolava al sole vaporando dai "calcheroni" accesi o dai fornì. (...) (Il fumo)
- Shegertët, me të shkarkuar barrën që mbanin mbi shpatullat e raskapitura e të rjepura, uleshin sipër thasëve, sa për të marrë një grimë ajër; si njëri tjetri, ishin përlyer e zhgryer nëpër pellgjet e gëlqeres gjatë galerive ose duke kruar kokën – vështronin atë kodër, nëpërmjet afshit, si qelq, të squfurit që ngrihej përpjetë nga furrat e ndezura e fërgëllonte nëpër rrezet e diellit (Tymi, p. 53, «Jeta lakuriq», Naim Frashëri, Tiranë 1963)

Nell’esempio riportato il primo termine in dialetto (carusi) viene tradotto con l’albanese standard, mentre il secondo termine (calcheroni) viene omesso.

Il sicilianismo più conosciuto di Pirandello è senza dubbio la parola lumìa, la quale dà il titolo ad uno dei racconti più famosi di questo autore. Lumìe di Sicilia:
- Prese la valigetta e il sacchettino di sotto la tavola, e s’avviava per uscire quando gli venne in mente che lì, dentro il sacchetto, c’eran le belle lumìe ch’egli aveva portato a Teresina dal paese. (Lumìe di Sicilia)

Anche in questo caso la traduzione del termine viene fatta con un termine che appartiene alla lingua albanese standard optando così per la prima soluzione della traduzione del dialetto offerta dalla teoria e prassi della traduzione.

- Càzzica, che testa! – esclamò lo Zirafa. – Come parlo? V’ho detto che vi voglio i punti. C’intenderemo a lavoro finito: non ho tempo da perdere con voi. (La giara)

In tutti i casi riportati i termini in dialetto vengono tradotti con l’albanese standard non potendo trasmettere così nel testo tradotto lo stile dello scrittore.

2.1.2 Pirandello e il dialetto toscano

Il dialetto toscano insieme a quello siciliano costituisce la fonte più ricca per quanto riguarda le parole dialettali del lessico pirandelliano. L’introduzione delle parole del dialetto toscano nella lingua scritta e quella orale è molto forte dopo l’unificazione politica specialmente negli anni quando Firenze era capoluogo del regno (1865-1871). Per scrittori toscani quali: Fucini, Collodi, Martini ecc. è facile e spontaneo l’adozione delle parole o delle espressioni del dialetto toscano parlato. Con il passar del tempo si riduranno le differenze tra l’italiano standard ed il toscano. Pirandello non poté evitare l’influenza esterna. Uno studio dettagliato della sua opera non può non mettere il risalto la presenza del dialetto toscano.
Nella maggior parte dei casi si tratta dell'uso della varietà toscana al posto dell'equivalente dell'italiano standard.

Cosi per esempio:
- gli armenti (...) muglianti, dove mugliare è una variante popolare toscana del verbo mugghiare (Filo d'aria)
- i paduli salsugginosi dei fiumi perduti (variante toscana di palude) (Filo d'aria)
- moçalet e vogla dhe të kripura të lumenjve të përhumbur (Limona Sicilie, p. 165, «Tregime e novela», Dituria, Tiranë 1999)

In tutti questi casi i segmenti dialettali sono stati tradotti con termini dell'albanese standard.


Per quanto riguarda la traduzione di questi pronomi toscani bisogna dire che in albanese vengono tradotti con pronomi della lingua standard non trasmettendo così la marcatezza lessicale voluta dall’autore.

Un altro punto interessante viene costituito da alcune forme verbali caratteristiche dell’uso toscano. Le più ripetute sono le forme particolari del presente di alcuni verbi come andare e fare.

Ovviamente anche in questi casi l’uso toscano è assolutamente percepito da parte del lettore albanese, perché le corrispondenti albanesi delle parole dialettali appartengono alla lingua standard e non ai dialetti.
mësimit, lapsat; zbriti poshtë para vilës për të bërë një ziarr bubulak. (Shalli i zi, p. 32, «Jeta lakuriq», Naim Frashëri, Tiranë 1963)

Mescola termini della lingua parlata boccato, e della lingua aulica falò. Questa disparità di linguaggio non viene trasmessa nel testo tradotto in albanese. I termini usati appartengono entrambi allo stesso registro dello scritto.

- Va’ ad avvertire tua moglie che, a momenti sarà pronto.
- Non ci vado, gnornò! – grugnì Gherlando, pestando un piede. – Andateci voi.
- Spetta a te, somarone! – gli gridò il padre. – Tu sei il marito: va’! (...) I convitati accorsero a metter pace, a persuadere Gherlando a prendere un boccone...
- Ma se non so neppure come debba chiamarla! – gridò Gherlando, esasperato. (Scialle nero)
- Shko e thuaj sat shoqje se buka është gati.
- Nuk vete dot baba! – u pertyp belbët Xherlandi duke përpjekur këmbën – Shko ti.
- Të përkët ty, Hajvan! – u hakrrua i jati – Ti je burri: cap! (...) Të ftuarit nxituan për të qetsuar ujrat, për t’i pajaçuar, për t’i mbush mendjen Xherlandit t’i bënte zë neses...
- Nuk di me ç’emër ta thërres! – turfulloi Xherlandi i xhindosur. (Shalli i zi, p. 25, «Jeta lakuriq», Naim Frashëri, Tiranë 1963)

In questa occasione il protagonista si comporta come un contadino: gnornò, dice. Ovvio che la parola debba è una forma troppo corretta e precisa nelle labbra di Gherlando. Anche in questo esempio la marcatezza lessicale non viene trasmessa nel testo tradotto.

2.2 Termini provenienti dalle altre lingue

Nell’epoca in cui Pirandello scriveva era costante l’entrata dei forestierismi nella lingua italiana. Pirandello non solo criticò l’imitazione dei classici, ma molto più forte era la sua critica contro l’imitazione degli scrittori stranieri.

La lingua italiana generalmente non adatta il termine straniero al suo sistema fonetico-morfologico: lo lascia com’è. Nella maggioranza dei casi i forestierismi nelle novelle di Pirandello vengono indicati in corsivo oppure con le virgolette. Questa informazione iconica serve al lettore per ricevere in anticipo un’informazione ai fini della comprensione del termine. Uno scrittore dal ricco vocabolario come Pirandello non può non far entrare nelle sue opere molti termini provenienti dalle altre lingue. Il termine straniero è molto più frequente in quegli episodi che si situano all’estero.

2.2.1 Gallicismi

Tra le altre lingue usate da Pirandello nelle sue novelle i gallicismi sono i più abbondanti. Nelle novelle troviamo esempi di gallicismi adattati e di altri non adattati.

Termini non adattati:
- (...) lo esaminava, lo faceva voltare di qua e di là, Pardon! Pardon! – (...) Marsina stretta
- ...rinte e vështronte profesorin dhe e kthente sa andej-këndej, Pardon! Pardon! (Fraku i ngushtë, p. 166, «Nata e parë», Toena, Tiranë 2008)
- (...) innanzi allo châlet in Piazza delle Terme (Se...)
- (...) il proprietario vorrebbe che al bureau si sapesse con precisione (...) Nell’albergo è morto un tale)
- (...) pronari i hotelit kërkonte që në zyrën e informacionit të dinin me saktësi (...) (Në hotel vdiq dikush, p. 133, «Jeta lakuriq», Çabej, Tiranë 1997)

Per dare questi gallicismi i traduttori si riferiscono ai gallicismi usati nella lingua albanese. Così «pardon» è un gallicismo non adattato anche in albanese ed il traduttore lo ha lasciato com’è. «Chalet» è un termine francese che in albanese è stato adattato alle regole fonetico-morfologiche della lingua, invece il termine «bureau» non è stato preso in prestito dall’albanese, perciò il traduttore traduce il termine e non usa il prestito usato da Pirandello.

Termini adattati:
- (...) alla vecchia signora che ingombrava con la sua enorme pinguedine mezzo canapè (Marsina stretta)
- (...) E çuan përpara zonjës së moshuar që kishte zënë gjysmë kanapeje. (Fraku i ngushtë, p. 172, «Nata e parë», Toena, Tiranë 2008)
- (...) s’era affrettato a disfarsi, tanto di lui, quanto di Corbino, gli ultimi rimasti nella scuderia, per il placido landò della madre (La rallegrata)
- (...) nxitoi dhe i shpërndau kuajt: largoi edhe dy të fundit që patën mbetur në sallë, për llandonin e lehtë të së ëmës. (Kërcim i hareshëm, p. 138, «Jeta lakuriq», Çabej, Tiranë 1997)
In questi ultimi due casi si tratta di parole entrate anche nell’albanese ed adattate alle particolarità della lingua per cui la scelta dei traduttori è stata quella di usare i termini già in uso anche nella loro lingua.

In alcune novelle troviamo la presenza di frasi intere o canzoni in lingua straniera. Nella novella *Avemaria di Bobbio* il suo protagonista legge per la prima volta il volume «Essais de Montaigne»; concretamente leggeva il capitolo XXVII, dove si dimostra che «c’est folie de rapporter le vrai et le faux à notre suffisance» (Avemaria di Bobbio)

Dopo aver letto alcune righe in francese, Bobbio esclama:

- Eh già! – (... Eh già! Ce grand saint Augustin attesta, o diciamo, autentica d’aver veduto, su le reliquie di san Gervaso e Protaso a Milano, un fanciullo cieco riacquistare la vista (Avemaria di Bobbio)
- Posi jo! Ce grand Saint Augustin na pohoka, apo më mirë na vërtetoka se paska parë përmbi reliktet e shenjtorëve Xhervazio e Protasio, në Milano, një fënëvëj të verbër, të cilit i qënëk kthyer të parit (Urata e Bobios, p. 131, «Nata e parë», Toena, Tiranë 2008)

Colto da un grande dolore di denti, cerca di concentrarsi nella lettura del suddetto libro:

- Riprese il libro e la lettura, “une femme nouvellement baptisée lui fit; Hesperius... no, appresso... Ah ecco... une femme en une procession avantouché à la chase Saint Estienne d’un bouquet, et de ce bouquet s’estant frottée les veux, avoir recouvré la veue qu’elle avait perdue...” (Avemaria di Bobbio)
- pastaj i hapi perseri. la nisi leximit sërish. “une femme nouvellement baptisée lui fit; Hesperius... no, appresso... Ja këtu... une femme en une procession avantouché à la chase Saint Estienne d’un bouquet, et de ce bouquet s’estant frottée les veux, avoir recouvré la veue qu’elle avait perdue...” (Urata e Bobios, p. 132, «Nata e parë», Toena, Tiranë 2008)

Nel caso di queste frasi scritte interamente in francese il traduttore ha scelto di ripeterle nella loro lingua originale e per venire incontro alle esigenze di comprensione dei lettori che ignorano il francese con una glossa extratestuale ha dato la traduzione in albanese.

2.2.2 Iberismi

Per quanto riguarda l’uso degli iberismi usati da Pirandello nelle sue novelle, bisogna dire che la maggioranza è stata adattata in italiano dal punto di vista grafico, fonetico e morfologico.

Termini non adattati:

- “Un guazzabuglio d’immagini, di ricordi, come in un balenio d’uragano, gli tumultuava nello spirito. La Plata, le pampas (Filo d’aria)

Il traduttore ha scelto di ripetere il termine straniero, però non essendo introdotto anche in albanese questo iberismo risulta una parola strana, incomprensibile. Avrebbe dovuto introdurre una glossa extratestuale con la spiegazione.

Termini adattati:

- le polizzine della rifa costavano un soldo l’una (La Madonnina)
- Biletat e shortit kushtoron një soldë copa. (Zoja prej dyll, p. 36, «Zoja prej dyll», Toena, Tiranë 2010)
- Il mezzadro, (...) lui era stato in America, otto anni a Benossarie (Scialle nero)
- bujku (...) kish qenë në Amerikë, tetë vjet në Buenos Aires (Shalli i zi, p. 18, «Jeta lakuriq», Naim Frashëri, Tiranë 1963)
- un vestito grigio d’alpagà (Il ventaglino)
- i veshur me tesha të leshta ngjyrë hiri (Erashka, p. 94, «Jeta lakuriq», Naim Frashëri, Tiranë 1963)
- Nane Papa, con le mani grassocce appese alle falde del vecchio pànama sformato, dice a Candelora: (Candelora)
- Nane Papa i vuri duart e majme në rrethin e kapeles së vjetër, kapelë kashte e deformuar, dhe i tha Kandelorës: (Kandelora, p. 123, «Jeta lakuriq», Çabej, Tiranë 1997)

Dopo aver subito le trasformazioni per l’adattamento al sistema fonetico e morfologico della lingua italiana questi termini vanno ad arricchire il lessico dell’epoca ed il lettore li considera termini della propria lingua per cui il corsivo non è più necessario. Anche il traduttore albanese li percepisce come termini che appartengono alla lingua italiana, perciò prosegue con la traduzione come tutti gli altri termini.
2.2.3 Anglicismi

Gli anglicismi usati da Pirandello appartengono a settori molto concreti, come la moda, i mezzi di comunicazione e la gastronomia. Così come succede anche per i gallicismi, nella maggioranza dei casi si trascrivono i termini tra virgolette o in corsivo per comunicare al lettore l’adozione di una certa parola straniera. Si nota l’uso dei termini stranieri in quelle novelle che sono ambientate all’estero oppure hanno come protagonista personaggi non italiani. Per esempio nella novella Il capretto nero la storia si svolge in Sicilia però ha come protagonista un viceconsole inglese in Girgenti, il sig. Charles Trolkey e altri turisti inglesi nell’isola ai quali si riferisce utilizzando i titoli sir e miss.

- Più di tutti lieta e ammirata se ne mostrò, lo scorso aprile, la giovanissima e vivacissima Miss Ethel Holloway. (Il capretto nero)
- Në muajin prill, më e kënaqur dhe më e mrekulluar nga të gjithë u tregua Mis Etel Hallouej (Keci i zi, p. 149, «Tregime e novela», Dituria, Tirànë 1999)
- (...) molto mi compiacqui della gioja di quella piccola Miss. (…) (Il capretto nero)
- (...) aq sa më kënaqi gëzimi i asaj zonjushës së vogël ... (Idem, p. 150)
- (...) Sir W.H. Holloway, ricchissimo e autorevolissimo Pari d’Inghilterra.
- E dërgonte Sër U.H. Halloueji, Lord i Anglisë (Idem, p. 152)

Si tratta di anglicismi conosciuti anche nell’albanese perciò non è stato difficile per il traduttore scegliere la strategia da adottare: usare la forma tipica albanese di questi anglicismi.

2.2.4 Latinismi

I latinismi costituiscono un elemento essenziale del lessico di Pirandello come furono anche per altri scrittori come Carducci, D’Annunzio e Pascoli. Lo studio ed il conseguente influsso della lingua e della letteratura latina si può percepire nello stile e nella lingua di Pirandello che appare sempre permeata da numerosi cultismi. In Pirandello dobbiamo distinguere quei latinismi già adattati in italiano che conservano la loro qualità di cultismi indicati talvolta da termini letterari e poetici e gli altri latinismi non adattati che lui usa come espressioni lessicalizzati nella lingua oppure, in altri casi, come litanie con un pizzico di ironia o critica.

Termini non adattati:
- con l’aria di un compitissimo arbiter elegantiarum (Marsina stretta)
- sikur të qe në plot kuptimin e fjalës një arbiter elegantorum (Fraku i ngushtë, p. 166, «Nata e parë», Toena, Tirànë 2008)
- dhe e shytu të binte në dashuri face të gjithëve me atin Fiorika (La Madonnina)
- (...) da cui si fa ajutare nelle cure sui generis che impartisce ai malati (Acqua e lì)
- Ora me le avrebbe protestate ipso facto, capisci? (Amicissimi)
- - Tani do të m’i kërkonte se s’bën! (Shokë të ngushtë, f. 73, «Nata e parë», Toena, Tirànë 2008)
- - (...) l’avemaria, questa volta in latino... gratia plena... Dominus tecum... fructus ventris tui... nunc et in hora mortis... (…) Amen (L’Avemaria di Bobbio)

La strategia scelta da parte dei traduttori albanesi è la stessa: ripetizione dei termini in latino e per risolvere i problemi di comprensione del lettore albanese hanno dato con una glossa extrateostuale la traduzione linguistica in albanese.

Termini adattati:
- - Per quanto riguarda gli altri latinismi che conservano la qualità dei cultismi bisogna dire che, in alcune occasioni, questo uso sembra esprimere un’intenzione stilistica molto chiara. Troviamo tutta una serie di sostantivi, aggettivi, verbi e avverbi usati con valore letterario o poetico che servono per elevare il tono del contenuto della scrittura.
- - Verbi: annunziare, guatare, denunziare, garrire (nel significato di “sventolare”) avventare, springare, perorare, pollare ecc.
- E ora, ecco, arrivavano le paranze, una dopo l’altra, con le vele che garrivano allegre (La maestrina Boccarmè)
Il termine scelto in albanese appartiene al linguaggio letterario riflettendo in una certa misura la scelta stilistica dell'autore.

- Alzò subito gli occhi a guatarla in viso. (Filo d'aria)
- Dhe ja, ku vinin parancat, njëra mbas tjetrës, me velat që cijatnin gëzueshëm (Mësuesja Bokarme, p. 121, «Tregime e novela», Dituria, Tiranë 1999)
- Non voleva aver fine, perdio, una così enorme sconcezza, una siffatta oltracotanza. (Il bottone della palandrana)
- Doveva aver fine, perdio, una così enorme sconcezza, una siffatta oltracotanza. (Il bottone della palandrana)
- Nei casi riportati i cultismi usati dallo scrittore vengono tradotti con termini del linguaggio comune e che non vengono riconosciuti per qualche loro uso particolare. In questo modo lo stile dello scrittore non viene trasmesso nel testo tradotto provocando delle perdite nel processo traduttivo.

2. Sostantivi: presidio, oltracotanza, esordio, pervicacia, sacrificio, virgulto, orfanotrofio, doglie, viatico, famiglio, lustro, ferula, gerontocomio, ricetto, convittore ecc.
- (... ne provava tale gaudio e insieme tale sgomento (La Madonnina)
- e non rifinivano di porgli sotto gli occhi e di fargli toccar con mano le miserande piaghe della loro esistenza (I fortunati)
- Quel dondolio lento di code prolisse, quel raspare di zoccoli, di tratto in tratto, certo erano di cavalli cogitabondi. (La rallegrata)

3. Aggettivi: ubertoso, diuturno, cospicuo, subitaneo, inviso, discinta, fulvo, superno, blando, cogitabondo, famigerato, brullo, munifico, miserando, specioso, nefando, silente ecc.
- Dhe tradhtinë që kishin bërë ata gjatë viteve të rënda të tiranisë së Burbonëve
- Ajo lëkundje e lehtë e bishtave të gjatë, ajo e rrëmihur e tokës me këmbë, kohë pas kohe, ishin shenja e gjeste kuajsh të kredhur në mendime. (Kërcim i hareshëm, p. 139, «Jeta lakuriq», Çabej, Tiranë 1997)
Basta questo, perch’è Milocca sia inviso a tutti: inviso per principio (Acqua e lì)
Mjafton kjo që në Miloka ta shohin të gjithë shkretër, ashtu, për parim, pa mbajtur parasysh rezultatet e punës së tij (Ujë dhe pikë, p. 183, «Nata e parë», Toena, Tiranë 2008)
(...), coi magnifici capelli fulvi scomposti intorno al bel volto pallido (Come gemelle)
me flikët e mrekullueshëm kugërrëmtë të shkruhur rreth e rreth fytyrës së zbehtë (Si dy binjake, p. 120, «Nata e parë», Toena, Tiranë 2008)

I cultismi in questi casi vengono tradotti con termini che appartengono alla lingua scritta, non necessariamente letteraria e così non riescono a trasmettere al lettore albanese questa particolarità della lingua di Pirandello.

(...), e lunghesso il canale quell’eleganza di gracili salci violeti e tanto dolce azzurro l’ombra che dilaga (Il vecchio Dio)
(...), qiatë vijes së ujit një hijeshi shelqjesh të brishtë me fletë si në ngjyrë të manushaqes dhe një tis të gjerë kaltërsie të ëmbël që shtrihej si liqen (Zoti i vjetër, p. 175, «Nata e parë», Naim Frashëri, Tiranë 2008)

Anche in questi casi la scelta della traduzione non rispetta lo stile e la scelta dello scrittore del testo originale.

3. Conclusioni

In questo studio abbiamo preso in analisi la traduzione in albanese del linguaggio delle novelle di Pirandello e le difficoltà che sorgono durante la traduzione nonostante l’impressione che si tratti di un linguaggio semplice che non pone problemi di sorta. Oggetto di studio sono stati i segmenti testuali in dialetto e quelli appartenenti ad altre lingue. Dopo l’analisi di alcune delle sue novelle tradotte in albanese siamo giunti al seguente modo:

- la strategia predominante nella traduzione del dialetto è quella della traduzione del dialetto con l’albanese standard. Il testo tradotto è allontanato così dal testo originale, dal codice artistico dell’autore, e si è avvicinato all’individualizzazione espressiva del traduttore evidenziando così l’idiolettio espressivo del traduttore.
- per la traduzione dei segmenti linguistici in altre lingue (gallicismi, anglicismi) i traduttori hanno seguito la strategia della ripetizione in alcuni casi per i termini adattati e la strategia della traduzione nel caso dei termini non adattati.
- per la traduzione dei latinismi non adattati la ripetizione e la glossa esterna per spiegare il termine pare essere la scelta principale dei traduttori; per i latinismi adattati, invece, la strategia principale è quella di testimoniaro nelle traduzioni, essendo del termini che costituiscono dei cultismi servono allo scrittore per creare cambiamenti di tono nel discorso, questi cambiamenti appaiono in modo più intensa nelle traduzioni albanesi.

Cercando di osservare l’equivalenza funzionale o skopos theory (una traduzione deve produrre lo stesso effetto a cui mirava l’originale) posso dire che nel caso della traduzione della lingua di Pirandello ci troviamo di fronte a delle perdite nel processo traduttivo.

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In the Name of God the Merciful the Compassionate
The Role of Congregational Rituals in Islamic Pattern of Life

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Abstract
From the time religious beliefs sprang into existence, attending congregational religious rituals was one of the main ways to express devotion to gods and to demonstrate the power and preserve unity of the adherents. This kind of social behavior was not only important to the founders but also to the followers of religions. Gradually, this religious phenomenon became one of the inseparable parts of people’s lives and one of the easiest ways for maintaining the ties of relationship. For Muslims, communal religious rituals play prominent roles in preparing the ground for socio-religious felicity and for strengthening ties of devotion to God. In this article, an attempt has been made to offer a brief historical survey of Islamic congregational rituals and to discover the most important elements, roles and impacts of this socio-religious behavior in developing social values in Muslim communities.

Keywords: Congregational rituals, Religion, Islam, Social life, Mosque.

1. Introduction

Human as a social being, has always been interested in social activities, communication with others and afraid of seclusion and isolation to such an extent that exile is considered as a very severe penalty for criminals. It seems this principal quality is applied to most aspects of human’s life, e.g. business, study, entertainment and decision making. Indeed, to bring different arguments and examples regarding human’s social life is to utter an obvious truth, in fact a tautology.

The importance of this natural quality becomes more obvious when we realize that the messengers of God and founders of religions, lay emphasis on social aspects of life to remind people of their social God-given nature and on the fact that all humans are in need of one another. This emphasis on congregation was also to strengthen the foundation of religion and to increase public trend towards religious life; this was because, intercultural and interethnic conflicts and enmities had caused considerable loss and hatred among people; hence, it seems that unity and congregation is an influential factor in reinforcing adherents’ tendency towards religiosity. The importance of communal rituals is nicely presented by Rippin (2006):

“Ritual activities and their attendant buildings, clothes and assorted paraphernalia provide the emblems of a religion and become, for the members of the religion themselves, modes for the expressions of their identity” (p. 103)

Islam is one of the finest examples of a religion in which brotherhood and unity act as pillars for Muslim community. There are many uniting features in Islam, but what this article specifically tries to survey is the influence of the congregational religious rituals on Muslim societies and to find out the reasons because of which God legislated communal rituals for Muslims as for many other believers.

To chart this religious and cultural phenomenon, needs a comprehensive research on the history of developments and the functions of congregational rituals; we also need precise reflection on the narrated traditions. In this piece of writing, we will firstly try to provide a brief explanation about the significance, types and levels of congregational religious rituals in Islam. Secondly, a short historical survey about developments and functions of the mosque as the most important place in Muslims’ social life will be offered. Thirdly, there will be an attempt to present the roles and the impacts of congregational rituals on Islamic societies. Finally, we will discuss briefly how these congregational rituals can provide a good pattern for peace seekers in the world.
2. The Significance of Congregational Religious Rituals

Although some religions including Islam admired and praised those believers who worship God in private avoiding people's eyes, at the same time they invited the adherents to participate in religious rituals along with other believers in congregation. “The most meritorious worship before Allah is when performed in private” (Majlisi, 1983, vol. 70, p. 251). “Good deeds performed in private will be seventy times more meritorious than the one performed in public” (Saduq, 1990, p. 179).

These two approaches towards worship, seemingly contradict each other. How can we reconcile between these two religious orders? Some thinkers contend that the divine order of worshipping God in private is special for recommended acts of worship (non-obligatory); and, the divine order of attending congregational rituals and prayers is special for obligatory rituals (Hillī, 1984, vol. 1, p. 59). The reason behind this persuasion might be originated from the quality of pretension and showing off; that is because, in obligatory acts there is less possibility for pretension because all people ought to perform their obligation and usually people do not get proud of doing their duties; but, if someone perform a recommended act e.g. helping the poor, he/she is more subject to pretension and hypocrisy.

It seems that the philosophy behind congregational rituals in Islam is originated from a reality higher than merely being recommended or obligatory, because there are some recommended religious acts which are performed in congregation e.g. prayer of rain and funeral prayer. Due to this fact, we might conclude that the main factor for this Divine legislation is based on the social felicity and interest and because of these advantages God prioritized congregational activities over private ones in many situations. It is true that worshipping God in public would possibly have some disadvantages regarding pretension, but social advantages of congregational rituals surely outweigh the disadvantages.

3. Levels and Types of Congregational Religious Rituals

There are several religious Islamic rituals; some are obligatory and some recommended. To understand the levels and types of these rituals we need to introduce the most famous and most important types of them.

1. Daily Prayers: The first religious ritual sprang into being in the history of Islam was congregational daily prayers, Salat al-Jamaah. As we will point out later to the historical background of daily prayer, it was firstly performed by the Prophet of Islam along with his wife and his cousin. These five prayers are performed everyday by Muslims in Mosques. They usually attend the nearest Mosque in their neighborhood. These daily prayers can be performed in the house but it is highly recommended to be performed in mosque congregationally (Tabatabai, 2008, p. 241).

2. Friday Prayer: The second congregational ritual is Friday prayer, Salat al-jumah. At the time of the Prophet people were performing their daily prayer in their neighborhoods’ mosque, but they would come to the mosque of the Prophet every Friday to pray with him (McAliffe, Encyclopedia of the Quran, vol. 2, p. 271).

3. Prayer of Fast breaking feast & Prayer of Sacrifice feast: Eid al-fitr Feast of Fast breaking is a holiday celebrated by Muslims once a year at the end of Ramadan Month; in this holiday, Muslims gather in their mosques and perform feast prayer (Abu samra, p. 170). Second important holiday for Muslims is the Feast of sacrifice; “this festival marks the annual completion of the Hajj; it falls on the tenth of the month of dhul-hajjah” (Haneef, 1996, p. 151).

4. Signs Prayers: This prayer is performed at the time of happening of some natural phenomena such as earthquake, eclipse and some other natural phenomena which create wonder and fear among people (Tabatabi, 2008, p. 240).

5. Prayer of Rain: It is recommended to perform rain prayer, Salat al-istisqa when people suffering from drought and shortage of rain. In this prayer people ordered to leave the town and go outside onto the plain and in an open spacoeto ask God for rain (Al-tusi, 2008, p. 106).

6. Funeral Prayer (Prayer over the deceased): Before burying the corpse of a dead Muslim, his/her relatives and friends participate in the funeral ceremony and pray together Salat al-mayyit and ask God to bestow His mercy upon him/her and seek His forgiveness (Al-Hilli, 2009, p. 105).

7. Hajj: In fact Hajj is the greatest ritual in Muslims life and it is obligatory for Muslims to perform pilgrimage to Mecca at least once in their lifetime. The greatness of Hajj ritual is firstly because of the holiness of the place in which this ritual takes place, and secondly the great number of participants. “The Hajj was performed in pre-Islamic times and its rituals are believed to go back to [the Prophet] Ibrahim and his son Ismail (Shepard, 2005, p. 94).
8- Retreat in the Mosque (*'tikaf*): this ritual is a period of retreat in a central mosque and Muslims in some occasions in the year stay in the mosque for a certain number of days specially the last ten days of Ramadan month. This act of worship is not obligatory but highly recommended (Gibb, 1960, vol. 4, p. 280).

9- Keeping ties of Kinship: Visiting relatives and maintaining ties of kinship (*Silat al-rahim*) is one of the binding obligations in Islam which God ordered Muslims to perform and observe it in their lives (The Holy Quran, 4:1).

10- Celebration of anniversary of birth date of the Prophet of Islam and Imams (*Mawlid*): Many Muslims around the world, celebrate the anniversary of the Prophet's birth date in their local mosques. In some other Islamic countries, Muslims not only celebrate the anniversary of the Prophet's birth date, but also they celebrate the birth date of the Prophet's household (Jones, vol. 9, p. 5588).

4. **Historical Survey**

It seems that there is no historical evidence for the accurate time in which congregational rituals and public places of worship became existent. According to Muslims’ belief based on the Qur'anic verses and the Prophetic narrations, the first house of God and place of worship was *Ka'bah*, the central part of *Masjid al-harâm* (Sanctified Mosque) in Mecca. “The first house appointed for men was that at *Bekka*, full of blessing and guidance for all kinds of beings” (The Holy Quran, 3: 96); some collections of tradition narrated some *Hadith* about the construction and the early days of *Ka'bah*, indicating that Almighty God sent an angel to Adam (pbuh) to show him the place of the house and *Adam* was the first who constructed the *Ka'bah* (Kurdî, 2008, p. 24). This house was collapsed by the flood in the period of the Prophet Noah (pbuh) and God ordered the Prophet Abraham (pbuh) to reconstruct His house (Azaqî, 1956, p. 6).

There are some evidences presenting the construction of the first mosque prior to the emigration of the Prophet of Islam to Medina (Samhûdî, 1973, vol. 1, P. 250.); but some of the historians report that the first mosque founded by the Prophet of Islam was allegedly the mosque of *Qubâ*, with the assistance of his new followers in the village of *Qubâ* in the outlying environs of *Yathrib* (Medina). This mosque constructed in *Qubâ* while the Prophet's stay, waiting for his cousin *'Ali b. Abitaflî*, who emigrated along with the Prophet's family. Subsequent to that incident, after arriving to Medina the Prophet built his house and mosque (*Masjid al-nabi*) in the neighborhood of *bâriñajîâr* (one of the tribes in Medina) near the house of *abûayyûb al-ansârî*. It did not take long until nine other mosques were built in nine neighborhoods of Medina in the life time of the Prophet. People would gather in the mosque of the Prophet as a central mosque for Friday prayer (*'Amrî, 2002 vol. 1, p. 62), but mostly because of far distance and daily activities, they would perform daily prayers in the nearest mosque to their houses.

There were also several mosques out of Medina that have been constructed in different places in which the Prophet stayed, set his tent or preformed prayer. *Ibn hishâm*, the famous historian narrated names of the mosques which have been built during the Prophet’s journey to *Tabûk* (the name of a place and a battle); the number of those mosques reaches to seventeen (*Ibn Hisâhm*, 1963, vol. 4, p. 108).

The early mosques in the period of the Prophet had very simple structure and there were no roof nor pulpit; the Prophet were standing, leaning his back against a palm and preaching to the believers; after a while, Muslims made a wooden pulpit for the Prophet to facilitate sermonizing for him (Dârûmî, 1931, Vol. 1, p. 16). The ceiling of the mosque was made of date palm's branches to avoid sun’s heat; when the companions asked the Prophet to allow them for making a new ceiling with mud and brick, the Prophet said I like my mosque to be the same as the Moses’ place of worship which was a simple sunshade (*Ibn-kathîr*, 1976, vol. 2, p. 304). After the Prophet and during the leadership of the Calîphs the structure of mosques was simple and the conduct of the Prophet served as a model for the Muslim community, but because of royal government of *bâni-umayyah* and above all, the contact of Muslims with other organized religions, they tried to make their mosques much more attractive and glorious in comparison to other religion’s places (Muqaddasî, 2006, vol. 1, p. 224).

Muslims were encouraged by the Prophet to build mosque in their cities. There are many reports transmitted from the Prophet and his progeny, presenting the worthy rewards for a person who build mosque; “Almighty God will grant a palace in paradise to a person who build a mosque” (*Kuleynî*, 1988, vol. 3, p. 368), “one who light a lamp in the mosque, the angels would pray for him as long as illuminating” (*Bahrînî*, 1899, vol. 7, p. 275). These advices were persuasive enough to increase the number of mosques in some cities as many as several thousand until the third century.

The historical background of Muslim’s congregational prayer goes back to the early days of Islam. *'Aflî al-kindî* narrated that he was a businessman and in one of his journeys to Mecca before development of Islam, he saw an peculiar scene in *Masjid al-harâm* (sanctified mosque); that, all people were worshiping idols, but a middle-aged man arrived to the mosque and stood in front of *Ka'bah*, turning his face towards Jerusalem, then a young man and a woman...
stood beside him and started to pray and prostrate; then, ‘Aff asked his friend ‘Abbās b. ‘Abd al-mutallib, out of amazement: who are these? ‘The middle-aged man is Muhammad, the woman is his wife Khadijah and the young man is his cousin ‘Ali b. Abītalib; Muhammad came up with a new religion but there is not any follower of this religion other than these three’, ‘Abbās answered (Ibn athīr, 1994, vol. 2, p. 75).

After the development of Islam, idolaters of Mecca disenfranchised the Prophet and his followers from performing prayer in the mosque. Accordingly, Muslims used to gather in the house of Arqam b. ābi Arqam (one of the Muslims) and worship God congregationally afterwards; many companions of the Prophet embraced Islam in this house (Ibn sa’d, 2001, vol. 3, p. 242).

5. Functions of Mosque during History

Although mosque plays different vital roles to maintain the identity of Muslim community, the Qur’anic verses explicitly introduce the devotional expression, connection and submission to God the Almighty, as the main element for the validity of mosque without which there is no mosque worthy of name (The Holy Quran, 24:36, 2:114, 7:29). Hence, the validity of mosque is based on Friday prayer which is obligatory, and daily prayer which is more meritorious to be performed in the mosque (Gibb, 1960, vol. 4, p. 280).

Although other functions of mosque, e.g. educational effort, are considered as worship and deserve divine rewards, they are not counted as determining factors for the emergence of mosque in Muslim's life; because education is only a preliminary stage upon which religion paves the ground not only to teach lay people how to obey God, but also to promote the spiritual values of educated people. This God-based attitude towards presence in the mosque is evidently illustrated in Imam ‘Ali b. Abī talib (pbuh) saying: “Being in the mosque is more pleasing and delightful for me than being in the paradise; since being in the paradise is my own desire and wish, but being in the mosque is the want of my Lord” (Majīṣī, 1983, vol. 80, p. 362).

It seems that one of the most significant functions of the early mosques was education; that, teaching Islam, was the main goal of the Prophetic mission; the Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) said: I surely have been sent to fulfill moral values (Tabrist, 1995, vol. 10, p. 86). The Prophet once entered the mosque and saw two circles of Muslims, one of them were worshipping God and the other were studying; He said, both circles are in the right path, but the second gathering is more meritorious and I actually have been sent as a the Prophet to teach; then he joined the second group (‘Amīlī, 1989, p.106).

The Prophet used to sit in the mosque in different times, chiefly after morning and night prayer to answer Muslim's questions and to preach to them. He would sit beside one of the columns in the mosque (Uṣtuwānah al-wufūḍ) and the representatives of different tribes and religions were coming to ask him about the new religion (Tustarī, 1985, vol. 18, p. 169). The Prophet prioritized education over other recommended deeds and he declared “whoever enter the mosque for teaching or learning, is identically rewarded as one who fights for the path of God” (Shokānī, 1973, vol. 2, p. 165).

There were also some of the companions of the Prophet teaching and sermonizing in the absence of the Prophet in his life time and after his death, not only in Medina but also in other cities (Zahābī, vol. 1, p. 14). Encouraging the Prophetic traditions has made the mosque as a center for educational endeavors, whilst there were less than twenty literate individuals among Quraysh (the most famous tribe in Mecca) before the emergence of Islam (Balāżarī, 1960, vol. 3, p. 580).

The companions were very eager to listen to the new revealed verses of the Quran and also the Prophetic advices to such extent that even if some Muslims could not participate everyday due to daily activities, they would participate in the mosque every other day and interchangeably, so that the absents could get informed of the details of the Prophet's sermon, by the presents (Bukharī, 1981, vol. 1, p. 31). Educational benefits in the mosque, more or less has continued at the time of Caliphs and up to the present time.

Social functions of the mosque have varied from time to time with a view to Muslim's need. At the time of the Prophet, mosque was not only a place of worship and education, but also a comfortable place for travelers to have a rest, an accommodation for the poor emigrants, a place providing treatment for injured soldiers, a court of law and even a place for matchmaking. Political functions mostly used to deal with the consultation on martial affairs, choosing and performing allegiance to new caliph and also a place for awakening and revoltng against cruelty and tyrannies (Wāqīdī, 2005, p. 152).

This variety of function, was evidently due to the simplicity of the early Muslim's cities and lack of facilities; therefore, after the development of Muslim communities and considerable growth in the number of believers, other institutions such as Madrasah (religious school), Dār al-Imārah (the house of government), hospital and caravanserai,
replaced mosque and carried out most of the socio-political functions.

6. The Role of Religious Congregational Rituals in Muslims’ Life

In order to find out decisive roles of congregational rituals on Muslims’ social life, we need to focus on various types and levels of these rituals to find their differences and commonalities. Through this process, the first thing draws our attention is the variety of situations and occasions in which congregational rituals legislated and recommended. Happiness and sadness, relatives and strangers, compatriots and foreigners, in mosque or in open space, all are different ways, people and places associated with congregational rituals.

These communal rituals make social, political, economic and emotional links between participants. When people of a neighborhood meet one another everyday in the mosque, they will get acquainted and become like members of a family and they support each other in different situations. The levels of these congregations form a variety of links between Muslim individuals; they meet their neighbors every day in their local Mosque, townspeople, once a week in the central Mosque and Muslims of other cities and countries once a year in Hajj pilgrimage. They meet other Muslims in happiness when they participate in prayer of fast-breaking feast and sacrifice feast. They try to extend their sympathy to their Muslim relatives and friends when they attend funeral prayer. In hardship and inconvenience, they participate in some congregational rituals to be able to endure and tolerate the difficulties easier and to ask God to rescue them. Another motive which instigates Muslims to attend communal religious rituals is recurrent in several narrations according to which God is answering communal prayers sooner than prayers in private (Hillī, 1987, p. 157).

One other factor which makes these uniting ties stronger and broadens the circle of unity is the unity of language. All Muslims around the world express their devotion towards God in one language almost with the same phrases and words. This unity of language of expression, evidently makes Muslims to feel more intimacy; wherever they travel from East to West, they will find someone who has at least some words and sentences in common. Moreover, the oneness of language could be understood as a manifestation of one God towards whom all Muslims prostrate. Another example of unity in Muslims’ congregational prayers is the unity of direction. Muslims stand together and they turn their faces towards one direction which is also a sign of unity of believers and unity of God.

In the present age in which terror, violence, radicalism and enmity destroyed the dignity of human as the best creature of God, Islamic communal rituals can offer a good model for making people’s heart closer to each other. Some of the main features in Islamic communal rituals are as follows: unity of language, unity of direction, various occasions and places and numerous functions of congregational rituals.

It seems that the communal conflicts and enmities spring from widespread ignorance of the reality of religious and ethnic diversity; hence, this is a fundamental duty of all religions to come together and find the ways through which people can reach unity and peace. It seems that one of the factors that unite adherents of a specific religion is communal rituals; thus, congregational rituals are a good case for scholarly discussions and researches. If we study these rituals and try to derive the commonalties, we can reach to a universal model of a kind of universal ritual to get people one step closer to peace and friendship. For instance, many people express their loyalty and love towards their country by singing national anthem in public occasions or everyday; then, can’t we express our love and esteem towards other people and thoughts around the world by having a universal ritual.

7. Conclusion

Unity among Muslims in its social scale is primarily due to various and influential aspects of congregational rituals such as unity of language, unity of direction (Qiblah), unity of place and variety of times and occasions. Many other religions possess rich historical background of communal rituals. Through comparative studying and researching of these rituals, we can achieve a universal model upon which people all around the world can get one step closer to a peaceful world.

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Factors Causing Stress: A Study of Indian Call Centres

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Abstract

Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) is the process of contracting out services to a third party vendor either domestically or offshore. The purpose is to rationalise cost by getting rid of non core components of business. Over the last one decade, the BPO organisations in India have witnessed high growth as fierce competition among Multinational organisations to reduce cost has prompted them to shift their non core operations to low cost and high quality destinations like India. Call centres fall under the general umbrella of business process outsourcing. Stress is an unavoidable part of an individual's working life. Various studies conducted on Indian call centre organisations have highlighted the prevalence of high occupational stress. Call centre employees work long shifts, often during night, thus, becoming easy victims of various psycho-physiological ailments. For present study, convenience sampling was used to collect information from three different organisations in National Capital Region in India. Personal interviews were conducted to identify the various factors causing occupational stress among employees of call centre organisations. The major factors identified are monitoring of employees, angry customers, changing identity, performance metrics, and night shift.

Keywords: Business Process Outsourcing, Call Centre, Stress Factors, India

1. Introduction

The last decade and a half has seen a massive growth in the number of Business Process Outsourcing Organisations in India. Business Process Outsourcing is the process of contracting out services to a third party vendor domestically or offshore. Intense competition among multinationals to reduce cost has prompted many organisations to shift their non core operations to low cost and high quality destinations like India (Faruquie et. al. 2005). The Indian outsourcing industry emerged in mid 1990's. However, the sector got a major boost at the end of 1990's when Multi National Companies started establishing wholly owned subsidiaries which catered to the off shoring requirement of their parent companies. American Express, GE Capital and British Airways were some of the pioneers in the Indian outsourcing market. Today the Indian business process outsourcing industry has matured and is off shoring servicing ranging from customer care, medical transcription, medical billing services, database management, web sales / marketing, accounting, tax processing, document management, telesales, telemarketing, human resource hiring & biotech research (Outsource2india, 2011).

2. Stress and Call Centers

Modern age has been called the ‘Age of Anxiety and Stress’ (Coleman, 1976). Stress is a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, or demand related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important (Selye, 1936; Selye, 1956)

Work stress has emerged as a global problem (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994) and intense or prolonged stress can have negative impact on an individual’s mental and physical health (Cooper et. al. 2001). It may result in problems such as hyper-irritability, sleep disturbances, disturbed interpersonal relationships, as well as various somatic and psychological patterns detrimental to the individual (Hafner, 1968; Strange & Brown, 1970; Hersen, 1972; Wolfe, 1986). Workplace stress has been found to be responsible for poor quality of work, low productivity, decreased performance, increased absenteism and turnover. Consequently it increases cost for the organization (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994; Edworthy, 2000; MacDonald, 2003). Various studies have identified call centre as a stressful place to work (Fernie & Metcalf, 1998; Knights & McCabe, 1998; Mulholland, 2002; Patel, 2008; Aziz, 2012).
3. **Nature of Calls handled**

All the subjects were handling only inbound calls. The call centers chosen for this study were servicing only American and British customers.

4. **Methodology**

For the present study, three different business process outsourcing organisations from National Capital Region (NCR) were selected. 50 call handlers were chosen from the three organisations. Convenience sampling was used for both choosing the organisations as well as the call handlers. Interviews were conducted with all the 50 call handlers. Based on the response, in-depth interviews were conducted with 3 female and 5 male call handlers to get further insight into the matter. The interviews were conducted over a period of around two months i.e. July and August 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunication</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport and Travel</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Utilities</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hotel and Leisure</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1: Distribution of respondents by sector serviced**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Bracket</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-23</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-26</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27-30</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 and above</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: Age distribution of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33 (66%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Gender Composition of the sample**

5. **Factors Causing Stress**

The study found many causes as reported by the employees interviewed. However, the present study will focus on only the top five factors causing stress among the business process outsourcing employees.

- Monitoring
- Angry Customer
- Changing identity
- Performance Metrics
- Night Shift

6. **Monitoring**

As technology has improved, it has made possible for organisations to monitor their employees more as compared to the past. However, the amount of monitoring which takes place in call centers is much higher as compared to other organisations. Computers which are meant to reduce workload are used as merciless monitoring tools by call centers (Peaucelle, 2000). According to Taylor and Bain (1999) ‘If anything distinguishes a call centre worker it is both the extent
to which they are subject to monitoring and the unrelenting pressure to conform to acceptable forms of speech, whether scripted or not”.

In the present study also, monitoring emerged as the most common factor causing stress as reported by BPO employees. High level of surveillance is prevalent in call centers. Team leaders often observe calls for assessing the service quality provided by call handlers. This is done either by listening to live calls or recording calls and analyzing them later for feedback. Team leaders listen to live calls, mostly without the knowledge of the call handler, to provide feedback on performance. This helps in identifying additional training needs for individual employees as well as helps in identifying customer needs, so that better service may be provided to customers in future. Calls are also recorded and analysed by team leaders against set criteria which may include:

- Time taken per call
- Ability to stick to the script
- Ability to handle angry customers
- Pronunciation and accent
- Voice Modulation

Majority of the employees perceived monitoring as unnerving. High level of monitoring also results in the inability of call handlers to take adequate breaks which results in high level of physical as well as mental fatigue. As one of the employee said “I am in this job for more than a year now. Still, the feeling that somebody is actually watching or hearing me, that too without my knowledge, is quite unnerving. You can not be yourself. You have to be always on guard. Maybe you have done a good job for the whole night. Still it is possible that you get a rude customer and you are unable to maintain your cool and that is the same time your team leader decides to monitor your call. That means a negative against your name for that one mistake. Come on, give me a break”.

7. Performance Metrics

Performance metrics has emerged as a major cause of concern for employees. Performance in a call centre is related to the monitoring of calls. There are different measures of performance which are part of performance metrics. Some of the most frequently used measures of performance are:

- Average Call Handle Time (ACHT)
- Service Level (SL)
- Abandon Rate or Call Abandon Rate (ABN or CAR)
- Agent Utilisation Rate (AUR)
- First Call Resolution (FCR)
- Adherence to schedule

The nature of these performance metrics is such that it makes it impossible for the employee to take long breaks. The rigid schedule does not allow for much downtime (Poster, 2007). For example adherence to schedule is a measurement of how much time during shift a call handler is logged in and handling contacts or is available to handle calls. The average adherence to schedule for organisations where the study was done is 90 percent. It means that the call handler is expected to be available to handle contacts 90/100*60 minutes. This means that the call handler should be available for 54 minutes for each hour of work time. Assuming working hours to be 8 in a day, the call handler should be available for 7 hours and 12 minutes to handle calls. This puts a lot of work pressure on the call handlers.

Peaucelle (2000) has rightly pointed out that the “Conditions prevailing in this situation resemble those of Taylorian workshops, where work rates are close to the maximum that workers can manage. There are very few breaks in between different tasks and the deadlines create a high level of tension. Operators consequently respond to these hard working conditions with high turnover rates and social movements”.

8. Angry Customers

A major chunk of business for Indian call centre industry comes from the West, particularly United States and United Kingdom. Historically, companies outsourced their back office operations to India because to two obvious advantages. One was low salaries in India as compared to the West and second was language. India had a large English speaking population. English is no longer a major advantage for India. English spoken by India call handlers is heavily accented. This often results in customer getting angry and abusive towards the call handlers. Despite call centre’s putting a lot of money in training young Indians in neutral accents, the Indian accents still comes through. The sound of an Indian accent
often makes customers angry. According to Cathy Tornbohm, Vice President, BPO research, Gartner, “India as a delivery location is still challenged by English being spoken with strong accents, which can sometimes be hard to understand” (Arun, 2013). Some British and American companies have even shifted out their operations out of India due to customer dissatisfaction with Indian accents (Vaidyanathan, 2011). There are political as well as social reasons for it. Customers in United States as well as in United Kingdom have become quite sensitive to political issue of jobs moving out to India (Gentleman, 2005). At times the abuses hurled at call handlers are purely racist in nature. According to McPhate (2005) Indian call center workers are facing “abuse from Americans, whose tantrums are sometimes racist and often inspired by anger over outsourcing”. What accentuates the problem is the fact that most of the call handlers are quite young and are unable to take this type of abuse. They find it difficult to cope with the abuse and the performance metric is affected. This only exacerbates the situation. The situation has prompted many companies, particularly American, to shift their operations to Philippines. One reason for growing preference for Philippines is preference for American accent. Although Filipino call centre executives cost more than their Indian counterparts but they speak in an accent which is more understandable to the American customers due to historical contacts between the two countries (Bajaj, 2011).

9. Changing Identity

A surprising finding is that many employees found changing their identity as something disturbing. During interviews many call handlers told that fancy names and learning to speak in American or British accent was fun in the beginning. However, after sometime, many of them lost the initial enthusiasm. On the contrary, some even found it disturbing. Call handlers who had faced abuse over call after being found to be Indian by the customers were particularly more concerned. They argued that why should they change their identity. They should be accepted as they are. Although none of the call handlers admitted for themselves but three cited examples of their coworkers taking psychiatric help for depression, bipolar disorder and dissociative identity disorder (also called multiple identity disorder). The reason for the above problems can range from changing identity to monotonous work with little scope for learning and development. Earlier study by Sudhashree et. al. (2005) also reported loss of identity among call handlers. On the other hand, many took it as a part and parcel of the job and had no qualms in changing their identity. However, changing identity may also result in a call centre worker identifying so strongly with what they perceive to be American way of life that they start believing their call personas to be an authentic identity (Pal & Buzzanell, 2008). This type of behavior was evident in the present research also as some of the respondents said that they prefer being called by their western names as it sounds more ‘hip’ (the word used by one of the respondent).

10. Night Shift

The call centers in the present study were servicing exclusively American and British clients. The time difference particularly between India and United States automatically entails night shift for the employees. This brings new opportunities as well as new problems. According to Slater (2004) “For many young people, especially women, call-center work means money, independence and an informal environment where they can wear and say what they like. Along with training in American accents and geography, India’s legions of call-center employees are absorbing new ideas about family, material possessions and romance”. Working at call centres gives opportunity to the young Indians to be upwardly mobile in the society. At the same time, working at night brings up issues, particularly for women employees which are not prevalent in a day time work. Call Centre work carries sexual stigma due to late night work and may result in being distanced by family and community (Pradhan & Abraham, 2005). Although not confined to night, some other problems that put constraints on women working at night are carjacking, abduction, assault and even rape (News24, 2008; Kumar, 2013). Many women employees in this study have pointed to these factors as hampering their jobs. They reported to be under pressure from families to change jobs. It is interesting to note the all the female employees interviewed were looking for a day time job.

Earlier studies have identified differences in the level of stress faced by males and females (Aziz, 2003; Aziz, 2007). In the present study also, males have not reported social pressure while working at night but they also face certain problems which are common with female employees. Many of them reported that despite working for more than a year or two, still they were unable to adjust to day time sleeping and as a result are facing health issues. Their traditional social circles have also been affected by their night shifts. They find it impossible to move around with the family in the day time or attend late night social gatherings with the family or with the friends. All this has resulted in social isolation and as a consequence increased stress.
11. Conclusion

The present study has highlighted the various factors that cause stress for call centre employees. As the industry matures, certain human resource policies have evolved to overcome these issues. Many organisations have increased rest periods and have started providing training to their employees to manage rude and abusive customers. Some have even allowed their employees to hang up on abusive customers. Till recently, this was a sack-able offence.

Today stress has moved from the realm of personal problem to corporate balance sheet. As the turnover rate increases, the organisations in the industry have increasingly realized that they have to come up with practical solutions to overcome these issues, otherwise, they will not only keep losing employees but also business.

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Abstract

Word-formation process is of great interest to the linguists as they affect the language vocabulary enhancement. In both English and Albanian languages one of the most productive word-formation processes is derivation including prefixation and suffixation. Prefixation is a way of enlarging vocabularies and forming new lexical forms. Prefixes are classifying, they do not change the lexi-co-grammatical category of the word. This paper aims at studying some crucial issues on prefixation in both English and Albanian languages. It will analyze the characteristics of English and Albanian prefixes in a various ways; their types and classifications in both languages by comparing and contrasting. The classification is mostly done basing on different principles related to some of their typical features and their meanings. These will be studied into depth in order to examine the productivity by means of prefixation in both languages.

Keywords: wordformation, prefixation, suffixation, derivation, prefixes classification.

1. Introduction

Interest in wordformation processes is probably as old as interest in language itself. Many of the questions that scholars are asking now were also being asked in the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. (Bauer, 1983). Thus, the study of affixation and especially prefixation is of great interest to the linguists as it affects the vocabulary enhancement in all methods it is presented.

This paper aims to study the processes of prefixation, as a very important derivation sub type used in the English language system, by providing an overview of the English prefixes, their most important features and classifications. In addition, the study will also treat crucial prefixation issues in the Albanian language by comparing and contrasting these issues in both languages.

In order to understand the meaning of the ‘term’ prefix, we should take into consideration the internal structure of the word, that is the ‘morpheme’, the smallest meaningful component in a language. The morphemes are divided into free morphemes, which are independent and can stand alone or within a word and bound ones, which can not stand alone and consequently always occur in combination with basic forms. The adding of these bound morphemes to the basic forms is called affixation. As a rule, prefixes are bound morphemes which precede the base or the free morphemes. Prefixation is a special affixation formation subtype among suffixation and prefixo-suffixation. In Albanian language it is an important derivation subtype, but not as suffixation. The prefixes of the English language are classifying; In most cases there is no change of the word class involved. (Kortmann 1999). As for their meaning and function, linguists notice that there are living prefixes, productive prefixes and fossilised ones in certain words.

It is difficult to define the exact number of prefixes in English language, though there are more prefixes than suffixes. OED registers 167 prefixes, but according to Marchand (1969) there are 65 such.

1.1 Classification of prefixes

There are different principles upon which various classifications of prefixes are done. In this paper we will introduce various classifications, based on morphological, and semantic features of prefixes. Other relevant issues and characteristics will be treated throughout the study as well for both languages.

Morphologically, many affixes are associated with specific word classes; for example the prefix *il-* as in illegai, is attached to adjectives. Undeniably, some prefixes attach to nouns, whereas others combine only with adjectives or verbs. However, apart from the prefixes which are associated with one specific word class, there are also a number of them
which associate with more than one inherent word class. For ex. the prefix dis- can form the verb dislike, the adjective dishonest, or it can be part of the noun dishonesty.

Another example is the prefix un- which can form an adjective (untidy), a verb (undo) or a noun (unemployment).

Secondly, by means of derivation process the majority of English prefixes are able to create new words or lexemes, but they cannot change the word class of the derived word; to reuse (v) – use (v); untidy (adj) – tidy.

There are only a few prefixes which cause a change of the category such as: -en in enlarge, -a in ablaze. Other exceptions are em-, be- and de-. (Lenski 2000). In Albanian language there is a minor number of such prefixes as well which change the word class they are attached to, for e.g.: përbuz.v – to despise (buzë, n.), shfaq v. – to appear – (faqe, n.), përjqia to bleed (gjak); the prefixes: për-, sh- are attached to the nouns buzë, faqe, gjak and have formed verbs, changing the grammatical category of the new word.

Lenski is not sure whether the prefix -a and -be as in ashore (on/ towards shore) orbelie (‘lie near’ cf. underlie). (Lenski 2000)]. The vast majority of prefixes do not change the syntactic category of their base words, they merely act as modifiers. Furthermore, it can be observed that most of the 51 prefixes of Modern English generally attach to more than one kind of syntactic category (verb, adjective, or noun) and do not influence the stress pattern of their bases.

As to the type of lexico-grammatical character they are added to, English prefixes fall into: a. Deverbal prefixes, e.g. rewrite, outstay, overdo, oversleep, overreact, underestimate; b. Denominal prefixes, e.g. ex-president; c. Deadjectival prefixes, e.g. unedited, bilateral, uneasy, biannual, etc.

1.2 The classification of English prefixes on the basis of meaning

Semantically prefixes fall into mono and polysemantic.

Linguists refer to these different categories of English prefixes in terms of generic denotational meaning:

**Prefixes of attitude:** pro, anti, contra, counter, co.

Pro: pro-choice, pro-life, pro-market, pro-libertarian. It is usually added to nouns, adjectives of denomination.

Anti: anti-missile, anti-social, antibody, anti-abortion, anti-regulatory; = antagonistic: anti-hero, antichrist. This prefix is added to nouns, adverbs, denominal adjectives.

Counter: to counteract, counter-revolution, counter-example, counter-espionage, counter-productive; added to: verbs, abstract nouns, adjectives.

Contra: contraception, contradistinction; added to: abstract nouns, verbs.

Co: cooperate, co-pilot, co-author, cooperation; added to: nouns, verbs;

**Reservative and deprivative Prefixes:** un, de, dis.

Un: to untie, to unpack, to unhorse, to unscramble, to unlock. It is usually added to verbs. De: to decriminalize, to deselect, to decontaminate, to debug, to defrost, to delouse, to deplane, to detrain, to decamp, deforestation; It is added to verbs, abstract nouns.

Dis: to disqualify, to disinvent, to disenfranchise, to disarm, to disillusion, to disambiguate, discoloured, disconnected, discontent, dissatisfaction; added to: verbs.

**Negative Prefixes:** a-, dis-, non-, un-

A: atheist, amoral, asymmetry, apolitical, asexual; It is added to adjectives and nouns; Dis: disloyal, distrust, disagree, dislike, disfavour, disadvantage; added to: adjectives, abstract nouns, verbs; Un: in-, il-(before l), im-(before p), ir-(before r); unfair, unassuming, unexpected, unproductive, insane, injustice, intolerance, impatience, imperfect, irregular, illegal, incapable, illogical, improper, irrelevant. These are added to: adjectives, participles (only un-); Non: non-stop, non-interference, non-aggression, non-smoker, non-drip (paint), non-person, non-event; This prefix is added to various types of words and expressions, mainly nouns and verbs.

**Pijorative prefixes:** mis-, mal-, pseudo-, crypto-

Mis: mismanagement, to miscalculate, to misgovern, to mishandle, misleading, misconduct, to misinform (inform wrongly; It is added to verbs, abstract and participles: Mal: means bad(y), improperly(y); malpractice, malinformation, malnutrition, maltreatment, to malfunction, maladjusted, malformed; It is added to verbs, abstract nouns, participles, adjectives, but only words of latin origin.

Pseudo: pseudo-education, pseudo-intellectual, pseudo-science, pseudo-Gothic; It is added to nouns and adjectives; Crypto: crypto-fascist, crypto-Catholic, cryptography; it is added to nouns.

**Locative prefixes:** ante, circum, fore, inter, intra, mid, out, over, retro, sub, super, supra, sur, ultra, under.

Ante: antechamber, anteroom; It is added to: nouns; Circum: circumnavigate, circumlocation, circumcision; It is added to:
verbs and nouns; Extra: extramartial, extracurricular, extrasensory, extra-pay; It is added to: adjectives and nouns; Fore = in front, front part of: forefinger, foreskin, forehead. It is added to: nouns; In: also il-, im-, ir- ingathering, indoors, in-patient (not impatient); added to: participles, nouns; Inter: interacial, international, interdisciplinary; added to: adjectives and nouns; Intra: intramural, intra-uterine, intravenous; It is added to: adjectives; Mid: midnight, mid-point, midway; added to: nouns; Out: outdoor, out-patient, outlook; added to: nouns; = to surpass: to outrun, to outnumber, to outgrow, to outdistance, to outbid; added to: verbs; Over: to overthrow, to overshadow, overcoat; added to: verbs, nouns; = excessive: overemphasis, over-anxious, to overcharge, to overfish; added to: nouns, verbs; Retro: to retroflex, to retrorocket, to retroject; added to: verbs; Sub: subway, subsoil, subconcious; added to: nouns, adjectives; = secondary, lesser in rank: sub-editor, subdean, subleader, sub-climax; added to: nouns; = subordinate part of: subcommittee, subplot, subtlety; added to: nouns; = below the norm: subhuman; Super: superstructure, impose, superterrestrial; added to: nouns, verbs, adjectives; beyond the norm: superhuman, superman, supergun, superstar; added to: nouns, adjectives; excessive, excessively: superconformity, superconfidence, supersensitive, superabundant, supercritical; added to: nouns, adjectives; Supra: supranational, supramundane; added to: adjectives; Sur: surtax, surcharge, surtitle; nouns, verbs; Tele: telecommunication, television; added to: nouns, verbs; Trans: transnational, transsexual; added to: adjectives, geographical names; Ultra: ultra-violet, ultra-sonic, ultra-modest, ultra-thin, ultra-modern, ultra-orthodox; added to: adjectives; Under: underground, undercarriage, underclothes; added to: nouns; = too little; undercharge, underpay, undercook; undervalue: added to: verbs; = subordinate: under-secretary, underclass.

**Prefixes of Size, Degree and Status:** (arch, macro, micro, mega, mini, over/under, hyper, co, pro, vice)

Arch: archbishop, arch-rival, archangel, archduke, arch-enemy; added to: nouns; macro: macromos, macro-economics; added to: nouns; micro: micro-computer, microsurgery, micro-economics; added to: nouns; mega: megastar, megastore; added to: nouns; mini: miniseries, minibreak, minicab, miniskirt; added to: nouns; over/under: to overcook, to underheat; added to: any verb of action; hyper: hypercritical; added to: adjectives; co: co-founder, co-presenter; added to: nouns, verbs; pro: pro-vice-chancellor; added to: nouns of latin origin; vice: vice-president.

**Prefixes of Time and order:** ante, ex, fore, neo, post, pre: Ex: former: ex-wife, ex-president; human nouns; Fore: before: to foresee, to foretell, foregone; Mid: middle: mid-afternoon, midwinter, midnight; Neo: new, recent form of, revived: neo-colonialism, neo-conservative, neo-fascist; Post: after: post-war, post-modernism, post-structuralist; Pre: before, pre-arranged before the time/period of: prepay, pre-existing, predate, preview, preschool, pre-war, pre-marital.

**Prefix of repetition:** re-, e.g. rebuild (build), re-write (write), etc.

In his book “The word-formation in English” (2003), Plag classifies the prefixes of English semantically into the following groups. First, there is a large group that quantify over their base words meaning, for example, ‘one’ (uni-, uniliteral, unification), ‘two or two’ (bi-, bilateral, bifurcation and di-, disyllabic, ditransitive), ‘many’ (multi-, multi-purpose, multi-lateral and poly-, polysyllabic, ‘half’ (semi-, semi-conscious, semi-desert), ‘all’ (omni-, omnipotent, omnipresent), ‘small’ (micro-, micro-surgical, microwave), ‘large’ (macro-, macroeconomics, macro-biotic), ‘to excess’ (hyper-, hyperactive, hypermarket and over-, overestimate, overtax), ‘not sufficiently’ (underpay).

Second, there are numerous locative prefixes such as circum- ‘around’ (circumnavigate, circumscribe), counter- ‘against’ (counterbalance, counterexample), endo- ‘internal to X’ (endocentric, endocrinology), epi- ‘on, over’ (epiglottis, epicentral), inter- ‘between’ (interbreed, intergalactic), intra- ‘inside’ (intramuscular, intravenous), para- ‘along with’ (paramedic, paranormal), retro- ‘back, backwards’ (retroflex, retrospection), trans- ‘across’ (transcontinental, transmigrate).

Third, there are like ‘before’ (ante-, preand fore-, as in antechamber, antedate, preconcert, predetermined, premedical, forefather, foresee), ‘after’ (post-, poststructuralism, postmodify, postmodern), or ‘new’ (neo-, neoclassical, Neo-Latin). A fourth group consists of prefixes expressing negation (a(n)-, de-, dis-, in-, non-, un-). (Plag, 2003).

However, many prefixes do not fit into any of the four groups and express diverse notions, such as ‘wrong, evil’ (mal-, malfunction, malnutrition), ‘badly, wrongly’ (mis-, misinterpret, mistrial), ‘false, deceptive’ (pseudo-), ‘together, jointly’, (co-), ‘in place of’ (vice-) etc. Above were demonstrated with examples an other classification of prefixes according to the meaning, which Plag does not include in his categories of prefixes.

### 1.3 Characteristics of English prefixes

Though the current trend in English language is avoiding the unnecessary hyphens, there are several rules that should be taken into consideration in terms of prefix-root right punctuation. 1. Thus, there must be used a hyphen when prefixes come before proper nouns. E.g.: un-American post-Aristotelian or pre-1900; 2. Hyphenating prefixes ending in an a or i only when the root word begins with the same letter such as in ultra-ambitious or semi-invalid. Also, there must be used a hyphen to avoid confusion with another word: for example, to distinguish re-cover (= provide something with a
new cover) from recover (= get well again). (J.Straus10th edition)

An English prefix requires a special stress to help in clarifying the meaning or to avoid mispronouncing, for e.g. co-op, it is not the same as coop, as well as re-creation. Besides, the prefix co- is always stressed when it addresses a person. The words co-authored and co-workers are often hyphenated.

2. The Development of English prefixes

Throughout the centuries, the English language has been influenced by various foreign languages. Several English words are structured as a combination of dependent prefix and an independent base such as in un-just. Marchand (1969) thinks that these types of words are referred to as words formed by native word-formation processes. Other words in English are formed by foreign word-formation processes. We should say that this is also noticed in Albanian language. These word types are known as neo-classical words and are borrowed from different sources like either Greek or Latin, or have been coined upon Greek or Latin word-formation processes.

If we examine the usage of the native prefixes over the years, we have to admit that their usage today has become much more seldom than in former times. According to Marchand this is to a certain amount due to the tendency to form more and more post particle words. (Marchand 1969: 131) From Old English onwards, especially locative particles which were connected to verbs were no longer placed before, but after the verb, thus leading to a reduced usage of prefixes.

Prefixes may be also classified as to the degree of productivity into highly-productive, productive, and non-productive. The linguist Bauer figures out the following tendencies: the prefix a- had a peak of productivity in the 19th century and is still marginally productive. The verbalising prefix be- is these days stylistically and formally restricted. The prefix mis- became contaminated with French més- and gained extra life from that. It was still marginally productive in the 20th century. The prefix un- remains extremely productive, especially when added to adjectives. (Bauer 2003:34)

Bauer goes even so far to say that the enormous loss of productivity which is currently characteristic for most of the native affixes, will sooner or later result in the total disappearance of these affixes. Here only the prefix un- can be seen as an exception from the tendency. (Bauer 2003: 35)

Nevertheless, there is an increase on the non-native prefixes which, throughout the years, have been completely incorporated in the English language such as French, Latin, Greek, etc.

German prefixes, usually have a relatively low productivity, except the prefixes un-, under-, over-, fore- and out which can be combined with either [+Latinate] or [-Latinate] bases. (Lenski 2000:5),

According to Marchand the low productivity of Germanic prefixation has occurred since the Norman Conquest through the massive influx of French prefixes and the movement of locative particles to post-verbal position during the Middle English period. (Lenski 2000: 4-5)

Below are some prefixes listed by their origin and etymologic domain according to Lenski:

go- Latin [+/- Lat.] one, several, many; (-) go- away, absence, absence from; (-) go- back, return, recovery

3. Some prefixation issues in Albanian language

Prefixes in Albanian language are quite less in quantity, only one third of suffixes. Moreover, they do not have the same level of productivity as suffixes do, though prefixation remains a very important word-formation process especially in creating technical and scientific terminology. Aleksander Xhuvani has accounted 68 prefixes in his book “Prefixes of Albanian language”, but many of these are not in use today such as (n-, m-, s-, a-) (Shqerra 2009).

Historically a few prefixes are known to derive from different word classes such as prepositions, adverbs or even particles transformed into prefixes, which by being placed at the beginning of the word, have changed its meaning. (Hysa, E,1973)

Besides, prefixation in Albanian language has closely developed with ‘attached words pattern’ or ‘perngjitja’, as well as compounding. Thus, certain prepositions have turned into prefixes due to the process of ‘word attaching’, ‘perngjitja’; for e.g.: nëntokë (under ground) is an an attached word, nëngrup (subgroup) is a derived word in which the prefix ‘nën’ is placed before the base word ‘grup’. Even compounding and prefixation is somehow complicating in the way words are developed. For. e.g: parashikoj, (predict) parandjenje (anticipation), parafjalë (prefix), pararojë (vanguard), etc.
are compound words, in which ‘para’ plays the role of an adverb, not that of a prefix.

According to the grammar book of the Albanian Academy of Science, “Gramatika e gjuhës shqipe” (2002), prefixes do not usually change the grammatical category in Albanian wordformation. Thus, a prefix is added to a verb to create an other verb, or added to a noun to create an other noun, added to an adjective to form an other adjective etc. (Celiku, Karapinjalli 2007). It merely gives an other meaning to the new word of the same grammatical category which is created, which is also true for the English prefixes.

When the word class changes, the prefix is completely attached to the base and the final base vowel drops, for e.g.: përbyt. – to despise (bytë, n.), shfaq v. – to appear – (faqe, n.), përjk to bleed (gjak); the prefixes: për-, sh-, are attached to the nouns buzë, faqe, gjak and have formed verbs, changing the word class.

Also, prefixes in Albanian language, just like we found it in the English language, might provide the words to which they are attached with a complementary meaning. The combination types of prefixes with roots in Albanian language are:

Prefix + a verb = verb eg.: Vlerësoj – zhvlerësoj; (estimate-underestimate)
Prefix + a noun = noun : afërsi – përafërsi (proximity - approximacy)
Prefix + an adjective = adjective eg.: lidhur – ndërlidhur (connected – interconnected)
Prefix + an adverb = adverb githmonë – përgrithmonë; (always; forever)

Furthermore, it can be observed that most of prefixes of modern Albanian generally attach to more than one kind of syntactic category (verb, adjective, or noun).

The most used prefixes are: për, mbi, nën, ndër, pa, jo, mos, sh, zh, stër, ç, ri, shpër, gjithë, pas, jashtë, sipër, vetë, gjysmë, shumë.

Për-(for) is added to verbs, to nouns, adjectives, adverbs. Examples.: (forcoj – përforcoj), (masë - përmasë).

Mbi- (over, on) is added to nouns, adjectives, verbs. Examples: (shkrim-mbishkrim), (njerezor-mbinjerezor), (shkrim-mbishkrim), (njerezor-mbinjerezor), (zotërojm-bizotëroj).

Nën- (under) is added to nouns, adjectives, verbs. Examples: (officer-nënofficer), (tokesor-nëntokesor), (qesh-nënqesh), etc.

Ndër-(inter) is added to verbs, adjectives, nouns.(hyj-ndërhyj); (kombëtar-ndërkombëtar); (veprim – ndërveprim).

Pa-(without) is added to adjectives, participles to create adjectives with a negative meaning, antonyms, nouns: (i ditur – i paditur); ( i shkruar – i pashkruar); barazi – pabarazi.

Jo-(non) is added to adjectives, verbal nouns: (demokratik – jodemokratik), (besim – mosbesim).

Sh/-zh/-ç- are added to verbs to create verbs with negative meanings, adjectives: (thur- shthur); (genjej-zhgenjej); (armatos-çarmatos).

S-/z: kuq-skua; mbuloj-zbuloj.

Ri- (re) is added to verbs: punoj – ripunoj. (rework, work again)

Stër- is added to nouns, adjectives and verbs, for eg: (lodhje-sterlodhje), (i gjate- i stergjate); (holloj- sterholloj) etc. (Celiku, Karapinjalli 2007).

Shpër- is added to verbs with an intensive or opposite meaning: (ngul-shpërngul), (blej-shpërblej).

Porsa-; sapo- is added to participles to create adjectives with a meaning “just done”: (i ardhur- i porsaardhur); (i fejuar- i porsafejuar), etc.

Kundër – a) is added to nouns: (gaz n.-kundërgaz); (sulm n. – kundersulm) etc.

b) is added to adjectives (ligjor-kunderligjor), njerezor-kundernjerezor

Bashkë- a) is added to nouns to create nouns with a collective meaning: udhetar – bashkëudhetar; punetor – bashkëpunetor; autor – bashkautor etc. b) is added to verbs to create others verbs with collective meanings.eg: bisedo-bashkebisedo; puno-bashkëpunoj etc.

Para- a) is added to verbs: (shikoj- parashikoj)
b) is added to nouns: (lindje-paralindje); (provim–paraprovim)
c) is added to adjectives: (ushtarak- paraushtarak); (historik-parahistorik); (fundor-parafundor)
Prapa- a) is added to nouns: shtesë-prapashtese, mbetje – prapambetje.
b) is added to adjectives: shtesor – prapashtesor

Tej – a) is added to adjectives: I dukshëm- I tejdukshëm;
b) is added to verbs: kaloj – tejkaloj;

Pas - is added to nouns: ardhës – pasardhës; thënë – pasthënë. Other Albanian prefixes are: jashtë, sipër, gjithë, krye, drejt, vetë, gjysmë, shumë. (Celiku, Karapinjalli 2007).
3.1 Foreign prefixes in Albanian language

In addition, there is a considerable number of foreign prefixal elements such as: a-, anti-, de-, dez-, dis-, pro-, pan-, trans-, ultra-, poli-, super-, auto-, inter-, etc. These are usually borrowed with the word they are pre-attached as in: anom-normal, dezinfektoj-infektoj (disinfect - infect), disharmoni-harmoni (harmony-disharmony); in this case the foreign prefixal element is quite distinguishable. Also, when there are used two derived words with the same root as in import-eksport (import-export), the foreign prefixes are easily distinguished even in terms of Albanian word-formation system. On the contrary, borrowed words such as: anarki (anarchy), antagonist (antagonist), intervistë (interview), konstrukt (construct), distinktiv (distinctive) etc., which do not fulfill the above criteria, are not considered as base words in Albanian language, though in the source language they come from they are not base words. (Fonetika dhe gramatika e gjuhes shqipe, Akademia e shkencave, 1976).

Some of the foreign prefixes are assimilated by the Albanian word-formation system in such a high level that they have started to form new words based on native roots such as: antikombëtar (anti-national), panshqiptar (pan-Albanian), etc. However, another trend noticed in the modern Albanian language is the replacement of the borrowed prefixes by Albanian ones, for eg.: kundërajror, kundërgaz (antiajror, antigaz), ndërkontinental, ndërmolekular, (interkontinental, intermolekular), çmilitarizim, shpolarizim (demilitarizim, depolarizim) etc. (Fonetika dhe gramatika e gjuhes shqipe, Akademia e shkencave, 1976). Celiku and Karapinjalli suggest other examples in their grammar book. (Celiku, Karapinjalli 2007): normal-anormal; jonormal); (fetar-afetar, irreligious; jofetar, not religious.

A- (with a negative meaning): normal-anormal; simetrik-asimetrik; fetar-afetar. (abnormal, asymmetric)
An- alfabet-analfabet (illiterate)
In-; i- real-inreal; moral – imoral; legal - illegal (illegal, immoral)
Anti- popullor-antipopullar; demokratik-antidemokratik; kombetar-antikombetar (anti-national)
De- formoj-deformoj; gradoj-degradoj; mobilizoj-demobilizoj (deform)
Dez-infektoj-dezinfektoj; integroj-dezintegroj(disinfect)
Dis- nivel –disnivel (dislevel)
Pro- amerikan- proamerikan; fashist –profashist (profascist)
In- organik –inorganik (inorganic)
Pan- afrikan-panafrik; ballkanik; panballkanik (panafrican)
Ultra- liberal-ultraliberal; tingull-ultratingul (ultraliberal)
Inter- nacional-internacional; urban-interurban (international, interurban)
Auto- biografi –autobiografi; kritike –autokritike (autobiography)
Super- prodhim-superprodhim; (super production)
Poli- klinike- poliklinike; semantik- polisemantik (polisemantic)

4. Conclusions

This paper aimed to study some of the main prefixation issues in English and Albanian languages. We have classified the prefixes according to some of their typical features basing on syntactical and morphological properties of prefixes, their level of productivity, their etymology and somehow their transformation with the passing of time etc. What holds true for both languages is the fact that prefixes usually do not change the word classes, but they create a variety of lexemes, meanings. Also, in Albanian language, there are some prefixes which can be used as formation particles and as prepositions. When they are transformed in word formation morphemes they do not have the same lexico-grammatical meaning anymore. Additionally, we have classified the prefixes of both languages according to their meaning and the word classes they are attached to. We provided some English rules that should be taken into consideration in terms of prefix-root correct punctuation; etymology of English prefixes, as well as other relevant issues. In the second part of this paper we have taken a closer look at the main prefixation issues of Albanian language, important characteristics of Albanian prefixes and their combination types.

In conclusion, both languages do have the potential to create new words by means of the prefixation process, by which a wide range of new words are formed in English and Albanian languages. We should also mention here the great contribution of English language as a world language in the enrichment of the Albanian language through borrowings, including prefixes. There are various foreign prefixes incorporated into the Albanian language, which has increased the number of Albanian words in different aspects of life.
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Urbanization and Urbanism as a Way of Life: 
The Case of Konya as a Metropolitan Village in Turkey

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Abstract

Cities and urban has being studied not only by architecture, city planning, but also politics, sociology, economics, and geography; therefore, urban studies is an interdisciplinary area that aims to understand the process of urbanization and cities as characteristics of 20th and 21st centuries. Different fields recognize that urbanization is not only physical process occurring on space, but a social and economic process that affects the social behaviors of people. Higher population density and higher buildings are not only indicators of urbanization, but also there are some other indicators of social behavior that show us urbanization. To being urbanized, scholars are expecting some behavior habits and patterns from the living people. Around the theoretical arguments of social phenomenon of urbanization, the case of Konya will be analyzed. While, Konya is being accepted as metropolitan city including service and industrial sectors and population density, living people in Konya is still having traditional patterns regarding to rural. The study will be strengthened with the researches on social patterns of people living in Konya, conducted by the Konya Metropolitan Municipality.

Keywords: Urbanization, Urbanism, Metropolitan Village, Urban, Rural.

1. Introduction

76.8 % of the population is living in urban in Turkey (http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=10736), and 18.2 % of the total population is living only in one city, Istanbul. Therefore to understand the Turkish society, we must analyze the urban population and look at the social dynamics of urban deeply. There are many disciplines focusing on urban from Sociology, to Economics, from City Planning to Politics. While, urban is being studied by many disciplines, there are many points of views and theories to explain urban. Such a multi-dimensional phenomenon, urban can be defined through its geographical distinction, such as being larger than rural, through its economic structure, such as being industrial and service sector center, or through political features such as having developed civil society and democratic values.

Sociology starts focusing on urban after the Industrial Revolution within two hundred years, just after the rapid birth and growth of cities including accumulation of industrial production and trade facilities. New social classes, such as working class and urban middle class, were born and new social movements and revolutions occurred in cities. Urban is the most important spatial area where social practices, ideologies, and production relations, and some other social parameters (Tolan, 1991: 60).

This study will focus on urbanization and urbanism through some theoretical perspectives. There is a distinction between urbanization and urbanism as a way of life. While urbanization includes a larger economic, social, cultural, political, and institutional transformation from rural to urban; urbanism as a way of life is a transformation on people’s attitudes, behaviors, and life styles from rural type to urban one. In regards to urbanization, in Turkey many cities are good cases, however, for the urbanism as a way of life, the cities in Turkey as Konya has still having rural life styles, behaviors and attitudes far from being a case for urbanism.

2. Historical Roots and Emergence of Cities

Archelogical sites showed us that first urban settlements were established in Mesopotamia (B.C. 3500), Egypt (B.C. 3000), China and India (B.C. 2500) mainly near the big rivers such as Euphrates and Tigris, Nile, or Indus. The emergence of agriculture and irrigation of agriculture lands forced the people to settle down around the rivers in productive plates (Benevolo, 1995: 19).
3. Classical Sociological Theories on Urban

There are some classical theories to define urban and to order the common features of urban settlements. F. Tönnies divides rural and urban as gemeinschaft” and “gesellschaft” that means community and society, similar to Durkheim’s organic and mechanic solidarity distinction. Gemeinschaft or mechanic solidarity refers to rural type of society in which there is closed and face to face relations, a sense of being “us”, dominance of traditions, superstitions, religion, agriculture or husbandry, labor intensive production, lower technology, and lower occupational specialization (Durkheim, 1964 and Tönnies, 1988). Simmel, adds some another features for cities. In urban area, rational behaviors, individual profits, market economy, money movements, and much more complex economic life is dominant (Simmel, 1996: 81-89).

Another classical thought in sociology is Marxism and based on property ownership and production relations. Marxist understanding tries to analyze capitalism and capitalism was firstly organized in cities. The cities of industrial production and free market economy were born with capitalism together. The rise of European cities after the dissolution of feudal system is the main skeleton of the Marxist theory on capitalism. The class structure in capitalist system, the bourgeois and the working class, is also city based social structure. The relations and the struggle between those two classes occur in urban; so urban has crucial place in Marxist theory (Marx & Engels, 1999: 82-341).

Another main scholar in Sociology is Weber, and he draws a city typology. Instead of giving one definition, he mentions about the urban history of Western civilization and tells about some urban types. There are production and consumption cities. While production cities are specialized on economic activities and production, consumptions cities are generally capital cities and centers for bureaucracy, and take the surplus value of the production cities as tax. There are also garrison and military towns that consume rather than produce (Sezal, 1992: 31).

As it is seen that classical Sociologists were dealing with emergence and definition of cities, and brought different points of views on urban. Around those different definitions and points of views, we can find out some common features and definitions of cities. For example, cities are hosting different social groups, including different ethnic groups, different classes, different socio-economic groups, different cultures or sects. Secondly, in cities population is bigger and population density is higher relatively than rural areas. Thirdly, among the people there is a social distance, individualism is higher, and there is a sense of “me” rather than “us”. Cities bring more independence. Rather than traditions and informal relations, there are formal relations and professionalism. Labor is organized and working is based on specialized division of labor and professional occupations are common. Mobility based geography and mobility among social groups and classes are possible and common. Transportation, communication and other physical infrastructure facilities are developed. The culture is dynamic in cities and art and culture facilities are well developed. Cultural change is rapid and scientific activities are improved. There are much more economic opportunities, education, and health facilities. On the other hand, lastly, crime, drug addiction, traffic accidents, and disorder are common in cities (Yörük, 1968: 19-26).
4. Chicago School and Modernization Perspective on Urban

After the World War I and the World War II, the cities got bigger and urbanization process became faster. The new era of the humanity was called as modernization. Especially, the US hegemony became dominant in the world and American type of modernization and westernization became the main development road for the countries. Urbanization and modernization went through together and many times urbanization and modernization processes became two different faces of one coin. Since urbanization overlaps modernization, the definition or urbanization is equal to the definition of modernization. From rural to urban society, from agriculture to industry and service sector, from labor intensive to technology intensive, from community to society, urbanization and modernization is a linear and western way of development.

In Chicago School, there are famous figures on urban studies, Robert Park, Ernest Burgess, and Louis Wirth. Park and Burgess represent human ecological perspective. “The City” written by park and Burgess (1925) is the main systematic urban theory of the Chicago Schol. They apply ecological understanding on the development of urban areas. From the center to the outskirts, cities are getting wider and wider as rings. They try to understand the geographical enlargement of cities, and they state that in the center ring, there are business and trade centers. Around the central business center, the second ring is being fulfilled by the lower class people, criminals, working class, lower quality buildings and cheaper apartments. The third ring is the neighborhoods of middle class. Then later suburb rings take place. The way getting enlarges, and the taking place of economic facilities, social groups according to those rings is the main subjects of Chicago School. They try to estimate the future development of any city through this way and raise policies accordingly (Giddens, 1993: 98-99).

5. Urbanism as a Way of Life

Rather than enlargement of cities on space and development process through time, or instead of economic, ecological or geographical improvement of cities, Louis Wirth focuses on the social behavior as an outcome of urbanization. Urbanization effects on human behavior and there are unique behaviors that urban people act. Urban people differ from rural people in terms of acts, attitudes, and behaviors. Wirth distinguishes rural and urban in regards to life style, and urbanization, for Wirth, is also a transformation of lifestyle (Wirth, 1938: 112-116). The social dimension of urbanization based on human behavior is the subject of this article. In Turkey, urbanization occurs in terms of geographical enlargement, rise of population density, or improvement of physical conditions. However, in terms of human behaviors, social scientists wait for unique urban behaviors from the living people to define that city as urban.

On the base of Wirth’s view, mass culture shapes human life, face to face relations, and informal ties such as relative relations or neighboring decreases. With higher individualism and professionalism, rational decision taking, rational behaviors based on profit calculation, dominates urban life. Money based economy and trade relations and some other main rules of capitalism dominate urban economics. Each part of urban has different characteristics, so there many type of people living in urban. The heterogeneous social structure brings respect for differences, tension of democracy and freedom. Other than government there are many non governmental institutions and organizations participate into urban life (Wirth, 1938: 123-125). Urban people believes in science and the domination of religion decreases, urban people gives importance to arts and esthetics, uses time consciously, uses technology and follows technological improvements. Politically, an urban person is interested in politics and joins political organizations, and votes as citizenship right. An urban person is aware of being citizen and takes role in NGO structures. An urban person believes in gender emancipation, gives importance to education, and democratic values. The family structure is nucleus family and not father centered in decision making process (Bal, 2008: 81).

Theoretically, Wirth is right and we expect those social behaviors and attitudes from an urban person. However, in practice, in urban areas, relative relations are still strong, religion is still dominant and urban Islam is being studied by many scholars as the togetherness of Islam and city life. Irrational behaviors, conservatism, traditions, can be seen in cities today easily. Woman participation into economic life is still limited in urban areas. All those figures show us that urbanization is not following the same way as Wirth mentions in terms of human behavior. In addition, closed relations and friendships are still continuing, and an urban person is not so alone or individualist as Wirth thinks (Giddens, 2000: 507).

The biggest critique against Wirth is brought by Gans. He mentions that Wirth’s theoretical assumptions cannot be valid or applicable for all cities in the World. There are many outskirt neighborhoods or slums in cities in where rural attitudes or behaviors are still maintaining (Gans, 1962). Some rural structures or institutions, such as fellow countryman solidarity (hemşehri in Turkish), are still surviving in urban areas of Turkey. In addition, family based apartments and
suburban settlements are newly emerged and popular areas in cities of Turkey. For Gains, Wirth’s assumptions are true for the upper class people living in the inner city but not valid for the people living in slum or suburbs.

6. Urbanization and Migration in Turkey

Compared to western cases, the cities in Turkey are relatively newly emerged and except some several historical cities like Istanbul, İzmir, Konya, many cities are shorter urban history. The enlargement of cities in Turkey is based on migration from rural area. The first migration wave was after 1950s, the second was after 1980s; therefore urban people in Turkey have rural connections and carrying on rural characteristics today. Since the biggest reason is that the migration was not old and the people in cities are still keeping their relations with their rural roots, the cities in Turkey are still being labeled as urban villages.

Before defining the cities in Turkey as urban village, we must understand the migration history of Turkey from rural to urban. The migration from rural to urban has the highest speed after 1950 that can be called first wave. The mechanization of agriculture and the division of lands among the sons as the heritage of father created unemployment in rural area. The job opportunities in urban areas became the main attractive feature of the cities for rural people in Turkey. The migrated people established closed connections with the other migrated people from their own hometown and the hemşehri relations became a balanced instrument to make them adopt to the city life easily (Peker, 1999: 298). The migration brought the shanty town (gecekondu) phenomenon in Turkey. However, Turkish experience of shantytown is different than the Latin American way of shantytown, therefore the term of gecekondu is typical for Turkish case. In 1970s, Turkey was the second country after Columbia, in terms of the share of shantytown houses in cities. In Ankara, the proportion of gecekondu was 60 % and in İzmir it was 65 % (Karpat, 2003: 36-37). In the first wave of migration, the migrated people illegally occupied the public lands and construct their houses with the help of the other people from their hometowns. The user and maker of the house was the same and they constructed their houses to live in it. After constructed their houses, they adopted themselves to the urban and they used the facilities of the cities. However, the gecekondu construction took other parameters after 1970s. Some companies were born to construct gecekondu, and other than living in it, gecekondu blocks were constructed to rent. In the outskirts of the cities the lands were occupied and sold to the people who want to construct gecekondu. The new type of gecekondu is an apartment flat type and not connected to the city life. They created new suburb areas (Bal, 2008: 119).

The improved education and health facilities, job opportunities pushed the rural people to urban areas. However, after 1980s, the terrorism in East part of Turkey created a new wave of migration. The new type of migration brought a deeper poverty and crime to the city areas. Rittersberger divides the migration ways as rational-individual, and mass migration. The second wave of migration after 1980s was the mass and forced migration from the Eastern villages to western cities (Rittersberger, 2000). There is also seasonal migration from Eastern and poor parts of the country to the richer agricultural areas of Çukurova and Black sea region for cotton or hazelnut collection (Özcan, 1998: 83).

The waves of migration show that the cities in Turkey, including the oldest centers of civilizations, have the rural characteristics in their some part as the result of migrated rural people. Therefore, it can be easily claimed that although there is a rapid urbanization in Turkey, urbanism as a way of life is not improved enough. This study will focus on Konya to test whether there is urbanism or not, based on the surveys held by the Metropolitan Municipality.

7. The Methodology

The indicators of the study about Konya are based on the research conducted by the Konya Metropolitan Municipality. The first research is about the lifestyle in Konya. The research was conducted between 15 November and 31 December 2004. In the metropolitan area, totally 2600 persons were selected through simple random sampling. The second research is about urban culture and urbanism consciousness in Konya, conducted between 8 November and 20 December 2004, applied questionnaire on 2682 person selected by simple random sampling in the metropolitan area. The third research was on neighboring behavior of Konya. The research was applied between 21 October and 30 November 2004 on 2579 persons. The face to face questionnaires applied the samples which were selected through simple random sampling in the metropolitan area.

In this study, not all the questionnaire results, but the relevant ones were used to analyze the urbanism as a way of life in Konya.
8. Some Results

In each research, the results were published by the Municipality and they label their won cities as the city of religion and tradition. The conservatism and religiousness are the typical characteristics of Konya. While in urban areas, social scientists expect the decline of religion and traditions in people’s life. Urbanism as a way life refers to an urban person whose life is not dominated by religion and traditions.

If we consider about the results of the religiousness of the people living in the metropolitan area of Konya, there are some questionnaire results. For example; their attitudes towards praying is religious in Konya. 98.6% of the participants said that they fast in Ramadan regularly. 82.4% of the participants go to Friday pray regularly (Kent Araştırmaları 2, 2006: 103).

![Bar chart showing praying on each Friday vs. not praying on each Friday]

10% of the participants believe the power of religious persons (hacı-hoca) to find solution their illnesses (Kent Araştırmaları 2, 2006: 107). 21.7% of the participants watch religious programs on TV channels mostly (Kent Araştırmaları 2, 2006: 120). Among the participants, only 6.7% of them consume alcohol, 93% said they never take alcohol (Kent Araştırmaları 2, 2006: 138).

![Bar chart showing take alcohol vs. don't take alcohol]

If we look at the participants’ definition of lifestyle, 38.7% of the participants defined obeying traditions, 13.6% defined obeying belief and religion, 13.4% defined obeying what you saw from your ancestors (Kent Araştırmaları 2, 2006: 177). In regards to political view, 22.9% is conservative, 21.6% is Islamist, 20.2% is religious, 19.7% is nationalist, 7.7% is secular, 6.8% is democrat, 2.1% is social democrat (Kent Araştırmaları 2, 2006: 185).
51.6 % of the participants said that Turkey must not be closed to Western culture, on the other hand, 28.1 % accepted that Turkey must be closed to Western culture (Kent Araştırmaları 2, 2006: 188). 83.7 % of the participants see traditions the most important value than everything, but only 7 % said the opposite (Kent Araştırmaları 2, 2006: 190). 56.6 % of the participants claim that decisions must be taken by men at home, and only 29.5 % claimed that decisions must be taken equally both men and women at home (Kent Araştırmaları 2, 2006:194).

When the local people of Konya describes their own cities to foreigners, firstly they mention that Konya is the most religious city in Turkey with 18.8 %. After Mevlana, being religiousness is the second trade mark of Konya (Kent Araştırmaları 3, 2006: 70-74). The questionnaire asked to the people that which foreign city they visited. Mecca and Medina are the main cities that the people in Konya visited. Mecca with 30.4 % is the first city, Medina with 19.1 second city. The people living in Konya want to see Germany first and than secondly Saudi Arabia. There are many relatives living in Germany, as migrated Turks, therefore they may answered Germany as the first country, but the second country Saudi Arabia has been chosen for religious reasons (Kent Araştırmaları 3, 2006: 79 and 89). In the research, the participants were asked about the origin of the name of the city Konya. Only 1.2 % said that the name comes from ancient Greeks, and 3.8 % said that it comes from Iconium (the Christian icons). Totally, 5 % gave the true answer. However all the other participants gave the Islamic and religious myths of Konya, such land on (kon) of two angels or Mevlana (Kent Araştırmaları 3, 2006: 83). The membership of NGO is very unique indicator for urbanism as a way of life, however in Konya, the participants are the members of mosque construction foundations with 10.2 % (Kent Araştırmaları 3, 2006: 96).

The other important indicator is the usage of public sphere. The urban life is unique with its developed public spheres and respect for the public spheres. The local people in Konya do not own the public sphere. In the questionnaire, 87 % of the people has seen persons who spit out, 83.8 % has seen persons who throw garbage away, 89.5 % has seen persons who throw cigarette ends on the floor in the public sphere. 59.9 % of the participants has seen persons who damaged the publicly used instruments like buses, parks, or tram. (Kent Araştırmaları 3, 2006: 107,109,111, 112).

The third research was about the neighboring habits of the living people in Konya. For the 92.3 of the participants, neighbors must be religious, for the 99.6, neighbor must be ethical, for the 99.2, neighbor must respect for privacy.
9. Conclusion

As the results show us that although Konya is well developed city in turkey in regards to shopping centers, improved infrastructure facilities, with 4 universities, hospitals, schools, population density; Konya is known as the city of conservatism and religiousness. The indicators showed us that the living people in Konya give importance traditions and customs; and religion plays a crucial role in their social life. The classical modernist understanding can sign those attitudes and behaviors as rural values, but in Konya, one of the biggest metropolitan cities in Turkey, can be seen conservatism and religiousness than any other small city or rural area. It shows that conservatism and religion can reproduce in urban and can be dominant in city. Not like in Western cases, but in non-Western cases, rural attitudes and characteristics can be part of urban life eclectically. Western origin theories cannot explain the non-Western cases truly and there can be different ways of urbanization or modernization different from Western experiences. Konya is the best case as a city with its open market economy, doing export and accumulated to the global capitalist system but religious and conservative at the same time.

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Utopian Desire in Percy Bysshe Shelley's Poetry

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Abstract

This study has considered the Utopian desire in Percy Bysshe Shelley's major poems. It describes Shelley's idealism and utopian desire based on the creative power of love. Shelley's Utopia is an imaginary land in which love creates, while hatred brings about destruction. Shelley can be considered as the culmination of the Romantic Movement in English literature. He looks at nature primarily as a realm of overwhelming beauty and aesthetic pleasure. His works deal with the subjective world of ideals that is more real to him than the world of facts. He is a poet of idealism and love, a representative of hope and liberty, who desires to change the world to Eden before the fall of man. His idealism is based on the elimination of all sorts of tyranny and oppression to terminate a liberal and humane world. Since Shelley's Utopia is governed only by justice, love and beauty, good triumphs over evil when love dominates man's heart and society, because according to him, love is a harmonizing power that joins and supports the elements to bring about creation. Shelley's seclusion from the world of men and his dissatisfaction and failure in the actual life lead him to a higher world that is created by poetry and ruled by love and beauty, a Utopian Land that affords relief from what is unbearable in the social world and is much more beautiful and more perfect than the external world.

Keywords: Utopian desire, Percy Bysshe Shelley's poetry, Love, Idealism

1. Introduction

Percy Bysshe Shelley's views, like those of the first generation of Romantic poets, were shaped to some extent by the French Revolution and its consequences, emphasizing individual vision, lyricism, and idealism. Although the spirit of the French Revolution was still alive in radical and intellectual circles, Shelley and his radical contemporaries were far less familiar with its victory than with its defeat.

At that time, while the breaking up of the old stabilities and established order cultivated and craved an awareness of radical changes and reformation that were viewed as parallel with the age, the romantic poets were considered as the agents of hope and freedom and they were met with enthusiasm because their concept of the poet-rebel was related to idealism and freedom.

The French revolution, which had almost disillusioned the first generation of English Romantic poets, was already part of history for the younger generation. The poetry of Keats and Shelley loses almost entire touch with the national life and the historic traditions of England. Shelley and Byron were captivated less than Wordsworth by the beauty of nature; their imagination was captivated by the ideals of freedom, beauty and love rather than nature. We have natural elements in Shelley's poetry, but they are symbols for his emotional patterns.

While English Romantic poets of the first generation are considered as the prophets of nature, those of the second generation are the creators of beauty. They use their imagination and revolutionary ideas to break down the limits and build a visionary world ruled by man's spirit, love and beauty, which cannot be differentiated by Shelley.

Shelley as a member of ruling class, was a pioneer of political and spiritual rebellion. He was considered as a prophet of social and psychological revolution and his political thought inspired some other poets. Shelley is a revolutionary and radical poet whose literary work is a synthesis of a great reformist, visionary and idealist.

As a poet, Shelley is one of the most subjective of writers, but he contributes a new quality to English literature, the quality of ideality and freedom, that is not found in other Romantic poets. No other Romantic poet shares the prophetic fire which burns in Shelley's verse. In none of Shelley's greatest contemporaries is the lyrical faculty so paramount; and whether we consider his minor songs, his odes, or his more complicated choral dramas, one has to acknowledge that he is the loftiest and the most spontaneous lyrical poet of the nineteenth century. Not only has he written the best idealistic lyrics, but also the most idealistic tragedy of his century.
Most of Shelley's poems reveal his Utopian desire, a philosophic idealism by which he tries to create a Utopia. Shelley's idealism is a combination of belief in the power of human love and reason and in the perfectibility and ultimate progress of man. Love becomes effective when hatred is ended. Shelley is a firm believer in the power of love and makes it the principal theme of his poetry. Love is the root and basis of Shelley's idealism; it is the vital force in the universe which, he thinks, is able to defeat tyranny and construct a utopia. This love is the source of light that shines with steady luster as an all-embracing devotion to his fellow-men.

2. The Study

Romantic era is marked by its concept of sympathy toward natural environment, ideal self-formation and transformation of the society toward an ideal society. The authors of this span are deeply interested in political and scientific changes of the society and have nostalgic view about nature because of the new industrial changes following the Industrial Revolution. Shelley is considered, by many critics, as the culmination of the Romantic Movement in English literature. He, who thought of himself as a reformer, has witnessed the years following the Industrial Revolution, which changes the peasant society to a nation of manufacturers and brings about materialism. Like other poets of the Romantic Movement, but more than them, Shelley is interested in the political and ideal subjects, but his political emotion goes to a realm beyond any other Romantic poet.

Unlike the first generation of Romantic poets, in Shelley, the absorption in nature is altered to his radical tendency, though he is a good observer of nature. Shelley, as a poet, knows moments of bliss when the beauty of nature absorbs him through the sea of beauty that surrounds him, but he becomes hopeless because this beauty does not go along with the happiness of man. In this way, Shelley's nature poems give us a sense of frustration over human destiny under the dominance of different tyrannies. Thus, he is less meditated than Wordsworth and Coleridge in nature and natural elements and his poetic creativity, revealed in his best lyrics, is combined with the passion for reforming the world to Utopia, a sense that puts him among the world's two or three greatest poets of love and liberty.

Shelley's poetry is a vehicle for his ideal and liberal ideas. He, as one of the most subjective of writers, views all men free and equal. The best pieces of his poetry portray his hope for a better future for man in an ideal world. He believes that every sort of inequality can be eradicated by reformation, and man can reach Utopia and the Golden Age will return. In Shelley's idea, there are different restraints imposed by authority on human thought and society. By removing these obstacles, man can act more beneficially and can make his ideal world. Shelley believes that love can change man's behavior towards one another and towards the universe. Thus, evil will be demolished.

What Shelley presents in his poems, depict a world that should be empty from any sort of tyranny, prejudice, and superstition. In his depicted Utopia he wants no restriction for man; there is no tyranny, no king, no priest, no war and no bound, but his characters, the ideal lovers live in an ideal world in which the dominant power is love.

Although his early poems support a militant republican reform, he found soon that the republican tradition cherishes revenge, so he rejects it in his poetry because in Shelley's view, only love is able to reconstruct a new world. Shelley paces directly from the present to an ideal future. He projects a complete break with the past in the hope of a magnificent future. In *Queen Mab* he announces that a new day is shortly to dawn, when selfishness will die:

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A brighter morn awaits the human day,
When every transfer of earth's natural gifts
Shall be a commerce of good words and works;
When poverty and wealth, the thirst of fame,
The fear of infamy, disease and woe,
War with its million horrors, and fierce hell
Shall live but in the memory of time. (251-57)
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presents "the duty of hope" (22) in his poetry, a Utopian desire toward future of man. Love, in Shelley's poetry, is considered as the "great secret of morals" (Defence 118) and a principal theme that guides man toward morality and immortality. It is a harmonizing element that joins and supports the elements of the universe toward beauty and as he says in Epipsychidion, "Love is like understanding that grows bright, / Gazing on many truths" (162-163). It is the most creative and liberating of all feelings which can reconstitute the world. Shelley considers it as a desire to dissolve all boundaries separating the lover and the beloved, seeking to reunite them and lead them to a better nature. Without love, as Finch declares, "the self remains a prison, and the language which then expresses the self, which gives form to thoughts and feelings, comes also to deform it, limiting its possibilities to those which conform already to tyranny's designs" (30).

Love is the only force in the world that, according to Shelley, is not subject to "Fate, Time, Occasion, Chance and Change" (Prometheus Unbound II. iv, 119-120). It is a creative power when hatred is eradicated from the human mind and human society. Communion with the Eternal reality and beauty is obtained through love, because love is the incarnation of the soul of the world. Love, according to Welburn, "enables man to transform himself and rise above seemingly insurmountable practical and metaphysical obstacles" (159). Love, according to Pottle, "will stream with increasing power to reform the world, not merely the world of mind, but also the world of matter. Human intellect thus empowered will build a new heaven and a new earth" (142-3).

What is real and unchanging is the One Spirit which supports the world with "love and beauty and delight," (Sensitive Plant) and this spirit, "the vision" which, according to Waterlow, "Alastor poet pursued in vain, the Unseen Power of the 'Ode to Intellectual Beauty', is what is always suggested by his poetry at its highest moments" ( ).

Shelley's heroes, too, are ideal characters representing the celestial aspect of man. His Prometheus takes fire and the glory of the gods to man to show man's dignity by making him equal to gods and independent of them. Like Shelley himself, his heroes try to change the world to an ideal world through love and justice and reforming against the tyrannical forces. Although they may fail in obtaining this goal, their failure, according to Thurston, is "preferable to the delusory success of the mass of men, who come to terms with the frustration of life by hardening their hearts to hopeful influences" (26).

Power of poetry and imagination is one of the important themes in Shelley's poetry by which man can get to his ideal world. To Shelley, as Solve believes, "there was a direct connection between life and imagination on the one hand, and imagination and the world of ideal truth on the other. Imagination was the instrument by which the mundane was put in accord with the infinite" (2). Shelley believes that ideal truth can be viewed through imagination which distorts the facts of nature. Thus, Poetry's fundamental role, according to Hendrix, "is to enable human sympathy, and active generosity, or love" (45).

Poetry, based on Shelley's view point in Defence, "acts to produce the moral improvement of man" (487), because it comes "from love and aims for It [love] in order to emanate a fundamental sympathy into everyone and everything that seems other than the observing mind" (Hople 181). Consequently the release of this power is the foundation of poetry and any revolution.

Shelley has an idealistic view about poetry as a remedy for man's despair in a world full of selfishness and restraint. In Shelley's view "the poets are unacknowledged legislators of the world" (Defense of Poetry); they not only behold present, but also portray future. For Shelley poetry is, as Rogers says, "the highest manifestation of that power known to mankind" (305). His view goes beyond the transient and imperfect world to an ideal world, a Utopia, ruled by beauty and love. The poet, according to Cronin, "removes the veil of familiarity from the world", in order to portray a new and ideal world. Every word of the poets is the expression of a truth which lies behind and beyond it. Fogle believes that "Shelley, indeed, seeks Truth in poetry. But it is a poetic Truth which he pursues, by means of creative imagination" (15). His use of idealism in his poetry creates a higher reality and truth in the mind of the reader, the higher truth that can be seen by Plato's Philosopher-King.

His imagination transforms his radical ideas concerning man and society into visionary poems far from the limitations of time and place. He considers the poet as a visionary and philosopher who is aware of man's future. In Shelley's view, through the imagination of the poet man can live in an ideal world far from ugliness and tyranny. In his Defense of Poetry Shelley writes that the poet "creates anew the universe, after it has been annihilated in our minds by the recurrence of impressions blunted by reiteration" (VII, 137). The chaos of the material world, in Shelley's view, can be moderated by the creative power of imagination. Shelley wants to free mankind, to purify life of its misery and evil caused by oppression. Throughout his poetic career, he depicts the most beautiful idealism of moral excellence to build a world based on his ideals, with no bondage in the way of man's happiness, ruling by love, beauty and justice. Man, in Shelley's view, can triumph every kind of tyranny and oppression by the help of love and ideal good, represented in truth, liberty, wisdom and justice. Hope and love,
embodied in Shelley's idealism, can evoke the potent forces. These two powers are the greatest sources in man, the creative power that enables him to reach Utopia, while hatred and despair are the worst agonies in human mind and society.

It is at the last months of his life that Shelley realizes that further rebirth and change is not possible in actual world. Although he is certain about the nobility of his aims, he sees that his efforts are in vain. This is the nostalgic melancholy in Shelley's life in which he depicts his disillusionment in failing to visualize his dreams. This is the time in which he find solace in the other world, the world beyond death in which he can find his Utopia. That is why he says in *Adonais*, "Life, like a dome of many-coloured glass, / Stains the white radiance of Eternity" (462-3).

3. Conclusion

Shelley is one of the most optimistic of the romantic poets. His optimism deepens its own necessity in the face of despair and loss. Optimism and idealism are, according to Shelley, man's weapons with which he stands alone in front of all sorts of temptations of the hostile and indifferent society in order to create a better future for mankind. His revolutionary and humanistic idealism can be seen in the world depicted in his poetry, a world full of love and freedom, a world that is a synthesis of all human values that began to disappear in the nineteenth century. Shelley combines the elements of loss and nostalgia with his ideal vision about future. Shelley's revolutionary idealism is very powerful when he calls his countrymen to a revolution against the absolutistic government while his humanistic idealism is imbued with the vision of the Golden Age in which people are refined by love and freedom. Shelley yearns for an ideal world that can be obtained through the power of love and imagination.

His idealism anticipates the possibility of a different future. He is a poet of the futurist vision, a poet who suffers from the present injustices and has an abstract and ideal vision of the future redress. He offers strong poetic emotions that, he feels, can convert the world, which is now full of slavery, immorality, and hypocrisy, to an ideal world in which every man is his own master, and is spiritually fulfilled by love that is the most powerful weapon against evil and tyranny.

Although he did not achieve the happiness he desired for himself and others, but he was certain about the nobility of his aims and his so-called dreams of freedom stirs our intellect. His poetry takes us away from the real world, restores us to a higher reality, and liberates us from the prison of the actual by giving us spiritual rights in a universe of the mind that is free from the limitations of matter, time and space. His Utopia is a world of innocence not corrupted by ambition and tyranny, a world of beauty and justice in the established order of things, without trouble and without ambition, a world of truth and peaceful life in which man is free.

Shelley's heroes, direct their entire energy to create a utopian world based on the revolutionary ideas of equality and liberty. His poetry conveys to the audience a new method of revolution that will not fall into the paradoxes of a public-private binary but happens in the golden land of imagination. Shelley's eternal reality, like Plato's is unchanged and exists beyond time and space. Shelley's ideal world is the combination of all the eternal values of life, values such as truth, beauty, goodness and perfection. A beautiful object in Shelley's poetry is the manifestation of that ideal beauty of the creator. Shelley internalizes the Platonic quest for union with the absolute good. He seeks refuge in this utopia because the real life lacks what the idealist poet pursues.

Shelley desires to reform the world by the power of poetry. He craves to destroy the tyranny and reconstruct a new world of freedom and equality. In almost all of his works, he depicts this Utopian vision of how the world should be and a kind of disillusionment over not attaining this ideal heaven.

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The Differences between Men and Woman in the Labor Market in Albania (Durres Case)

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Abstract

In Albania, between the different regimes, communist and post-communist, the society has been transformed, bringing in this manner various problems, which are still very present, even after 22 years of democracy. The situation is still chaotic even though the democratic models rule the state of Albania. Different problems occurred not only in employment sector, but also in the social status of women, which remains the same. After 90 years, in the labor market, we have had the most improper level of employment in relation to the average of other countries in transition. Reducing the level of employment in the 90 years was a consequence of the decrease of employment in public sector companies. The number of employees in the public sector fell from 850,000 in 1991 to 189,000 in 2001 and 176,000 in 2004. This phenomenon has come as a result of mass privatization of public companies. The end of the socialist regime, the liberalization of prices in close connection with the lack of capital and foreign competition - the measures taken to make the economy competitive in the long run, lead to failure, and so a large number of workers have lost their jobs, including many women. The women employed in the public sector account for 37 percent of the total. The analysis of employment in years indicates that during the period 1993 to 2006, the employment level of women continues to be significantly lower than that of men. This study’s main objective is the presentation and evaluation of the current situation in a transparent way in a city, one of the largest in Albania, Durres. Doing these types of analyzes at the end of the trajectory, we took different conclusions that the current situation cannot be changed only with the improvement of legal framework, because the problem does not derive from legal procedures, but those social, and this is the real challenge for our society.

1. Introduction

During the communist regime, women have benefited from promotional and incentive policies regarding education and employment, also the participation of women in social and political life were stimulated from the party. Although in general the presence of women in political life was considered symbolic, it is necessary emphasize that during the period of communism women occupied key positions in decision-making.

Despite that, according to the regime’s ideology (communist), the government provided the necessary services to their citizens, such as care for young children in nurseries and kindergartens, community industry health care, elderly care, etc., which facilitated somehow the work of women. Despite all this, women were responsible in maintaining family household, according to the traditional gender roles set by society. The distribution of family tasks is the cultural approach to the gender roles was marked up that the family work remained largely attributed to their responsibilities.

During the Cultural Revolution and Ideology in Albania, inspired by the infamous Chinese Revolution of Mao Ce Dun, which began in 1966, the regime encouraged women to be more active in social and working life of the country. Such policy tended to have a dual purpose, to overcome the conservatism and compensate for the lack of manpower, because the development of the country required a work force that could not be satisfied only by men.

By the end of 60 years, the government had managed to reverse the situation to the detriment of women, giving "good example” with the appointment in management positions in government and party, which until recently were covered exclusively by men. If we refer to rural areas, women constituted about 41 percent of the workforce in 1961 and 51.3 percent in 1983.

Despite the high birth rates in the late 80's in Albania, women comprised about 47 percent of the total workforce in the country, and showed 53 percent of the workforce in agriculture, 43.5 percent in industry, 55 percent in trade, 80 percent in health care and 54 percent in education and culture. In northern areas, in the agricultural sector, women had a much higher percentage.

In 1981, women represented 70.7 percent of the total workforce. In the years of transition, women's participation in the labor market registered a sharp decline. This figure in 2005 is 46.8 percent of the active labor force. The level of unemployment of women in Albania is higher than men. Although women have the same, if not higher degree of education among men, the opportunity offered by the labor market is not the same. The employment situation of women
is more favorable in the field of public administration, which occupies 56 percent of jobs, while 44 percent is held by men. Managerial tasks in the private sector inequality are very much visible, since only 17 percent is held by women. This percentage becomes insignificant in some areas, for example, only 2 percent of transportation companies is managed by female managers, while in other areas is seen an increase over the national average. In the services sector, women occupy as much as 25 percent of undertakings carrying on business. While reading the above data, it is clear the gap in employment of women compared to men. The focus on the nature and causes of the changes will be objects of this study. The phenomena mentioned above are also mirrored in the town of Durres. Durres is one of the cities of Albania, from the most affected by the phenomenon of internal migration, which led to the materialization of some multi-dimensional singularities, leading to an opening, as a result of the resident population to the social phenomena that inevitably accompany the migration. Comparison of culture resides with the people who come from different parts of Albania, which has produced many negative results such as domestic violence, poverty, culture clash, which directly led an imbalance within the family system.

Some consequences have materialized indirectly as a result of these phenomena, and one of them is unemployment, especially among the target group of women. This element is existent since the creation of the history of humanity, although in some societies is seen as problematic, while in others less, influenced by cultural norms and control mechanisms, but also depend on the company itself. To have an overview of the situation in the city of Durres, we analyzed the data regarding the occurrences in question following the comparative method. Is important to highlight that during the years when we analyze these data, the legal framework is quite comprehensive, and therefore the conditions for conducting a survey to understand whether the situation has undergone improvements or remains the same.

2. Study Methodology

The study is based on quantitative and qualitative methodology. The quantitative research was based on statistics taken from Institute of Statistic and other institutions, which were available to provide various data on the phenomenon of participation in the labor market of men and women at the local level in the district of Durres. The study was made more concrete by studying the opinions of a group of 100 people, women and men in urban and rural areas through a survey. The research for this study was made between Octobers since December 2011.

This questionnaire aims to collect qualitative data and quantitative data, the questionnaire was conducted among inhabitant of rural and urban areas, 50 women and 50 men, respectively 25 rural and 25 urban areas for each gender. As far as age, education and employment status of persons, questionnaires were distributed randomly, no default

3. Analysis of Study Findings

The first session aimed to gather information about the causes of this phenomenon and the interior and exterior legal framework that determine gender equality in Albania.

In the second sessions the study in focused in collection and interpretation of data gathered from local institutions as the Institute of Statistics, the Regional Employment Office, regarding employment of women in this town and comparison with the employment of men.

In the third session is analyzed the questionnaire that include the perception of the phenomena from people living in rural and urban areas of this town.

3.1 Analysis of the first session of findings

The chaos produced by the new economic system comported lack of social protection against persons and vulnerable groups. This phenomenon has affected mainly to boost gender discrimination, to the exclusion of women from the labor market for two main reasons, the low cultural development of society and the economic crisis. Women are often forced to assume the traditional role in the family. Some of the factors that have complicated the position of women are as listed above;

- The glass ceiling. In economics, the term "glass ceiling" refers to "a phenomenon that would build inaccessible occult hindering the achievement of women in managerial positions, regardless of their qualifications.
- Informal work. The Albanian economy is largely agricultural economy, characterized by a high percentage (94 percent) of micro-businesses, which largely product informal activities. In non-agricultural sector are employed 55 percent of the workforces and carry out their activities in black. Nationally, 67 percent of women works in
agriculture, 87 percent of these are self-employed. The work is concentrated in rural and farm family. The number of people working in the private sector, agriculture, continues to be very high in Albania, about 60 percent of the assumptions. In Albania, the workforce is employed in the following areas: a) agriculture, forestry, fisheries, b) production, c) commerce d, d) construction, e) education, f) health systems, etc...

- Domestic violence and women's employment. In Albanian communities, the traditional relations continued to exist in larger form, than in any other ethnic group in the Balkans. Physical or economic violence, are often encountered in Albania. If we refer to a specific definition of economic violence, would be: “Economic violence (economic abuse) includes behaviors aimed at denying the right of the individual and of economic benefit”. Some of these behaviors: denying money, food and basic needs, the refusal to contribute financially, the isolation of women, the obligation to work or the obligation not to work, a situation which aims to improve control and power over the wife / partner.

3.1.1 The internal and external legislation.

Gender equality is a fundamental civil right, and a common valor for European Union countries, and therefore a necessary condition for the integration and the achievement of employment and social cohesion of the MSAA (Stabilization Agreement and Association), which Albania signed in June, 2006.

3.1.1.1 Changes to the Albanian law after 90-st.

- The sort of labor relations has led to the drafting of a new "Labor Code" in 1995.
- The Constitution guarantees the right to work, in art. 49 (I):
  - On the employment of women and men
  - The protection of women against discrimination in the workplace.
  - At the wage and vacation pay
  - The values of the labor
- The law of "Gender Equality" (2004).
- With the Decree of the Council of Ministers on July 1, 1998 no.415, was formed “Women and Family Committee” as an organization that reports to the Council of Ministers.
- The Decree of the Council of Ministers on 15 March, 2001 no. 127 imposed "Some additions and modifications to the Decree of the Council of Ministers of July 1, 1998 no. 415, was formed the" Woman and Family Committee" by changing the name of “Woman and Family Committee” to "Committee for Equal Opportunities".
- By Decision no. 59 of 23.1.2003, the Committee for Equal Opportunity joined the Ministry of Labor and Equal Opportunities.
- With the entry into force of Law 9198, dated 01.07.2004 "On gender equality in society", was created the Committee for Gender Equality.
- With the Decision number 127, dated; 03.15.2001 was created the “Counsel for Equal Opportunities” with the main task: "The development of gender policies."
- With the approval by Parliament of the Electoral Law on, June 17, 2008 (Elections Code of the Republic of Albania, Law no. 10019, and dated 12/29/2008) has been institutionalized gender equality, to claim a share of 30 percent representation for women in the decision making institutions, either in legislative, executive and judiciary organs.

3.1.1.2 International agreements ratified

- Beijing Declaration in 1995.
- MDGs (Millennium Development Goals), signed in September 2000.
A Beijing +10, a decade after the Beijing Declaration, and was re-evaluated the period to revised decentralized. No annexes of the Platform for Action.

The conventions of ‘ILO
- The Convention of ILO no. 100 “Equal wage”, 1951, states that women and men should receive the same salary. This convention has been ratified by 137 countries, including Albania, too.
- Convention no. 111 of 1958 on Discrimination (in recruitment and employment) concerning equal treatment, including access to jobs and working conditions. This convention has been ratified by 130 countries, including Albania, too.
- Convention no.183, 2000, the protection of motherhood. Albania has ratified this convention, although the framework is complete, in fact, there are of ‘gaps in the implementation of these policies and legislative framework.

3.2 Analysis of second study findings.

3.2.1 The analysis of the situation in the city of Durres.

Between 2006 and 2009 there is an increase in population number, while in 2010 it is noticed a decrease, this phenomenon occurs on the same ratios for both sexes. Another important element during these years is that the ratio of men to women is almost the same, with the exception of 2005 in which the female sex increases numerically.

Working age population (2005 – 2010). Working age population in total, in percentage, in the district of Durres, consists of 49% of the total population, where women make up 25% while the percentage males 26%, setting a difference of 1%.

Labor Force (2005 – 2010). The division between the genders in the workforce, in reference to the definitions, belonging to persons employed and unemployed, the female is always numerically less present in the communes and municipalities. In 2010 there is a decline as a result of the decrease of the population both for men and for women. The labor force represents 50% of the population over the past 5 years although women are represented only in 20%, even though compose 51% of the total population in this region and 25% of 49% of the working age population which is 1% less than men who make up 26% to 49%.

The activity rate from 2005 – 2010 divided into Municipalities and Communes according to gender subdivision. Women are less active in both communes, and municipalities. The phenomenon which is more visible in communes is that the female activity is higher than in the municipalities.

Women constitute 27% to 33% of the total, and men constitute 40% of this 33%. So there is a big difference.

Total employment in division for Municipalities and Communes for years 2005 to 2010. Women hold fewer and fewer places not exceeding 10,000 in the municipalities and communes.

In 2010 the number of women in the municipalities has a tendency to increase compared to other years, with the exception of 2005, which is even higher than 2010. While the opposite occurs in the municipalities, women’s employment in 2010 goes down from previous years. In the period between 2005 and 2010, we estimate that total figures are the following streams: Women constitute 19%, while men make up 31% of total employees that is 50%. So do not even represent half of total employees. Women occupy 25% of total workplaces, while the men reached a percentage higher than the level of employment.

Unemployment rate (2005 – 2010). Women constitute 44% from 32% of the total, a number that indicates the extent of unemployment in the district of Durres, and males 24% to 32%.

Employment in the institutions of the District, municipalities and communes (2005 – 2010). Women hold only 19% to 81% of the total number of public sector employees. In this way, with these data, it is analyzed not only the participation of women in the labor market in the district, but also the rate of participation in leadership positions in public institutions.

Regarding the employment in various sectors, employment for women is lower in trade and construction, which have been most profitable sectors for these 5 years, respectively:
- Construction Sector. What is noticed is the increased participation of women over the past three years in construction, but still represents only 12% of the total in the last 5 years.
- Commercial Sector. The participation of women is still low because they take only 29% of jobs in this sector.
- Meanwhile, two sectors that are dominated by women are health and education
- Education Sector. Compared to other sectors, the education sector is characteristically and historically
"dominated" by women. This, in fact, due to the nature of the profession that offers the opportunity to spend more time with the family. In this sector, women constitute 41% of total employees during the years 2005 to 2010. While there is an increase in the number of employees in 2010.

- Health Sector. As in the field of education in health care, women are also well represented, accounting in 45% of the total. This trend has been constant for three years.
- Regarding the position held in different workplaces we can see that;
- Legislators, senior executives, and senior officers for the years (2005 – 2010).
- A discrimination that has characterized the pathway of women in different societies, but especially in ours, where their role has been well-default, belong to the service of the family, neglect and preventing their participation in the social life of the society. The massive element that has affected this was lack of women in management position, excluding them from decision-making process. Women occupy a total of 26% of the total management positions until 2008 in which there is a drop, even if there is a significant difference in 2009 and 2010.
- Specialists and Technicians in the workplace. In reference to the positions of technicians and specialists, we will see that the percentage increases, even if the difference is not significant. Participation of women comes to 38% in total and was growing progressively in the years 2009 and 2010, but at the same time was increased the total, indicating that growth is general and not only for women in these positions.

4. Analysis of Third Study Findings

4.1 The questionnaire.

The questionnaire was attended by women and men in urban and rural residents, who have provided the following responses.

4.2 The generality of the respondents.

- Age. The survey was conducted mainly to people belonging to the age group 25-54, 30% of respondents in the age group between 15 - 25 years belong to the male population in the rural area, 27% of urban women, 23% women in rural areas and 20% for males in urban areas. 30% of respondents in the age group between 25 - 53 years belongs to women living in urban area, 2 6% of men in urban areas, 2 0% women in rural areas and 2 4% of males in areas urban. 40% of respondents of the age group between 55 -64 years belongs to women living in rural area, 30% men of rural areas, 20% men of rural areas and 10% for women in urban areas.

- Level of education. Regarding the educational level of respondents, most of them are in possession of a diploma of high school. Men and women with an average level of education; they have a level of education of 8 years, which is the same for both women and men in both areas, urban-rural. Primary education, four years, 40% of respondents belong to men living in rural area, 36% of women of rural areas, 9% of men in urban areas and 14% for women in urban areas. Cycle of eight years, 36% of respondents belong to men living in rural area, 32% of women of rural areas, 14% men in urban areas and 18% for women in urban areas. Cycle of secondary school, 26% of those surveyed population belongs to both men and women in rural areas of rural men in urban areas while 22% of women in urban areas. Universities, 45% of respondents belong to women in urban areas, 44% for men living in urban areas, the ‘men of 11% to rural areas while the number is 0 for women in rural areas. Postgraduate cycle, 57% belongs to the males of the urban women and 43% of urban area, the number is absent for males and females of the rural area.

- Employment. Most are employed in public administration, women and men living in more urban areas. Worker in public administration, 45% of employees are men belonging to urban areas, 26% women of the urban area, 23% of rural males and 6% of rural women. Employed in the private sector, 53% of employees are men belonging to rural areas, 10%, women of urban area, 32% males in the urban area and 5% of rural women. Self-employed, 52% of employees are women belonging to rural areas, 18%, women of urban area, urban
area of 4% males and 26% of rural males. 
Unemployed, 53% belongs to women in rural areas and 47% belongs to women in urban areas. 
In retirement, 50% belongs to the males in rural areas, 25% belongs to both women in urban areas, that the males of the rural areas.

4.3 The responses of questionnaire.

In this session we will analyze the questions and answers of the respondents taking each question in it.

It is observed that residents in rural and urban think that women in different sectors are equal to the male presence. This is also thought by some of the women interviewed. Statistically, 13 women have this perception in rural areas and 6 women in urban areas have answered yes, while most of the women said no, 12 respectively in rural area and 19 in urban areas. For males, greater response is yes, in fact, it shows the responses given, 19 and 15 in rural areas and urban.

From the responses it is perceived that there is a difference in the perception of this phenomenon in both rural and urban in that the level of participation of women in social life.

The reasons why the interweavers think women are not equally represented as men to internal labor market are;
1. Mentality, prevailing mainly among women residing in urban areas,
2. The family permission, maternity
3. Meet the requirements
4. The lack of opportunity, conditions
5. The lack of information
6. For lack of legislation

4.4 The question "Are you aware of any law or other regulations to protect the rights of women"

People have opted in these ranking answers;
1. "No" and the most common answer given by men and women in rural areas.
2. "The Constitution" and most commonly provided by men and women living in urban area.
3. The "Law gender equality "is known women residents in urban areas.
4. "Code of family" and recognized by most women living in the urban area.
5. "Labor Code" have opted more women living in urban areas.

4.5 Regarding the question "Are you aware of international legislation to protect the rights of women".

The "No" is the most common answer given by men and women in rural, while the best answer chosen by the women residing in urban areas is "Card of Human Rights".

In general, the opinion "no" is given by 64% of males and especially of the rural area who answered this option in 37%. The answer "Card of Human Rights" by 25%, "CEDAW" 7% and Platform for Action in Beijing only 4%. From the answers it can be seen that respondents do not have good knowledge of legislation protecting the rights of women in our society.

When asked "It affects the reproductive role (births, care for children and other family members, domestic work) of women's participation in the labor market," they answered "Yes" majority men and women living in urban areas, the opposite has been said by those resident in rural areas. Nearly 58% answered "Yes" that is divided into 17% of women in the urban area, followed by 16% of the urban males, 9% women in rural areas and 8%, males from rural area.

The answer "No" has been answered by a total of 42% that is divided, 19% of males from rural area, 18% of rural women, 7% of the urban area from the males and 6% of women from urban area.

The reason why most interviewed have answered "No " is "discrimination because of gender" 35%, among which 19% males in urban areas, 24% women urban areas and 7% of female rural areas.

The "limited spare time," represents 28% of responses, virtually divided into 18% by males in urban areas, 17% by males in rural areas, 9% from females and 6% in urban areas than rural areas.

The option "poverty" was given by 10% of respondents, divided into 25% of males from rural area, 17% of the urban area from the males and 8% from females of the urban area.

"Lack of social infrastructure" was given by 10% of respondents divided by males in 25% of the rural area, 17% of the urban area from the males from females and 8% of the rural area.
"Discrimination on grounds of motherhood" and was given by 17% of people, respectively, 25% of the urban area of females, males 10% of the urban area and 15% females from the rural area.

When asked, "You pay social contributions and health insurance," people who do not pay social contributions and health insurance are concentrating mostly in rural areas and are mostly women. 66% expressed that does not pay health insurance, 31% of the urban area are males, 25% are males of the rural area, while 26% are women of the urban area and 25% are women the rural area.

The answer 'no' has been answered by 34% of respondents, almost 37% of rural women, women 29% of the urban area, 23% of rural males and 11% of males, the urban area.

5. Conclusions

Gender equality is a necessary requirement for any society that has as its purpose the development of a democratic system through the principle of equality and justice in society. We cannot affirm the absence of favorable changes, because in the context of negotiations and discussions have entered the odds of positive discrimination of 30% participation in public administration to enable more women saying sadly that this and the only way in which this agreement can be fulfilled in Albania. During the study, which has been realized in a circle that ever has been reduced, there was always the same phenomenon, discrimination against women that exists above the legislative framework.

- There is a gap in employment of women and men.
- The women have fewer employment opportunities, even if they pose a greater proportion or equality in numbers with men in the Albanian population.
- Women are less represented in society and are often identified in the housewife role, even if their level of education is higher than men.
- Unemployment is higher in women than in men.
- The long-term unemployment is more present in female gender than in male.
- Women are less represented in executive positions and policies.
- Women constitute the majority of workers in the informal sector and do not necessarily get paid contributions and health insurance.
- They are more vulnerable to job loss, in case of reforms.
- They are characterized by the phenomenon of the glass ceiling, have fewer opportunities for job promotion.
- Women are mainly employed in unpaid work.
- It is abused not only physically verbally and emotionally but also economically to a large extent.
- Another conclusion is that in the last five years is thought to have been major improvements, but in fact the situation is nearly the same as the progress is minimal.

These conclusions do not intend to criticize constantly, because in reality the problem of differentiation in the workplace is not only a problem belonging to the less developed or less democratic countries. This is a phenomenon found in many economically developed democratic countries and persisted over time. Problematic are the gender stereotypes that persist independently of what right or wrong.

It is problematic that stereotypes are not only present in the mentality of men but are also that of women too by convincing themselves they cannot do certain types of work. Basically I think it's important to change the way our society perceive the roles and gender stereotypes from the juvenile time, so one solution may be learning models taken at school or in families to change this perception through increased awareness.

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Between Ethics and Desire: The ‘Torment’ of Becoming Parent in the Everyday Life of Intercountry Adoptive Families in Italy

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Abstract

The domestic domain is considered to be, because of its own nature, the favoured realm of the ethics expression in everyday relationships. This rooted vision seems to concern the relations between parents and children in particular. But what happens when the parenting relation is lived and practiced with strangers? As many social studies highlighted, during the last three decades a wide diffusion of intercountry adoptions occurred in Western countries, where the adoptive family is established by law as being on the same level as the biological family. Italy is considered one of the Western countries with the highest number of arrivals of adopted children, in a social scenario marked by a deep transformation of the domestic domain. Based on a two years’ ethnographic research on Italian adoptive families, my paper aims at highlighting a particular ethical side of the process of adoptive kinning, which is often not investigated in detail. In fact, on the one hand infertile couples seem to be particularly sensitive towards the rhetoric of international discourses and of the media iconography, which solicit that ethical personal responsibility necessary to take care of a child considered to be unlucky because ‘orphan’, ill and born in the so-called Third or Second World. On the other hand, the concrete action of ‘taking the child, bringing him/her away’ and removing all his/her previous ties (as established by international adoptive devices), seems to urge new parents ‘to perceive themselves as thieves’, as someone stealing the child from his/her family and country of origin. The effects of this double-sided ethics act deeply in the everyday life of adoptive families, particularly in the process of internal legitimation, whose outcome is crucial for the success of a “good” adoptive parenting.

Keywords: family; intercountry adoption; ethnography; parenting; care; stealing; double-sided ethics;

1. A globalized social event

Intercountry adoption has become a very wide social phenomenon in many Western countries during the last three decades, and it stimulated a great interest in the anthropological studies, particularly toward the studying of new forms of kinship in the contemporary world (e.g. Volkman, 2005; Howell, 2007; DiSilvio, 2008; Yngvesson, 2010). Indeed, intercountry adoption clearly takes the shape of a globalization event, especially from the 1990’s when a high number of ‘orphaned’ children were moved from many countries of the so-called Third or Second World to the well-heeled countries of the First World.

Some scholars have spoken of a ‘silent migration’ (e.g. Lovelock, 2000; Selman, 2002) and someone else of a ‘neo-colonial abduction’ (Hubinette, 2004), like the slavery trade of the 18th century. Although these visions might appear too drastic at a first glance, they certainly arise from some proved facts, tightly related to each other.

Many demographic studies highlighted how intercountry adoption moved little less than 50 thousand children per year to Western countries during the last 30 years (Selman, 2006). Italy, where I conducted my research, ranks among the most active countries in the reception of intercountry adoptees (DiSilvio, 2008, 2010c, 2012). Public institutions, such as the Commission of the International Adoption (CAI), claim that in the last 20 years the number of adopted children who entered the country was around 5 thousand per year, more than half of whom were destined to the richer Northern regions (CAI, 2011). In addition, unlike what happened in many other Western countries, in Italy adoptees’ relocations did not recently drop (Selman, 2009), demonstrating all the strength of this phenomenon within the Italian social scenario.

Historically, these children have been usually coming from Asia – especially India, but lately also from China and Vietnam - , South American countries - Brazil, Colombia, Peru, Guatemala, Honduras - and, after the fall of Soviet Republics, a really high number of children came from Eastern Europe, particularly from Ukraine, Russia, Romania.
2. Hegemonic practices

All the so-called ‘donor countries’ had to subscribe to the international devices and norms on intercountry adoption according to which, differently from traditional practices, children circulation requires a clean cut (the so called ‘clean break’) with both the birth family and the country of origin (Duncan, 1993).

Maybe we cannot define this movement just as a ‘migration’ process because the main actor involved, that is the ‘orphaned’ child, is not assumed to be somebody who can choose his future as migrant, but what happens is that the country of origin, as his legal tutor, takes the decision in his stead. Of course, it never is a free choice. Many dynamics are in action, or rather, many are the power exercises acting in the field of the globalized intercountry adoption (Bourdieu, 1992).

The events that occurred in Romania just after the Ceausescu fall may be a clarifying example. Defense for Children International (1991), an organization linked to UNICEF, supposed that from March 1990 until June 1991 little less than 15,000 children were moved from Romanian orphanages to 22 Western countries without any legal displacement ratified by the government of the country of origin. Of course, this happened in the name of ‘the best interest for the child’ (Goldstein et al., 1979) because, within Western houses, the survival conditions of children in Romania were considered to be on the borderline. But when, in a distressing landscape full of social and economic problems, that children flow was finally interrupted, the new Romanian government had to cope with the children protection measures requested by the EU, obviously in return for the EU economic support. Of course the new Romanian government was not able to immediately comply with the above mentioned EU children protection measures. The solution was to give the children up for adoption to European or American couples.

This happened several years ago, of course, but it is not so far away from what occurred during the Darfur crisis or the Haiti earthquake, as media widely reported (e.g. Crumley, 2007; Westcott, 2010). So, it is not always the case, but unfortunately many times the adoptive kinship takes its first steps in a nebulous scenario where a complex experience of the private is thrown into the heart of hegemonic exercises of power (economical as well as political powers).

3. Desires and bodies

However, as I could observe, the aspiring parents, or the new-parents as well, seem not to know or to be unaware of the underhanded and slippery ground on which they move. Indeed, at the beginning of their path, many of the Italian adoptive parents appear to be much more involved and caught by two main frames of mind: the moral duty to save a ‘orphaned and poor’ child from his tragic destiny and the desire to take care of him as if he was his own son. Their goal is to satisfy both these feelings, which meet their historically and culturally established representations of infancy, parenting and family.

Italian adoptive parents share these visions with both the Western dispositions in general and with a specific habitus (Bourdieu, 2003), culturally produced, in which the ideological power of the (Catholic) Church (Foucault, 2005) as well as of the familialistic society is still deeply active, despite the changes of the domestic realm brought about by a birth rate among the lowest in Europe.

So, the media representations of the children’s suffering bodies act in concert with the intimate need of the physical presence of a child in the infertile couple, because there is no family without the reality and visibility of the ‘body’ of the son.

Starting from this unequal exercise of power on bodies and desires, recently some scholars critically defined the Western intercountry adoption devices as a hegemonic strategy, historically produced, to pillage economically weaker countries for satisfying the desires of Western peoples (Hubinette, 2006). Like in the slavery trade, where bodies of ‘Others’ were forcibly displaced to answer the need of bodies-work, within the Western adoption practice children are ‘abducted’ to fulfill the desire of infertile couples, who want the body of a son to take care of in order to ‘make’ a complete family. In any case, what is now evident is the growing criticism on a system so open to abuse (Trisielotis, 2000; Fonseca, 2002; Smolin, 2007), founded on the gross inequalities still reigning in the planet, so that intercountry adoption devices may be labeled as a ‘neo-colonialist mistake’ (Parker, 2008:293). But the overgeneralization of a scenario, although it is deeply dark in many sides, may hurt most of the couples approaching the intercountry adoption full of hopes and with a clear behavior.

The Italian path to intercountry adoption is very hard for all those infertile couples who decide to adopt a son. Public institutions as well as social workers pay close attention to authorizing the Italian adoption agencies which work abroad, but they also put a lot of effort into training the aspiring parents. A great discursive emphasis is given to the ethic facets of the adoptive choice, mainly because of the personal suffering that children bring inside due to their lived
experience. So, parents must attend several meetings with psychologists, judges and physicians to demonstrate to be able to handle the complex familiar experience in which they will live. Many trials have to be passed to be included into the social category of ‘good parents’ on which the true family is founded (Bourdieu, 1996). Only from that moment onwards, the couple can be legally legitimated in its ‘social’ parenting, which is established to be mimetic to the biological parenting.

4. Choices, ethics and torment

I met Simona, an adoptive mother, in 2007 during my fieldwork with Italian adoptive families. Few years before she and her husband adopted two children, the elder from Brazil and the younger from Ethiopia. Since a short while ago, she has also been the director of an adoptive agency which operates in Ethiopia and where she had been working as a volunteer for long. One day, while we were talking about her new commitment, she suddenly said:

You know? While we were waiting for the suitability for our second adoption, I went to India as a volunteer for my association, to do something for those children involved in the program of remote adoptions. Well, I came back with the idea that I no longer wanted to adopt a child because, and I’m still persuaded, I think it is not right, it is not natural to bring a child away from his country … it really seemed to me to go there and bring something away, steal something, steal the future of that country … because Eastern countries are so, Eastern countries are impoverished, they are completely drained … like Vietnam, too, and Cambodia, and India … it is the same thing, they all have drained their future … yes, then I adopted in Ethiopia, but there has always been this nag, this torment ...

So, I asked Simona why they adopted and she told me that the elder son lived in Brazil on the street having a carton box as a home, and the younger was so hardly diseased that he would surely die in those living conditions. In reality, both of them would die. And she and her husband couldn’t do anything more than what they did. Because they had to cope with their children’s conditions, it was not possible for them to think about all children or their country of origin as a whole, but they could only take care of that specific child and his unequal life.

In some way, it seemed that the ‘torment’ of Simona arose from the gap between two ethic dispositions that, in the case of intercountry adoption, display themselves and work in explicit opposition. The supposed action of a double-sided ethics in adoptive kinning, as Simona explained so clearly, became an interesting matter to deepen and study with a more detailed scouting. Particularly, my attention was drawn to the possible effects of the action of the ‘torment’ symbolic metaphor on the everyday life of the adoptive family and its members.

However, at a first glance, not all the adoptive parents I met seemed to show such an evident reflexive ability, as Simona did. During my ethnographic research, nobody talked about something similar to a ‘torment’ in their choice, but they only seemed to be very happy to have their child at home after having waited for so long. And for a while I thought that many of them had not had the lived experience of Simona, who visited the children’s country of origin as a volunteer worker and thus developed a point of view besides the one of an aspiring parent.

As I said, in Italy perspective parents must face a long path of apprenticeship to reach what the social workers consider to be a satisfying ability in producing the meaning of familiar belonging under un-ordinary conditions (DiSilvio, 2010a). Because the ties between parents and children are not blood-founded, the adoptive family’s members need to reshape their interior recognition in a different way (DiSilvio, 2010b).

Usually, the sharing of a substance (the blood or the genetic code and, as a consequence, an assumed physical likeness) legitimates a family in its social relationship life as well as in the interior representations and perceptions of the private family relationships conceived by its members (parents and children). But in the case of adoption, particularly transnational, things work in a different way.

5. Double-sided ethics and family relationships: a poisoned perspective?

We may say that the juridical norm establishes the public and external legitimation of the adoptive family in the social scenario, making it mimetically similar to the biological family. As regards the interior side, however, the matter appears to be much more complex. The new parents, and also the relatives, are embedded in the action of the habitus (Krais and Gebauer, 2009) to which they belong; this habitus claims the hegemony of blood ties in the production of the sole ‘true’ family.

Many scholars have understood the sense of alienation that seems to be permeating the adoptive kinning as an effect of the actions of the embedded blood hegemonic dispositions in the everyday life of the family (Modell, 1994; Yngvesson and Mahoney, 2000; DiSilvio 2010b; DiSilvio, 2012). But I argue that, beyond the actions and effects of a
familistic habitus, the presence of an unsaid ethical 'torment' emerges as an unwelcome ghost within the discourses and practices of the new parents and it works deeply for the construction of the meaning to be assigned to their private experience as an adoptive family. Indeed it may be very hard to build and manage an adoptive parenting care when the relationships between the receiving and donor countries as well as between the adoptive and birth parents are perceived as unequal in origin.

So, the mystifying rhetoric of the 'gift', widely shared in the official discourses on intercountry adoption (Ynvegsson, 2002; Solstad, 2005), was replaced by the gratitude an adoptive mother (but not the only) was feeling towards the unknown birth mother of her son/daughter, because in this way she had the impression to compensate for 'something wrong' that had happened through the adoptive displacement, although she was not able to precisely explain what 'something wrong' meant. On the other side, some parents seem to be really pressed by a sort of fear towards both the birth parents or relatives and the country of origin. They often suspect that the displacement system of their son/daughter can be tricky, so that they are not totally sure of the openness of the procedure.

The idea that someone belonging to the birth family might assert their rights on the allocated child, while adoptive parents are involved in the legal proceeding of adoption, is very widespread and also continues when adoptive parents are back in Italy with their child. Another common belief is that one day the country of origin might call the young adoptee back to army, as it happened for parents who adopted a son in Russia (which requires the twin-nationality until the son is 18 old). This is not possible and, of course, all these events do not take place, but these beliefs are present into the adoptive parents’ discourses and representations of what kind of family they might face.

The two different feelings of compensation and fear seem to be the two sides of the same coin, and both these feelings are saying something about the lack of legitimacy perceived by the adoptive parents established through a thin ethical frame. In a domain, like the domestic one, where the doxa locates the specificity of unselfish ties, adoptive parents feel themselves as not fully authorized to be what they would wish to be, because the desired child, a 'gift come from heaven', may turn into a 'deceptive gift' in a short time.

6. In sum

When the gap between the representation of the 'free of charge' child, rhetorically instituted at the beginning of the adoption process, and the idealization of the gift, originating from the adoptee's arrival, is too broad, the perspective family experiences a 'split' in its effort to become a 'rue' family.

Unfortunately, lately it is not so rare that the new parents go to the public institutions, which established themselves as adoptive parents, to 'give back' the adopted child. So, I finally argue that some of the dramatic epilogues as well as the sense of alienation permeating the adoptive families’ everyday life in Italy can be linked to the conflicting action of the embedded familistic habitus, the correlated hegemonic meaning of kinship blood ties and the ethical gap between the discourses on the child 'given as a gift' and the reality of the practices and the proceedings of the adoptive displacements in the globalized world.

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Mitigating the Impact of a Financial Crisis:
Some Lessons from Hong Kong During the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis

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Abstract

The year 1997 was a major milestone for Hong Kong: it experienced the height of the Asian financial crisis; and, it was the very year when the sovereignty was handed back from the UK to China. Hong Kong citizens viewed the handover with mixed feelings under the crisis circumstances: pride in reunification and uncertainty over the future. This study systematically assesses the formation, development and importance of Hong Kong’s monetary system, its integration with mainland China, and the position of the City-State as an international financial centre. We use data collected through fieldwork and guided by the literature to analyse reasons why Hong Kong managed to escape the worst of the impact of the Asian Financial Crisis. Interviews were conducted with informed commentators and senior bureaucrats in Hong Kong, mainland China and Australia to assess the effectiveness of Hong Kong’s monetary system, the feasibility of the “One country, two systems” proposal, and the integration between Hong Kong and mainland China. Our findings provide support to the proposition that Hong Kong was successful in defending its currency against speculators, stabilising its currency through policy interventions, and in the process strengthening its position as an international financial centre.

Keywords: Asian financial crisis, Hong Kong, HKMA, monetary system, linked exchange rate

1. Introduction

The year 1997 was special to Hong Kong. It simultaneously experienced the reunification with mainland China and the Asian financial crisis (AFC). These events brought mixed feelings to Hong Kong citizens: honour on returning to the home country and uncertainty over the future. In hindsight however, most of the apprehension was unnecessary. Hit by speculative attacks and regional spill over, Hong Kong still managed to maintain its linked exchange rate and strengthen its position as an international financial centre. Regarding Hong Kong’s defensive activities, several typical questions have been raised: Why did Hong Kong insist on defending its exchange rate regime? Why did not Hong Kong simply prohibit the currency convertibility to draw back hostile speculative attacks? Why was the Mainland cautious in intervening in Hong Kong at that time? How did Hong Kong mitigate the impact of the financial crisis? Trying to answer these questions, this paper assesses the importance of the Hong Kong financial system and the influences from mainland China amid the AFC with the use of information collected from fieldwork.

2. Data

In order to evaluate Hong Kong’s monetary intervention and exchange rate policy during the 1997 Asian financial crisis, fieldwork was conducted from November 2012 to January 2013 in Australia, Shanghai, and Hong Kong sequentially. Face to face semi-structured interviews were carried out with 20 informed scholars and officials. They shared their viewpoints on numerous topics regarding the impact of the AFC on Hong Kong in 1997. The subjects covered included: Hong Kong’s economic performance in the crisis in comparison with other regional economies, assessment of the range and effectiveness of the interventions of the Hong Kong Monetary Authority (HKMA), suitability of the currency board (linked exchange rate system) during and after the crisis, China’s influences on Hong Kong during the crisis, and the prevention of future crises.
3. Analysis

Since the handover in 1997, there have been two systems coexisting in mainland China and Hong Kong. This is widely known as the “One Country, Two System” policy. Like the political system, Hong Kong’s monetary system is also relatively independent of, but closely interrelated with that of mainland China. The existence of two monetary regimes based on the Renminbi (RMB) and the Hong Kong dollar (HKD) respectively is promoting the mutual development of the Mainland and Hong Kong. Hong Kong has its own currency, monetary system and monetary authority. China is keeping its promise on maintaining Hong Kong’s autonomy. With data collected from fieldwork and the extant literature, this paper critically analyses Hong Kong’s financial system and its core players: the HKMA, the Currency Board, the Exchange Fund, the interrelation with mainland China, and Hong Kong’s status as an international financial centre.

3.1 The HKMA

The Hong Kong Monetary Authority (HKMA) serves the functions of a central bank in most other jurisdictions. Its functions can be briefly described as: maintaining currency stability, promoting the integrity of the financial system, reinforcing Hong Kong’s status as an international financial centre, and managing the Exchange Fund (HKMA, 2012). Since 1983, Hong Kong has been pegging its currency to the US dollar (USD) at 7.8 HKD per USD, which is called the linked exchange rate system. The exchange rate system supports Hong Kong’s international trade, service industry, and its status as a financial centre. One of the HKMA’s major roles is to strengthen and develop the currency board to make it more rule-based and transparent.

During the AFC, the major steps the HKMA took were interventions on the stock market. These interventions were more frequent at the height of each speculative attack, and with the benefit of hindsight proved to be effective in protecting the linked exchange rate, and restoring the financial market, although at the expense of soaring interest rates and slumps in the stock market.

In the fieldwork, several interviewees provided their opinions on the HKMA’s performance in the crisis. In general, most scholars made favourable comments on the Hong Kong government and the HKMA in those special years. Specifically, the HKMA’s success in protecting the linked exchange rate and maintaining information transparency was positively evaluated by Professor Bill Hung. One significant manifestation was the reduced panic as a result of appropriate and measured responses by the HKMA. Hung believes what the HKMA did is worth studying as a typical case by other central banks (Hung, 14 January 2013). An anonymous official from the HKMA also values the responses as relatively successful, especially the stock market interventions in 1998. He indicated that the HKMA was taking a lot of risks in this controversial move. Although there had been no guarantee before it was implemented, it proved right later. To strengthen the credibility of the currency board regime, seven technical measures were introduced after the height of the crisis. The HKMA has been striving to build a more robust and transparent regime, and to ensure a strong risk management framework in Hong Kong’s banking system (Anonymous, 14 January 2013).

Different from the above view, some professors think the HKMA was somewhat slow in responding when the crisis hit. Professor David Cook argues the lack of an open discount window reduced the credibility in inter-bank markets, leading to an extremely low level of liquidity in the markets. Cook asserted that the HKMA did things right ultimately; but in hindsight, it took a longer time to fix the technical change to the discount window and solve the liquidity problem than was necessary (Cook, 17 January 2013).

3.2 Currency board

A currency board (CB) is a special form of monetary institution. Under this system, the HKMA can only issue domestic notes backed by 100% with foreign exchange reserves (Tse & Paul, 2003). The board has the obligation to exchange local currency with major foreign currencies on request, and vice versa. There is no discretionary monetary policy. Money supply and interest rates are determined by the market. The CB in Hong Kong is popularly known as the linked exchange rate system.

The CB has its pros and cons. The main advantages are effectively the same with those inherent in a fixed

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exchange rate system. Assurance of currency convertibility can reduce foreign exchange risks faced by traders and investors; high requirement of macroeconomic discipline assures prudential fiscal policy; it can also help promote public confidence in the financial market in the long run (Kang, 2000). This provides a credible assurance to low inflation rate and encourage economic growth. However, the CB also has its drawbacks, as Li puts it, there is no independent monetary policy that can be based on a country’s own situation, and the economy is poorly immune to external shocks (Li, 2012a).

There have been a number of debates and critics on Hong Kong’s CB arrangement. Some believe the fixed exchange rate regime has always been, and will be the most appropriate for Hong Kong as a small open economy. The maintenance of the linked exchange rate regime during the AFC enhanced public confidence on Hong Kong’s currency and beat speculation. Others propose alternative solutions for Hong Kong’s exchange rate, such as managed fixed, managed floating, or a broader band in which the exchange rate can be adjusted. Some interviewees’ points of view are presented to make a comparison.

The scholars who approve the current exchange rate regime believe that the linked exchange rate is the most effective and workable regime for Hong Kong. Professor Kui Wai Li thinks there is nothing as a perfect system. The best system is the one providing the most foreseeable result. Li gives credit for Hong Kong’s peg because it is doing this job. By linking to the USD, he postulates that we can assure the certainty of the international currency. Admittedly, Hong Kong has the problem of no independent monetary policy. However, even if the HKD were not linked to the USD, it would still have to follow the US in effect, as the whole world does (Li, 18 January 2013). Similarly, Professor Vincent Mok considers there would have been no way to ensure an exchange rate system better than the current peg. Since Hong Kong is a small open economy, a free float might have made Hong Kong suffer more during the AFC (Mok, 8 January 2013).

On the contrary, some other professionals feel that there could be a better regime than the linked exchange rate. Professor Warwick McKibbin thinks the big problem faced by Hong Kong was the peg to the USD, which meant they needed to have a real depreciation at probably 30-40% during the crisis. Instead of having the depreciation through the exchange rate, they had to achieve it through deflation. So the big collapse in the price of goods and assets was very costly. It could have been better if the exchange rate were allowed to fall like it did in Australia (McKibbin, 30 January 2013).

The existing debates on Hong Kong’s most appropriate exchange rate regime necessitate the study and proposal of other options. Professor Lok Sank Ho holds the opinion that the peg should have been replaced by a managed fixed exchange rate. His theoretical framework is that the exchange rate has to be conditional on fundamentals. Without evidence for changes in fundamentals, the exchange rate should be kept fixed. When there is sufficient evidence to justify fundamental changes, it is time to adjust the exchange rate (Ho, 10 January 2013).

3.3 Exchange Fund

The Exchange Fund plays its role directly or indirectly affecting the exchange value of Hong Kong currency, as well as keeping the stability of the monetary system, and maintaining Hong Kong as an international financial centre. Assets in the Fund are managed actively on a day-to-day basis. To keep it in line with its mission and role, the HKMA reviews its investment strategies and styles on a regular basis.

Assets in the Exchange Fund are segregated in two different portfolios. One is the Backing Portfolio, which ensures that the Hong Kong currency is fully backed by the USD; the other is the Strategic Portfolio for strategic purposes. These portfolios are created to keep liquidity and generate returns (HKMA, 2012a). In accordance with the Exchange Fund Ordinance, the Financial Secretary, who is in control of the Exchange Fund, is required to consult the Exchange Fund Advisory Committee (EFAC). The Financial Secretary is in charge of appointing members, including the HKMA, in view of their individual capacity, such as expertise, knowledge, and experience. EFAC provides advice for the Financial Secretary on return generated by the Fund, and expenditure from the Funds, particularly the investment strategies, and the development of the financial infrastructure (HKMA, 2013). Professor Che Cheong Poon considered the EFAC to be the party which contributed most significantly in defending against speculators (Poon, 14 January 2013).

3.4 Economic interaction with mainland China

Regarding the role China played in helping Hong Kong defend its currency, there is consensus among scholars. They all agree on China’s commitment to RMB stability and its strength in backing the HKD with ample foreign reserves. An anonymous official in the HKMA defines China’s assistance as moral support during the crisis, with few specific policies (Anonymous, 14 January 2013). Another interviewee, Professor Ho, gives a high evaluation of China’s role in the crisis.
He believes RMB with no devaluation prevented the regional spill-over of the crisis. According to Professor Ho, China's strong economic growth enabled more import absorption. Regional exports to mainland China led the economic recovery in neighbouring countries (Ho, 10 January 2013).

At the time of the AFC, China was not as much involved in Hong Kong's issues as it has been since 2003. The reason why China was cautious in intervening in Hong Kong was that Hong Kong experienced both the financial crisis and the political handover at the same time. This was a double shock to Hong Kong citizens, who had more uncertainty about their future. The best way to enhance investors' confidence and social stability was to keep things as normal as possible. This opinion was confirmed by one of my interviewees, Professor Che Leung Kwong (Kwong, 11 January 2013). China did try its best in backing up Hong Kong and maintaining the regional stability. During the turmoil, the central authority in Beijing pledged that the RMB would not be devalued (Gurtner, 1999). These commitments helped Hong Kong repel continual speculation, and stopped further competitive depreciation and spread of the panic. Hong Kong was overwhelmed by credit squeeze after massive defence of the peg (Kueh & Raymond, 2002). According to Kueh & Raymond, the Mainland granted the first ever RMB credit and a value-added tax rebate to provide liquidity and sustain export activities to provide first-hand rescue.

Since the third quarter of 1999, Hong Kong’s economy had begun to recover remarkably, bound up with the rebound of the Mainland’s revival in exports. China has been increasingly important as Hong Kong’s main trading partner since the 1980s. Within the ten years from 1986, the US share of Hong Kong’s exports fell from 41.7% to 25.4%, while mainland China rose from 11.7% to 29%. Since before the crisis occurred, China had been the primary trading partner of Hong Kong. Table 1 shows Hong Kong’s main trade destinations and suppliers from 1996 to 1999.

### Table 1: Main Trading Partners, 1996-1999 (% of total)

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<tr>
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<th>Exports to</th>
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<th>Imports from</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>34.4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>23.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>5.2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>4.2</td>
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<td>3.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>UK</td>
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<td>Taiwan</td>
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<td>Singapore</td>
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Source: Census and Statistics Department, HKSAR

### 3.5 Hong Kong as an international financial centre

Hong Kong is achieving remarkable progress in financial infrastructure development and has continued a reinforced role as a competitive international financial centre. The improvement is reflected by the sovereign credit ratings by major international credit rating agencies, namely, Standard & Poor’s and Moody’s Investors Service. Also, the HKMA works to present the economic and financial developments to the credit agencies to make them understand Hong Kong’s economic health. This has resulted in upgrading in credit ratings over the past several years (HKMA, 2011).

Hong Kong manifests its reinforced position as an international financial centre in the increasing net foreign assets (Figure 1). The volume of net foreign assets increased from USD 62 billion in 1991 to USD 511 billion in 2011, though it experienced a slight drop in 2008 when the global financial crisis began. Singapore is chosen as a comparable economy, because Hong Kong and Singapore are both small open economies and have many economic similarities. Compared to Singapore, Hong Kong’s net foreign assets have increased since the World Bank records began in 1991, and the disparity between the two has grown significantly since the crisis.
The reinforcement of Hong Kong’s status as an international financial centre is also displayed in several other aspects. First is the increasing international and regional cooperation and integration. Many of the efforts focus on economic growth and financial stability under the changing international situation and upcoming events. Massive achievements have been made on global regulation reforms by relevant recommendations and implementation. The second aspect lies on ensuring monetary and financial stability in Asia. Careful analysis is conducted on the region’s risks and vulnerability. The HKMA frequently consults with counterparts on the soundness of the macroeconomic and financial sectors. Third, Hong Kong commits itself as the offshore RMB business centre (HKMA, 2011). So far, Hong Kong’s development as one of the most important RMB offshore business centre has achieved great success in different dimensions. The growth of RMB deposits in Hong Kong is shown in Figure 2. The total RMB deposits increase from RMB 12 billion at the end of 2004 to RMB 603 billion at the end of 2012. Hong Kong now hosts the largest offshore RMB liquidity pool.

Fourth, the signing and implementation of CEPA closely connects Hong Kong economic booms with mainland China. In 2006, the inflow and outflow of Hong Kong’s foreign direct investment with the Mainland were HKD 108.7 billion and HKD 166.6 billion, compared to the two figures in 2003 which were only HKD 38 billion and HKD 59.9 billion. Fifth, Hong Kong works closely with the Mainland to provide cross-border payment links. The cross-border links facilitated more than 20,000 transactions between Hong Kong and two Mainland regions, Shenzhen and Guangdong in 2011 (HKMA, 2011). It allows safe and efficient payments in HKD and USD.

One commonly raised question on Hong Kong’s response to speculative attack is why Hong Kong did not just simply prohibit the conversion of the HKD to the USD to restrain speculation in the crisis. The answer is simple: to maintain Hong Kong’s status as the international financial centre. To quote an official from the HKMA: “Hong Kong had always been an international financial centre. We did not expect to control capital and damage this reputation, which takes a rather long time to establish (Yuen, 8 January 2013).” For this purpose, Hong Kong did not discourage the convertibility of the Hong Kong currency with fierce currency attacks.

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2 Data are from the Census and Statistics Department, Hong Kong SAR.
3.6 Mitigating the impact of the financial crisis

Financial crises impact adversely on the economy, especially in developing countries. Millions of people lost their jobs and were catapulted into poverty by the financial crises. To mitigate negative influences, experts propose preventive and responsive measures to future financial crises in Hong Kong and regional economies.

In an interview with Professor Tai Leung Chong, he stated that the best way to prevent a crisis is establishing a robust financial system. It is important to protect unsophisticated investors, and strengthen investors' confidence (Chong, 10 January 2013). In another interview, Professor Ho argued there are a lot of links in the global financial market. Problems on any link could spread to others. Therefore a future financial crisis is inevitable. What we can do is to make full preparation when the markets are calm. A set of well-designed tools are useful in responding to crisis (Ho, 10 January 2013). An interviewee in Australia, Professor Ligang Song, looks forward to the integration of mainland China and Hong Kong to mitigate risk. When the RMB becomes internationalised and China's capital account is convertible, many problems will be solved (Song, 14 November 2012). In a similar vein, Professor Jianping Ding attributed the occurrence of the AFC to inadequate banking supervision. He thinks administrative measures are necessary to cope with malicious speculation (Ding, 18 December 2012). In addition, another interviewee, Professor Thomas Hugh believes that creditability is extremely important to financial system. Hong Kong should work on strengthening its central bank regime, ensuring transparency, and not changing policies rapidly or when put under pressure (Hugh, 9 January 2013).

4. Conclusion

This paper has summarised the views of several informed commentators on Hong Kong's financial system and its interconnection with mainland China, explaining reasons how these linkages helped Hong Kong survive the AFC. The viewpoints of scholars and officials are presented and discussed regarding the performance of the HKMA, the importance of the currency board, influences from China, and its position as an international financial centre.

The key findings of the research presented in this paper are: (1) by maintaining the linked exchange rate regime during the crisis, Hong Kong was able to insure the certainty of the HKD, and thus provide economic stability in the face of a regional currency crisis; (2) the Hong Kong authority did not forbid currency convertibility to avoid damaging its position as a financial centre; (3) mainland China provided more moral support than specific measures to keep Hong Kong's economic and social stability; (4) to mitigate the adverse impact of a financial crisis, Hong Kong should closely work with mainland China and regional countries, enhance financial supervision, strengthen the central bank regime to maintain creditability.

In conclusion, Hong Kong was successful in defending against speculative activities and protecting the HKD without compromising its status as a financial centre. It stepped into the financial market with abundant foreign reserves and firm backing from China. Questions remain about the appropriate exchange rate regime for Hong Kong, and a possible and more efficient way to survive a financial crisis. Future studies could be conducted on alternative exchange rate system proposals for Hong Kong, and how to prevent future financial crises.

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The Framework for Restitution/Compensation Process in Albania

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Abstract

The property restitution legislation which is currently in force provided for the establishment of the State Committee on Property Restitution and Compensation, which was composed of politically nominated members of both majority and opposition parties, as well as the President’s office. The composition had to finally be approved and appointed by the Albanian Assembly. Commissions composed by the same rules were also foreseen at regional level. However, their structure was seen as an obstacle to the efficiency of the restitution process. Thus, in 2006, an amendment to the law provided for the replacement of the commissions with individual administrative institutions, namely the Property Restitution and Compensation Agency and its regional offices. Twelve such regional offices were in place up to January 2010, when a new amendment to the law abolished them. As from February 2010 only the central agency deals with the property restitution and compensation process. The Ministry of Justice and the institutions of the Prime Minister are in charge of the control and management of this agency, including the appointment of its leader. The organisation of the national agency is regulated by Decision 566/2006 of the Council of Ministers, on the organisation and functioning of the Property Restitution and Compensation Agency. Each regional agency has five to eleven employees who are now going to be transferred to the national agency in Tirana. However, the restructuring process still has a long way to go. The draft regulations for the central agency need to take into account a detailed consideration of the number of claims seeking a resolution, as well as the property restitution deadline which has been set for the end of 2011.

Keywords: property, restitution, legislation, compensation, process.

1. Introduction

The process of restitution and compensation of property in Albania started from the moment the communist regime vanished away in order to establish a pluralist regime that began with the recognition of property rights and free private initiative. The process of property restitution and compensation was an obligation that all properties expropriated subjects during the previous dictatorial regime should return to become even though this was not possible and compensation to owners.

The evolving process of property restitution and compensation is:

Adoption of Law No. 7698, dated 15.04.1993 "On restitution and compensation of property to former owners" and the creation of committees for restitution and compensation of property in the municipality of the former District Councils, given as recognition of the right competencies property restitution or compensation to the expropriated subjects.

Law no. 7698 was repealed, dated 15.04.1993 with the approval of Law no. 9235, 6129.7.2004 "On restitution and compensation of property" where the state committee was set restitution and compensation of property which functioned as a collegial body, together with local committees of return and compensation in circuit country.

In the period of 2009 the process of property restitution and compensation were hampered by reason of abolition of the regional offices of restitution and compensation of property in the counties where the procedural decisions on property restitution and compensation will be completed in the Albanian capital Tirana.

Period of 2011 marked the beginning application of a new form of compensation which was in cash compensation, but was partially applicable for limited period of time due to time criteria, the surface or the other criteria.
2. Law on restitution and compensation of immovable property

The right to property is provided in the Albanian Constitution of 1998 (Art. 41), which also set a deadline of two to three years, after its entry into force, for the Assembly to adopt laws for the just resolution of different issues related to expropriations and confiscations done before the approval of the Constitution (Art. 181.1). The Law on Restitution and Compensation, which is currently in force, was adopted in 2004, three years after the abovementioned deadline had passed (e.g. on 3.10.2002 in Resolution No.1 the Assembly requested the Special Committee for Property to speed up the drafting process), after OSCE had brought together the Socialist Party (SP), the Democratic Party (DP) and the Republican Party in a common technical working group on the draft law (Venice Commission 2004, OSCE Presence in Albania). The law was expected to provide for legal security by regulating property relationships in a final way. In the meantime, however, it has been amended four times.

3. Scope, objects and compensation criteria

The law establishes a preference for the return of immovable property (as defined in Art. 142 of the Civil Code), wherever return is possible. The property must either have been expropriated since 29.11.1944, or sequestrated on the basis of Art. 14 of Law No. 37 of 13.1.1945 on extraordinary tax for war profits and obtained after 7.4.1939 (Art. 4). Excluded from the scope of the law is agricultural land over 100 ha (60 ha before the 2006 amendment) (Art. 6.1). Immovable property that serves a public interest as defined in Art. 7 cannot be restituted; such interest constitutes inter alia the bulk of the cases of occupied property based on privatisation laws up to 1995 (as listed in Annex 1 of the law), which considerably restricts the scope of the restitution. However, the law explicitly includes land in tourist zones (Art. 6/1b). Property which is no longer used for a public purpose must be restituted to the former owner who has to pay back any compensation received (Art. 10). The restitution of movable property is left to regulation by another law (Art. 5).

The law restitutes agricultural land up to 100 ha, if the former owner did not profit from the Law on Land of 1991; otherwise, land or compensation gained in this context must be considered in the restitution (Art. 6/1a). A building site that has been transferred to third persons is restituted to the former owner, if no permanent buildings have been legally constructed on it, while the third person is given by the State the value of the purchase multiplied by the price increase index (Art. 8.1). If permanent and legal buildings owned by the State have been constructed on the site, different rules apply: if the buildings are no longer used for public purposes the State has to pay rent and the former owner has the right of the first purchase. If the state-owned buildings are legally used by third parties and the value of the investment is more than 150% of the value of the building site, the third party shall pay to the State within six months the value of the building site at the market price and the State shall pay the building site value to the former owner. Otherwise the building site is to be restituted to the latter, who has the right of the first purchase after expiration of the contract. If the investment is less than 150% of the value of the building site, the property is restituted to the former owner, who has the right of the first purchase (Art. 8/1).

Where restitution is not possible, the State compensates the former owners with (a) other immovable property of...
the same type of equal value in State ownership; (a/1) public immovable property located in zones with tourism development as priority; (b) other immovable property of any type of equal value in State ownership; (c) shares in companies with State capital or where the State is co-owner with a value equal to the immovable property; (g) the value of objects that are subject to the process of privatisation; or (d) money exempt from fees and taxes (Art. 11). The immovable property used for compensation may be located outside the administrative-territorial borders of the region of the original immovable property (Art. 12).

The value of the property that is compensated according to this law is calculated on the basis of the market value in accordance with the methodology proposed by the PRCA and approved by a decision of the Assembly (Art. 13.2)⁹. The valuation of the property is done by an expert group consisting of experienced and specially qualified persons in the fields of law, economics and engineering and established by the Regional Office (Art. 13.1). Regarding immovable property occupied by the State, the former owners have the right of the first purchase, to be detailed in sub-legal acts of the Council of Ministers and registered in the Office for the Registration of Immovable Property (Art. 14). Any restitution or compensation gained, based on another law, must be considered (Art. 6.3).

Religious communities have the same rights as private individuals in matters of property restitution or compensation. However, before the amendment of 2006 which extended the size of the property to be restituted to 100 ha, the religious communities questioned the law's limitation on property restitution to 150 acres (approximately 56 ha)¹⁰.

4. The Complex Legal Framework

4.1 Property restitution

The legal situation governing immovable property in Albania is very complex. One of the reasons for this is that restitution legislation rather reflects the political orientation of the government in power, which tends to take into consideration the interests of either the pre-1945 owners (former owners) or the new (post-1991) owners. Since the first post-communist elections in 1991, in which the SP won a majority of votes, there have been three changes in government (1992 democratic majority, 1997 socialist one, 2005 again democratic).

Restitution of immovable property cannot be granted, if the property on which buildings have been illegally constructed is involved in the legalisation process, until the legal time-limitations for the legalisation of buildings in informal zones and other informal objects located within formal territories have expired (see for a definition of these terms in the annex); however, the former owner can opt for compensation (Art. 28/1.1 of the Law on Restitution and Compensation of 2004). This restriction does not apply to immovable properties which have been put by the State at the disposal of third parties by leasing, emphyteose or concession, etc., regardless of the improvements or buildings constructed on them (Art. 28/1.2 of the Law on Restitution and Compensation 2004). Basically, the Law on Legalisation of 2004¹¹ created the possibility to legalise illegal constructions. The property of the land on which the building was put up was transferred against payment, payment in instalments or given into lease for a determined time period to the owner of the building, if the land was owned by the State. If it was owned by a private person, the transfer should be done according to the Civil Code. If a transfer was not realised, the owner of the land should be compensated according to the Law on Restitution and Compensation 2004 (Art. 10). In addition, another law¹² provided for the legalisation of additions to buildings.

These laws were abrogated and replaced by the Law on Legalisation of 2006,¹³ which allowed for the declaration of illegal constructions within 60 days after its entry into force; otherwise they were to be demolished (Art. 7). Following a lengthy procedure, the Council for Territorial Adjustment of the Republic of Albania issues a permit, which is registered in the cadastre (Arts. 11, 15). If there already exists a registration of the former owner, he or she is compensated by other...

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⁹ To this respect, the Assembly adopted Decision No. 183 of 28.4.2005 on the methodology of land evaluation, which determines the value of agricultural, urban and tourist land as well as buildings on the land; before the Constitutional Court had required that in compensating third persons the market value must be applied (Decision No. 12 of 21.3.2000).


¹¹ Law No. 9304 of 28.10.2004 on the legalisation and urbanisation of informal zones.

¹² Law No. 9209 of 23.3.2004 on the legalisation of additions to buildings.

¹³ Law No. 9482 of 3.4.2006 on the legalisation, urbanisation and integration of illegal constructions, as amended.
land or money (Art. 15.2)\textsuperscript{14}. There are draft amendments\textsuperscript{15}, which were returned to the Assembly for re-examination by the President of the Republic on 29.4.2008\textsuperscript{16}. Subsequently, they were discussed in the Parliamentary Committee for Economy; however, on 3.6.2008 the Assembly lacked the necessary majority to adopt the amendments, as the SP did not attend the Parliament session in protest that many of its proposals, such as those intended to avoid a curtailment of the competencies of the local authorities, had not been taken into account by the DP in the draft\textsuperscript{17}. The draft amendments were adopted on 9.6.2008, as the DP reached 71 votes, while there were 15 votes against. It is reported that the amendments leave the local government units only two months to carry out the qualification of illegal constructions\textsuperscript{18}.

Another reason why property cannot be restituted can be found in the privatisation process, which allegedly has been marked by irregularities. In peri-urban areas, new large-scale residential settlements appeared in the early 1990s due to the massive internal migration that took place at that time. Formally, private buildings were built on public land with no legal title. However, the residents have papers from transactions in the early 1990s that took place as the central Government was overwhelmed by the speed of internal migration between 1991 and 1994. The privatisation of agricultural land without payment, e.g. according to the Law on Land of 1991, must be verified by the Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Protection\textsuperscript{19}.

Directly linked to the privatisation process, the process of registration of a piece of land in the cadastre constitutes a further impediment to restitution. As the first registration has proceeded to develop accurate maps and surveys, an extremely complex and fragmented pattern of rural and urban land holdings has been revealed. Land fragmentation hinders the application of civil law, functioning of markets and the practical use of land and property. Urban fragmentation arises from the standards of measurement applied in housing privatisation and restitution. Land parcels accompanying individual houses are limited to 300 square meters. For apartment buildings, land parcels have been created directly underneath the buildings and extending one meter from the outer walls. In both cases, the land surrounding the house or building is kept in State ownership, despite the fact that the occupants use these areas. Similarly, in many cases of restitution, a house or building and its underlying land are separated from the surrounding land, which is transferred to the former owner.

The Law on Property Registration\textsuperscript{20} provides that the Office for the Registration of Immovable Property registers the titles and other real rights on the basis of legal documents that prove the ownership (Art. 2/1). The registration is refused, if it overlaps with another property right which was registered earlier, until the issue has been resolved by the courts (Art. 27). Before recent amendments, the law established a presumption for certain documents, without considering the fact that some of these might have been falsified or issued as a result of bribery\textsuperscript{21}.

Consequently, former workers have taken land under their ownership, although deprived of any relevant documentation, before the issuance of the relative legislative acts. Meanwhile, for the former owners of agricultural land the procedures were longer. At the time of the first land distribution, the former workers had taken under their ownership documentation, before the issuance of the relative legislative acts. Meanwhile, for the former owners of agricultural land the procedures were longer. At the time of the first land distribution, the former workers had taken under their ownership documentation, before the issuance of the relative legislative acts.

14 The evaluation procedure depends on the use of the construction and is explained in Art. 17.2. See, however, also Venice Commission 2007, p. 22
17 See 'Shtyhet dekreti për legalizimet, mungojnë deputetët e djathtë', F. Braushi, Shekulli, 3 June 2008 08:08:00, at http://www.shekulli.com.al. A boycott of Parliament as a means of expressing discontent with and distrust of the policies of the governing party is not unknown to Albanian politics; for example, following the adoption of the Constitution in 1998 by an SP dominated Parliament, the DP embarked on a boycott, which however was ended in the context of the Kosovo crisis.
18 Then they prepare (in cooperation with the Regional Offices of the Agency of Legalisation, Urbanisation and Integration of Informal Zones /Constructions) the data of the buildings without permit, based on digital aerial photos and on the divisions of the cadastre. Also, the law will include timelines, which provide, first, for the realisation of the process of compensation and, then, for the legalisation. After verification whether the land is registered as the property of third persons, the Agency forwards to the Government for decision the list for the compensation of the legal owners. Then the legalisation is carried out. See Kuvend, miratohet projektligi për legalizimet, Shekulli 9 qershor/ ora 20.05, http://www.shekulli.com.al/news/101/ARTICLE/26895/2008-06-09.html.
19 Art. 28/2.1 of the Law on Restitution and Compensation 2004.
20 Law No. 7843 of 13.7.1994 on property registration, as amended.
21 ‘The ownership must be considered as determined by the ownership documents according to Law No. 7501 of 19.7.1991, privatisation contracts based on Law No. 7652 of 23.12.1992, decisions of restitution commissions according to Law No. 7698 of 15.4.1993.'
but it still remains a conflictual issue until today.

Only the agrarian families that live in the countryside benefited from the provisions of the Law on Land of 1991, while the families that possessed agricultural land before 1944, but actually live in towns, did not benefit at all of the law. The same happened with the former big land owners. Moreover, the former owners of land, which once formed part of agricultural land owned by the State, would enjoy the right of compensation in kind from the implementation of the Law on Land of 1991. In order to regulate this category, a Decision of the Council of Ministers\textsuperscript{22} was approved in 1992: it provided that agricultural land sequestrated in order to create farms should be distributed to the former owners, under the condition, however, that these families live in the town or district where the farm was located.

4.2 Compensation

The process of compensation is considered a failure, due to the absolute lack of the necessary sub-legal acts that define the ways, procedures and regulations of the compensation. These acts were never passed, except from certain acts that regulate compensation issues for coastal areas or other tourist zones that in reality were used mostly for abusive reasons (political/economic interests and corruption) than for solving the problem itself.

According to a certain opinion, the lack of sub-legal acts led to the implementation of the compensation process only in exceptional cases, connected with personal interests of certain “vip” individuals, members of Restitution and Compensation Property Commissions, etc. In these cases, the compensation took place in kind (land), whereas other forms of compensation (stocks etc) were never implemented. Therefore, the majority of former owners, even though they have been holding for many years the favourable decisions of the respective commissions, have never benefited from any form of compensation.

Another important question is the illegally constructed buildings. In certain zones of the periphery of Tirana as well as in other urban centres, entire districts have been created in this way. These buildings have been constructed on State and on private land. The private land was restituted to the former owners with the decisions of the Commissions on the property restitution and it was registered as such at the Registration Offices. However, this land never returned under the possession of the former owners, because it was illegally occupied and covered with buildings.

After the approval of the Law on Legalisation, all these illegal buildings will be legalised in favour of the constructors. According to legal procedures, the land where buildings have been illegally constructed will change ownership from the former owner to the constructor, whereas the former owner will be compensated. However, until today, no sub-legal act or any concrete and detailed procedure has been issued. Moreover, there are no provisions on the form, value and time of the compensation to be given to former owners, whose properties have been occupied with illegal buildings.

Issues related to property restitution and compensation.

- Approval of delayed property restitution policies;
- Uncertain and unpredictable policy for the return of property;
- Weak institutional capacity to implement the policy;
- Appearance of conflict of rights on the same property;
- Inefficient compensation systems.

5. Recomendation

We should continue to use the traditional monitoring mechanisms and conditionality systems to assess the extent to which the state has implemented policies to address the issue of property restitution. In this process the state should not limit its assessment to the review of legislation, but should also request concrete action plans with clear benchmarks, budgetary allocations and responsible institutions, once the national governments adopted a law. In other words, the state cannot impose a solution on this society, but once such a solution is agreed by the legitimate authorities of the state, it can request that the government and the administration do not undermine the policy through implementation flaws.

\textsuperscript{22} Decision of Council of Ministers no. 452/17.10.1992, as amended by Decision of Council of Ministers no. 161/08.04.1993 “on the Restructuration of Agricultural Farms”.

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This would be a good strategy aware of a well-known phenomenon: it is often easier for the national voters and the public to make the government embrace the broad principles of a policy, and even to adopt a law, but much more difficult to monitor their bureaucratic implementation. External monitoring on the administrative performance in this field, as well as the performance and fairness of other structures, such as the judiciary, which play a role in the process of property restitution, may be an important contribution to an increased level of accountability in that country, and thus a tool to improve the quality of governance. On the particular case of property restitution, the solutions do not come without significant costs (which in any case would be lower if restitution in kind would be the solution adopted by the countries). In this context the state EU may explore together with other actors of society a mechanism for financing such costs in a manner which is both practical and morally acceptable. Various arrangements may be considered, from linking restitution with the privatization process, to mutual funds, selling of state assets, special purpose loans, etc. Due consideration must also be given to the implications for the national budgetary deficit likely to be impacted.

Several problems stood out in relation to private property issues, such as:

- the lack of transparency and accuracy in legal provisions on property rights, which has favoured the development of corrupt practices across the sector;
- the large proportion of all claims brought to the People’s Advocate which concern potential breaches of property rights;
- the lack of progress regarding the restitution of religious communities’ property;
- the delay in the completion of immovable property records;
- the lack of an inventory of public land to be used in the restitution process;
- the lack of transparency and the inefficiency of the land legalisation process, despite assigning an increasing number of personnel to work on it;
- the inefficient results of the agency for the control of property titles, whose activity led to delays in transactions on the real estate market;
- the lack of development of a stable real estate market, due to private property rights issues.

6. Conclusion

The efficient development of the restitution process faces several obstacles. A report of the Property Restitution and Compensation Agency issued in October 2009 for the use of the Prime Minister’s office shows that the Agency had taken no decisions after the 1st of July 2009, since the deadline stated in the law had not yet been postponed. This means that besides new claims the AKKP will have to provide an answer to pending claims the administrative investigation of which has not yet been finalized. Usually claims are still pending due to missing documents or procedural mistakes which impeded or delayed the adoption of a final decision. However, human resources are not available to speed up the process or support better communication to beneficiaries. Actually, the number of requests is already too large for the current administration to handle. Thus, it is highly recommended for the next phase of the process to look into ways in which more human resources could be allocated to its management. This should be part of a larger process focused on raising the administrative capacity of the institutions that implement the restitution process.

The lack of personnel is reflected in the number of judicial appeals on property restitution issues. As noted above, only one third of all appeals were dealt with, and that reflects a low capacity, to a large extent due to the lack of trained personnel. This issue needs to be addressed by future reform plans.

Making the process of evaluation of restitution claims more efficient is crucial, since unsolved claims end up in judicial courts. As mentioned earlier, between August and October 2009, 187 lawsuits were initiated against the Agency’s decisions. Even though the State Advocate is the competent institution to defend in a court of law the property of the state or the legality of decisions made by its institutions, the Agency has to have its own legal representation. Thus, the demand for highly trained staff increases even more.

The change of political power directly affects the institutional setup designed to ensure property restitution. The employees of the Agency do not enjoy civil servant status. Thus, they can be replaced once the party in power changes. This is the situation of the leadership position of the Agency, which has been occupied by four different people in five years. Allegations of corruption, as well as political changes, have led to their replacement. The changes in the statute and structure of the Agency also generate ambiguity, making the institution as a whole highly unstable.

Further, the decisions of the Agency have related only to the restitution of property rights accompanied by cash compensation. As mentioned before, a property fund out of which compensation in kind could be made does not yet exist. Five years after the adoption of the current law on restitution and compensation, despite additional legal acts that aimed
at clarifying the procedure, restitution in kind had never been made.

According to the law, property used in the public interest cannot be returned to its owners. This required initial registration of immovable property that could be used for restitution all over the country. The Albanian Assembly took a recent decision to verify property titles, including those belonging to the State. The institution in charge identified a high level of uncertainty related to registered titles, including the ones in state ownership. Thus, setting up a Property Fund based on the records of the Immovable Property Registration Office is not quite legally secure.

A yearly fund for cash compensation was included in the state budget. For 2009 this fund reached 10 million Euros and it was used to cover compensations for 211 of the 521 owners who had their property rights restored that year.

The compensation process is made according to the distribution of the claimed land across the value maps of the Agency. These maps need to be continually updated by the final compensation deadline in 2015. Considering the dynamics of the real estate market and of the number of filled and solved claims, the budget needed to cover compensation can be expected to grow. The government should take that into consideration for the elaboration of the national yearly budget.

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The Sovietization of Romania. Case-study: The Collectivization of Agriculture

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Abstract

The present study entitled "The Sovietization of Romania. Case-study: the collectivization of agriculture" drawing on Romanian archive documentation and specialized literature proposes to reveal, based on processes and facts the main similarities and the minor differences existing between the institutional mechanisms involved in the collectivization of the Romanian agriculture and the Soviet model. In this attempt, by way of comparison I will analyse the Soviet model of Socialist transformation in agriculture against the Romanian one.

1. The beginnings of Sovietization in Central and Eastern Europe

As World War II was drawing to an end the relations between the three allies (the United States, Great Britain and the USSR) were growing increasingly tense, their rivalry leading eventually to the out-break of the Cold War. And yet, in 1945 the relations between the “Big Three” did not seem to anticipate such course of events. In February 1945 in Yalta they adopted the “Declaration on Liberated Europe” which stated that all territories previously under German control would have democratic elections. Later on, in July-August 1945 in Potsdam the allies also decided that the countries located in the geographical proximity of the USSR would have democratic governments and adopt a friendly behavior towards the USSR.1 In retrospect, one can say that the Soviets disregarded completely the agreements reached in Yalta and Potsdam.

The dissolution of the Comintern in 1943 was a measure taken by the Soviets in order to deceive Great Britain and the USA. In reality, the Kremlin was eager to engage in the Sovietization of Central and Eastern Europe, while keeping relations inside the “Big Three” group on good terms. Although the Comintern had been dissolved its tasks were taken over by the Department of International Information (Otdel Myezhdunarodnoi Informatzii).2 On the other hand, preserving the alliance of the “Big Three” was vital for the USSR as it had suffered important material and human losses (30 million dead, thousands of kilometers of roads and railways destroyed, tens of thousands of cities and villages ruined etc.) in World War II.3 In order to recover economically, not only did the USSR need financial assistance from its Western allies, but it had to win the British and the Americans on its side and press for heavy postwar reparations from Germany (as most of the German industry was located in the Allied occupation zones).4 The Soviet archives provide evidence as to the fact that decision-makers in the Kremlin called for continuous cooperation inside the “Big Three” alliance even after the war ended.5 At the same time, the USSR would carry further its plan to gain control over the Central and Eastern Europe

4 Ibidem
5 Vladimir O. Pechatnov analysed five memoranda addressed to V. Molotov by Ivan Maisky (“Maisky’s Memo”, 10 January, 1944), Maxim Litvinov (“On the Relationship with the USA” 10 January 1945; “On the Prospects and the Basis of Soviet-British Cooperation”, 15 November 1944; “On the Question of Blocs and Spheres of Influences”, 11 January 1945) and Andrei Gromîko (“On the Question of Soviet-American Relations”, 11 July 1944). A comparison of the five documents revealed a few common traits: the need to guarantee the security of the USSR; preserve the cooperation between the Big Three; create a ‘Great Powers concert’ based on “specific” share of the spheres of influence; the conviction that an Anglo-American antagonism will emerge. With respect to this matter, see Vladimir O. Pechatnov, The Big Three After World War II: New Documents on Soviet Thinking about Post War Relations with The United States and Great Britain, Working Paper, No. 13, Cold War International History Project, Washington DC, May 1995, pp.1-17
countries. The Soviet Department of International Information adopted the provisions laid down by the Comintern in the so-called National Front Strategy and made slight additions so as not to raise suspicions from the Americans and the British. The National Front Strategy had planned to create national fronts in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe consisting of representatives of the workers, the peasants, the intellectuals and the “small bourgeoisie”. The mission of the national fronts was to promote a political vision urging for reforms in agriculture (aimed at gaining the sympathy of the peasantry) and for setting up a “mixed” economy which involved the nationalization of large industries and the survival of small private businesses. The latter was intended by the Kremlin in order to gain support from the “small bourgeoisie”.6

Eventually, the National Front Strategy proved to be sterile as non-communist leaders openly refuted participation in government coalitions dominated by the Communists.7 Faced with this failure, the decision-makers in the Kremlin decided to set up fraudulent elections in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and enforce the rule of “people’s democracies” in this geographical area.8 But this decision had a negative impact on the relations between the “Big Three” which began to worsen progressively, leading to a Cold War between the former allies. The newly created “people’s democracies”, imposed by the Soviets in Europe, copied ad-litteram the Soviet political, economic, cultural and social model.

2. Enforcing collectivization in Romania

The collectivization of the Romanian agriculture was launched at the Plenary of the Central Committee (CC) of the Romanian Workers’ Party (RWP) on March 3-5, 1949 as a simulation of the collectivization pursued by the Soviet Union. Firm evidence in this respect was the transplantation and enforcement of institutions specific of the collectivization from the Soviet Union into the Romanian People’s Republic (RPR). Hence, the Soviet kolkhoz (collective farm) equaled a collective agricultural farm (Gospodăria Agricolă Colectivă) in the RPR; the Soviet sovkhoz (state farm) equaled the Romanian state agricultural farm (Gospodăria Agricolă de Stat); the Soviet TOZ were adopted and developed as agricultural associations of peasants (întovârășini) in Romania; the Soviet MTS (mashinno-traktornia stantsiia) equaled the Romanian machine and tractor stations (SMT – Stațiuni De Mașini Și Tractoare).9

According to Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej, the Romanian communist leader, at that time the enforcement of the Soviet institutional model in the Romanian agriculture was absolutely necessary because, he argued, the “Soviet agriculture based on collective agricultural farming is the most productive in the world” and the transition to the ‘great agriculture’ – the Socialist one – must follow the same pattern:

“Comrade Stalin has shown us that there are two ways: one is the capitalist and leads to the impoverishment of the poor and middle-range peasantry … and the other one is the Socialist – it’s the path to the unification of small and medium-size individual households into large collective farms, in other words it represents a communion of the poor and middle-range peasants in a common effort, the collective labor in view of raising the material and cultural living of the hard working people. Of course, between the two options, the Socialist path in agriculture is the only one which serves the goals of the working class and the interests of the poor and middle-range peasantry.”10

State farms, the so-called sovkhoz, took shape in the USSR since the time of the civil war – although in a small number – on the former properties of Russian landlords.11 In Romania, the Administration of the Agricultural, Zoo technical, Industrial and Fieldwork Machine Capital (Regia Exploatațiilor Agricole, Zootehnice, Industriale și de Mașini agricole (REAZIM)) was set up in 1946 and one year later transformed into the Administration of State Farms and Machine Stations (Administrația Fermelor de Stat și a Stațiunilor de Mașini (AFSM)). In the fall of 1948 the AFSM was reorganized into two separate units: the state agricultural farms (Gospodăriile Agricole de Stat – GAS) and the machine and tractor stations (Stațiunile de Mașini și Tractoare – SMT). The split between the two units was a measure which

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6 Eduard Mark, op.cit., pp.17-19
7 Ibidem, p.39
anticipated the beginning of collectivization of the Romanian agriculture pursued by the Communist regime in 1949.\(^\text{12}\)

According to archive evidence, on April 11, 1949 in Romania there were 693 state agricultural farms (GAS)\(^\text{13}\) meant to “become model farm which would convince the working peasantry of the superiority of the Socialist agriculture over the private fragmented agriculture, to act as strong agriculture development centers providing the collective farms, the agricultural associations and the working peasants with selected seeds, to experiment new plant varieties and new labor methods in agriculture, to breed cattle for reproduction, as well as to provide the market with the agricultural produce and the industry with raw materials”\(^\text{14}\). For these reasons, the Romanian communist regime believed that these new collective farms would have to “enforce the Soviet agro technical and zoo technical norms and apply the precious experience of the sovkhoz”\(^\text{15}\). At the same time, by recognizing the “invaluable help from the Soviet Union”, the support of the RWP, and the efforts of the GOSTAT workers, in 1949 the Romanian communist regime admitted that the state agricultural farms (GAS) were “the most important Socialist element in agriculture”.\(^\text{16}\) It is interesting to see how the workers in the sovkhoz and in the GAS were remunerated: while a sovkhoz member gained minimum wage without receiving any agricultural produce or profit share from the sale of these products\(^\text{17}\), in the Romanian state agricultural household the social relations were based on labor contracts which stated that the employees were remunerated “according to the Socialist principle based on wage and material joint interest”.\(^\text{18}\) It is worth noting that the organization of the collective agricultural farms in Romania which simulated the Soviet sovkhoz received significant support from the Soviet counselors from the Romanian Ministry of Agriculture.\(^\text{19}\)

In 1948, 87 machine and tractor stations (SMT) were set up in Romania.\(^\text{20}\) It is worth noting that in 1949 one SMT owned on average 39 tractor ploughs, 44 agricultural tractors (15 horse power each) and 31 threshing machines.\(^\text{21}\) Similar to the state agricultural farms (GAS), the SMT had a well defined role, as stated in archive documents:

“The machine and tractor stations have the role to introduce advanced technologies in agriculture, to pull the working peasantry from under the rule of the chiaburi [kulaks] and to persuade them of the superiority of mechanical farming on large areas of arable land, thus stimulating and assisting them in setting up agricultural associations and collective farms, by providing them with proper mechanical tools and practical agro technical advice; the SMT must provide permanent multilateral assistance and consolidate the collective farms economically, and support the different forms of peasant associations in view of transforming them into collective farms.”\(^\text{22}\)

Referring back to the Soviet model, a decree issued on November 2, 1918 had ordered the creation of three types of collective farms besides the sovkhoz: the TOZ, the ARTEL and the COMMUNE.\(^\text{23}\) Thus, unlike the so called “backward individual farms” specific of the Tsarist era, the collective farms (kulkhoz) were considered superior institutions consisting of three evolution stages: the TOZ (Tovarischestvo po sovmestnoi obrabotke zemli) was mainly an association in which land was collective property toiled by its members in common, and the produce they received was proportional to the size of the arable land they brought in the collective farm; the ARTEL marked the transition from the TOZ to the COMMUNE: the members shared the labor of the land although private property was formally recognised, and the means of production were collectively-owned; the COMMUNE (Kommuna) was a superior form of organisation of the Soviet agriculture in which everything was collective property, including goods, land and produce, the latter being shared equally


\(^{13}\) The National Central Historical Archives (ANIC), Fond CC al PCR – Sectia Agrară, dos. 1/1949, ff.1-3

\(^{14}\) ANIC, Fond CC al PCR – Sectia Agrară, dos. 45/1952, f. 3

\(^{15}\) Ibidem

\(^{16}\) ANIC, Fond CC al PCR – Sectia Agrară, dos. 65/1949, f. 14


\(^{18}\) Ernest Lupan, Drept colectivist agricol, Editura Didactică și Pedagogică, București, 1964, p. 42

\(^{19}\) For a more detailed perspective of the GAS, see Nicoleta Ionescu-Gură, Stalinizarea României. Republica Populară Română: 1948-1950: transformări instituționale, BIC ALL, București, 2005, pp. 509-526

\(^{20}\) Octavian Roske, „Radiografia unui eșec. Colectivizarea agriculturii în România”, in Ruxandra Ivan (coordinator), „Transformarea socialistă”: politici ale regimului comunist între ideologie și administrație, Polirom, Iași, 2009, p. 87

\(^{21}\) Ibidem

\(^{22}\) ANIC, Fond CC al PCR – Sectia Agrară, dos. 45/1952, f. 3

between members.24

As for the process of collectivization in Romania, the agricultural associations of peasants (întovârâșin) were set up in line with the 1952 model-statute which stated that “land would be to worked in shared custody using the tractors and machines provided by the SMT, the cattle and agricultural inventory would be used rationally, and advanced agro technical methods involving deep ploughing, the use of selected conditioned seeds and fertilizers, and fighting weeds and pests would be introduced” (article 2).25 Members would submit all arable land owned or only part of it without losing property over this land. Instead, the individual plots were merged into larger fields. The livestock and the farm tools would remain in the patrimony of the peasants, although most of the fieldwork was carried out in common. However, the income was split between members according to the size of the land submitted to the association by each individual.26

In this context the propaganda carried out by the Scânteia newspaper (“organ of the Central Committee of the RWP”) referring to the creation of agricultural associations of peasants (întovârâșin) was illustrative:

„[...]

[...]

... it has an important role in consolidating the alliance between the working class and the working peasantry because it is a form of support provided by the working class to the poor and middle-range peasants, in order to liberate themselves from the economic rule of the chiburi, to use the state’s tractors and machines and to improve their living standards”.27

In the same logic of the transplantation and enforcement of the collectivization institutions in Romania were created the agricultural production cooperatives with rente (CAP). Unlike the agricultural associations of peasants, article 3 of the model-statute stated that “the members of the CAP would submit the entire land owned by themselves and by family members, as well as any piece of land they might obtain afterwards through inheritance, donation or by any other means, except for the land under the house, the household appendices and the yard, and for 20-30 ares of land which remained in their property.”28 However, article 4 stated that the entire land submitted to the CAP would remain in the patrimony of its members. According to article 5, CAP members were supposed to pool all their livestock and farm inventory together in the CAP. Fieldwork would be performed collectively (article 12) and once the cooperative paid all financial dues, “at least 75% of the remaining cash income would be split between members in proportion to the number of workdays and up to 25% according to the size, the quality and the usage of the land submitted” (articles 18 and 19).29 Thus, the CAP was an inferior institution as compared to the collective household, and yet superior to the agricultural associations of peasants.30

In the Soviet kolkhoz, which inspired the creation of the Romanian collective agricultural farms (GAC), the 1935 model-statute stated that the land remained permanently under the control of the kolkhoz, although its members were allowed to own a small piece of land to ensure their subsistence. Also, the members of the kolkhoz could rent the horses used in the kolkhoz in order to work their own land. Hence, the 1935 statute legalized private property over small pieces of land.31 The Romanian GAC was considered a “superior form of cooperation in agricultural production”, more evolved than the agricultural associations of peasants and the CAP32. According to article 4 of the 1949 model-statute, the GAC members had to submit their land to the collective patrimony of the GAC: “each peasant household joining the GAC would own a land around the house to be used as yard, garden, vineyard or orchard no larger than ...... hectares for personal use. (Considering local specificities, the size could vary between 1/4 and 1/2 excluding the area covered by
buildings, and up to 1 hectare in regions with plenty of arable land (article 5). Article 4 of the model-statute adopted by Decision no. 1650/1953 of the Council of Ministers stated that „GAC members would submit all arable land to the collective patrimony of the GAC” and, according to article 5, “each member of the GAC would own 20-30 ares of land to be used as yard, garden or orchard, excluding the area covered by buildings.” Also, members were forced to submit their livestock and farm inventory, with a few exceptions (articles 7 and 8).

At the beginning of forced collectivization in the USSR, the members of the Soviet kolkhoz were not remunerated according to the workday system. Instead, after the kolkhoz had submitted the quotas to the centre, paid the SMT and put aside the seed reserve for the following year, each family would receive a quota share in proportion to the number of family members. The remuneration per workday was introduced in 1931. However, this system did not use weekdays as reference. Article 26 of the 1953 model-statute laid down the provisions concerning remuneration for labor in the Romanian GAC:

“Fieldwork in collective farms will be carried out based on agreement. Observing the recommendations put forward by the Minister of Agriculture, the Board of the GAC will submit for approval to the general assembly the labor norms for all types of fieldwork and their evaluation in terms of workdays”. Also, “the split of income between the members of the collective household is based exclusively on the number of workdays performed by each individual” (article 27).

3. Conclusion

In conclusion, the Soviet model of agricultural collectivization was taken over almost ad-litteram by the Romanian authorities. The minor differences which defined the two models were determined by local specificities.

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33 ANIC, Fond CC al PCR – Sectia Agrară, dos. 16/1949, ff. 1-2
34 Collection of decisions and provisions of the Council of Ministers of the Romanian People's Republic (further on, CHD), no. 39, 18 June 1953, pp. 751-753
35 See Lynne Viola, op. cit., pp. 207-208; Sheila Fitzpatrick, Stalin's Peasants: resistance and survival in the Russian village after collectivization, p.190
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Public Spots as a Neoliberal Governmental Risk Strategy in Contemporary Turkey

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Abstract
In recent years, Turkish audience has been increasingly exposed to a new media product called ‘public spots’. These are less than a minute short clips produced on issues (such as health, security, social solidarity, and environment) that the Turkish state (and its governmental apparatus) finds crucial to ‘inform’ and ‘educate’ the public. Whilst the content and scope of these clips are varied, the thread that weaves them is the goal of improving public awareness on potential risks of life. As such, these clips point to a new relationship that the Turkish state aspires to form with the public. In this article, we rely on the literature on neoliberal governmentality, and its core concept, ‘indirect governance’, to understand the fabric of this relationship. We use three aspects of indirect governance, i.e. ‘attribution of responsibility to the individual’, ‘development of precautionary measures’, and ‘generalization of population’, to discuss the changing nature of state-society relations in contemporary Turkey.

Keywords: public spots, state, risk, neoliberal governmentality, Turkey

1. Introduction
Public spots are short media clips (around 45 seconds) aired pro bono during commercial breaks on national and local TV channels as well as the radio. They need to be accredited by the RTÜK (Radio and Television Supreme Council) to be named as such and to enjoy the privileges of being exempt from high commercial fees. Whilst most of them are produced by public institutions (that are ministries and directorates working in collaboration with advertising agencies), lately NGOs have also joined this trend.

Ever since the first appearance of public spots in 2008, they have flourished so much so that almost all areas of life have been made into a public spot due to the efforts to ‘inform and educate the public’. Even the celebrities are now lining to take part in public spots voluntarily. Virtually everyday Turkish public is exposed to new public spots. Their topics cover a wide array of issues including, but not limited to, hospital services, street children, traffic rules, mugging, efficient energy use, Internet abuse of children, vaccination, promotion of family and social solidarity, occupational accidents and safety, obesity, equality for women, smoking, senior and disabled services, domestic violence, Alzheimer, food safety and hygiene, herbal medicine, child labor, and autism. As such, public spots have been over-abundantly haunting the visual and audial culture of contemporary Turkey. Despite this, there has yet to be a scholarly work on their short but prolific lifespans.

In this article, we aim to fill this gap but we do not specifically engage in analyzing the public spots in and of themselves. Rather, we use them as a heuristic tool in exploring the changing nature of state-society relations, specifically those that are constructed through the mediation of risk in contemporary Turkey. We will particularly navigate the questions of how state positions itself in relation to risks, which aspects of life it sees as both causing and being affected by risks, and which risks it selects to warn individuals to be cautious about. It is in light of these questions that we delve into the public spots. They are crucial in showing how the state deploys itself and the individual according to
those aspects of life that it considers risky and to whom it attributes the responsibility of taking precaution to avert these risks.

In what follows, we use neoliberal governmentality\(^1\) as our guiding framework and primarily discuss indirect governance (or governance at a distance) as its core concept when analyzing risk as the newly arising intermediary element in contemporary Turkey’s state-society relations. Then, accompanying the analysis of several public spots on health and security aired on national TV, we explore the ways indirect governance works through them. We close by discussing how public spots work as a guideline for responsibilized individuals on approaching risks of life with a precautionary attitude.

2. Risk, Neoliberal Governmentality, and Indirect Governance

For nearly three decades, there has been a significant increase in the studies concerning risk, largely owing to Ulrick Beck’s 1986 book, *Risikogesellschaft*. Following its translation into English in 1992 as *Risk Society*, it induced numerous scholarly debates predominantly remaining within, but not limited to the disciplines of sociology, anthropology, political science, and international relations. Beck (1992), in his work, claimed that late modern societies are in the process of transforming into risk societies. Late modernity, characterized by a “proliferation of frequently incalculable industrial and technological hazards” (Dean, 2007: 65), refers to an era where risks multiply rapidly and thus become inescapable and routinized features of social life. Beck’s work has been both celebrated and criticized by many. The latest criticisms, largely drawing upon Foucauldian approaches to risk that can be grouped under the rubric of neoliberal governmentality, place Beck within a realist tradition and argue that any such realist position reduces risks to their quantitative arrangement and assigns them ontological status. In the oncoming discussions we will proceed alongside this particular perspective’s conceptualization of risk, which alternatively posits it as a tactic, strategy, technique and/or a form of governance and studies the multiple ways in which risks are calculated, administered, overseen, and taken care of (Joseph, 2012: 14).

Scholars studying risk from the perspective of neoliberal governmentality acknowledge that in contemporary societies, or in today’s neoliberal states, risk governance proceeds by indirect rather than direct methods – the latter being associated with governance strategies of welfare states. Among many characteristics that define indirect governance of risk or risk governance at a distance, in this article we will focus on what we consider the three most defining and pivotal of all, i.e. attribution of responsibility to the individual, development of precautionary measures, and generalization of population.

As an example of direct governance, welfare states largely assume the responsibility of their citizen’s wellbeing, regulating their lives by foreseeing risks and duly taking preventive measures to avert them. Under neoliberal governmentality, however, neoliberal state’s indirect governance gently situates responsibility of managing risks onto the care of the individual herself/himself, cautioning her/him to take measures for her/his wellbeing. Here, risks are defined one by one and techniques of dealing with them are arranged and deployed at the individual level. Depending upon this, it can be said that neoliberal governmentality both individualizes risks and positions individuals accordingly, paving the way to the responsibilization of individuals (Rose, 1999; Dean, 1999; Lemke, 2002; Guthman, 2008). Wearing responsibility brings self-governance along with it. In other words, under neoliberal states risks relate to individual’s self-knowledge, self-control, self-improvement (Manzenreiter, 2012: 62) as well as self-empowerment (Guthman, 2009: 1024-25).

Seeing risks as external impositions on life, welfare state aims to prevent already identified and calculated risks, i.e. it deals with those risks it deems certain. Through direct governance it acts upon those issues it knows of (and have previously established) as risks via selection, classification and hierarchization aimed at determining the high/low probability of the occurrence of their dangers. Yet, whereas welfare state handles already determined risks, neoliberal state concerns itself with their potentiality. Indirect governance strategy of neoliberal state, embracing the principle of precaution, approaches life itself as risky, and as such does not problematize risks as contaminating the purity of life – as was the case in welfare states. Preventive and precautionary measures are different risk management strategies. As

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\(^1\) Scholarly literature on neoliberal governmentality includes, but is not limited to, the following themes: immigration, immigrants and refugees (Mitchell, 2006; Andrijasevic and Walters, 2010; Hiemstra, 2010); terror, security and the world after 9/11 (Debried and Barber, 2009; Tosa, 2009; Dean, 2010); changes in work relations (Haierong, 2003); health and body politics (Guthman and DuPuis, 2006; Guthman, 2009; Manzenreiter, 2012), changes in state and civil society relations (Ferguson and Gupta, 2002; Sharma, 2006), and etc.
François Ewald (2002: 286) succinctly puts, while preventive principle builds upon “certainty as to the consequences of an action”, the notion of precaution concerns a situation in which only a relationship of possibility, eventuality, plausibility, or probability between a cause and its effect can be envisaged. The hypothesis does not concern exactly an unknown cause, but rather a probable or suspected cause… The precautionary hypothesis puts us in the presence of a risk that is neither measurable nor assessable—that is, essentially a nonrisk… Precautionary logic does not cover risk (which is covered by prevention); it applies to what is uncertain that is, to what one can apprehend without being able to assess.

The governance strategy embedded within precautionary principle justifies taking an action on an unforeseen and incalculable future, as it tries to capture uncertainty by domesticating it as risk. It is in this sense that ‘nonrisk becomes risk’. This, however, should not yield the conclusion that preventive attitude towards risk is on the process of being replaced by a precautionary one. Rather, as Aradau and Van Munster argue (2007: 102) contemporary risk management strategies involve both preventive and precautionary tactics, where precautionary element stands as an addition to the preventive one. As such, the scope of risk management enlarges by incorporating precautionary measures, which acts on risks viewed as intrinsic to life itself, or remaining nascent in life and thus being unavoidable and too many to calculate.

As neoliberal state cannot possess an extensive knowledge of all the potentiality of risks, it merely proposes certain hypotheses, or certain guidelines to the individuals and asks them to be wary. It is precisely at this point and as a result of such conceptualization that the population expands and generalizes in the face of risks in neoliberal states. Given that the individual is the responsible agent, and having an altogether precautionary attitude towards life that requires being alert, wary and on guard perpetually, s/he possesses a double predisposition. S/he could be part of the group to generate risks and also be their victim, which blurs the distinction between the population(s) that causes risks as well as that which is victimized by risks (Aradau and Van Munster, 2007: 107). In contrast to this problematization, in welfare states, even though the population is also classified according to risks, such classification distributes groups according to those subject to risks and those who can generate them, clearly demarcating the boundaries between the two. Under neoliberal governmentality, though, no group is privileged enough to be protected from risks and thus the entire society face the danger of being exposed to them (Lupton, 1999: 94).

These three aspects of indirect governance that we briefly discussed are important to understand the changing nature of state-society relations in contemporary Turkey. Turkish state addresses the population in all its generality, and responsibilizes each individual in the face of risks by providing guidelines, on which precautionary measures to adopt, namely the public spots. Before delving into the details of indirect governance in contemporary Turkey, we need to clarify one point. Even though for the sake of argument we have discussed indirect governance in comparison with and as posing a stark contrast to what we called direct governance, we do not claim that there is a shift from the latter to the former (or that the former replaces the latter). This takes its cue from Foucault’s (2007) lectures titled Security, Territory, Population at the Collège de France, where he discussed sovereignty, discipline and biopolitics not as types of power defining three consecutive epochs but rather as separate modalities of power, which could exist side by side. Our aim here is not to make a hasty point by arguing that indirect and direct governance could serve as modalities of power, we simply posit the two as coexisting strategies of governance.

3. Indirect Governance of Health and Security: Turkey’s Public Spots

Regarding the confines of our article, in this section, we will discuss how indirect governance of risks works in contemporary Turkey by only looking at the public spots on health and security that the Ministry of Health and the Turkish National Police produced. Our argument partially builds upon the literature on neoliberalism, which claims that state-society relations have drastically changed after the 2000s. Scholars working on this period observe that Turkish state has been withdrawing from areas of education, health, employment and social security. Following the wave of privatizations that began in the 1990s (and have been going on full throttle since the 2000s), Turkish welfare state has begun to evolve into a neoliberal one. Yet, these scholars often evaluate this process as the dissolution and/or pacification of the state. We, on the other hand, alternatively propose that Turkish state is neither dissolving nor being pacified, but it is in the process of restructuring. In other words, the Turkish state has started to disengage gradually from directly interfering into education, health, employment, and social security as has been the case for direct governance. Encouraging individuals towards self-responsibilization, it instead resorts to indirect governance.

Emergence of indirect governance shows itself most acutely on how state manages risk; and the fact that Turkish state has been recently developing policies on potential risks that endanger society is crucial to analyze this new form of governance. For instance, by privatizing health services (such as increasing the number of private health insurances, encouraging the use of private health services instead of public ones, and cutting down the number of public health personnel) the state gradually transfers its responsibility on public health to private sector. However, this does not mean
that the state renounces its right over individuals' health. It pinpoints potential risks to the wellbeing of the public and calls for each individual to have control over their bodies and to take responsibility for their health. By identifying guiding principles (avoiding smoking and obesity, exercising regularly, eating a healthy diet, and etc.) it expects individuals to obey them and exert control on themselves in due process.

These characteristics of indirect governance are clearly depicted in health-related public spots. Among many issues that the Ministry of Health focuses (obesity, smoking, alternative medicine, hospital services, and etc.) the ones that circulate most are those related to discouraging smoking and cautioning against obesity. These spots call upon individuals to lead a healthy life and encourage them to take precautionary measures, that is, to act preemptively against the probable poor health risks. To put it differently, individuals are urged to guard themselves from the probable occurrence of illnesses (by quitting smoking before getting sick and avoiding the risk of being obese).

In terms of format, there are two kinds of public spots about quitting smoking: one type encourages it through expert knowledge about potential health hazards and the other through first hand success stories of ex-smokers. The first type is pretty much straightforward. It concentrates on lungs and narrates how smoking damages them by filling air pores with tar. These spots use oversimplified language (‘smoking affects your health very badly’, “smoking damages you with each puff”) and utilize metaphors (depicting lungs in the image of sponges and tar in the image of mud) to make it communicable to the general public.

It is rather the second type that displays novel elements concerning the remaking of relations between state and society through risk. One characteristic of indirect governance that we discussed here, i.e. attribution of responsibility to the individual, can be observed vividly in this type of public spots, where individuals narrate their own stories of how they quit smoking. Some public spots show those who had to quit after they develop illnesses related to smoking, such as pulmonary cancer or KOAH. Here, responsibilization works through emphasis on sentiments of regret. People imbued with these fatal diseases express their regret in many ways. One tells, “I was a bit late; I quit after my lungs were gone”; another one, “I would sacrifice anything for a breath, but I am way too late”. With a melodramatic music playing in the background, sick ex-smokers are shown in their miserable hospital rooms, attached to oxygen tubes through their nose or throat. As such, they serve to the public eye as regrettable figures responsible for their own anguish, duly expressed with the slogan, “Smoking is regretting”.

This second type of public spots also shows ex-smokers who “chose health before its too late”. They share their stories with the audience; specifically the reasons that led them to quit smoking and how they succeeded. The first parts of these public spots are shot in black and white, where ex-smokers talk about how they used to be troubled by effects of smoking. They all recurrently mention chest pain, coughing, and shortness of breath as negative effects of smoking, which are coupled with one particular social effect, the foul smell of cigarette smoke. Then, with black and white screen turning into color, ex-smokers pronounce their decision to quit.

Recurrent theme upon which these stories build themselves is the individual’s incubating will power through which we observe the shifted responsibility for health. What is shown to the public is not ex-smokers who quit smoking by seeking help through using nicotine patches, medication, placebos for cigarettes or seeking consultation. Instead, they all quit smoking determinately and painlessly as a result of their conscious and decisive move to never smoke again. Hence, the stories do not narrate possible difficulties of the process of quitting. It is rather asserted that will power of the individual is enough and would eventually be triumphant over smoking. Ex-smokers express this through phrases such as, “In my mind I finished it”, “I chose health”, “I wanted it from the depth of my heart and I succeeded”, and etc. Ergo, what is stressed over and over in these public spots as the road to success is the will power of the self-controlling, self-governing, and self-motivated (that is to say, responsibilized) individual.

Such individual and a similar success story also encounter us in public spots on obesity. So far, the Ministry of Health has produced three public spots built upon suggestions on how to avoid the risk of being obese. One of them teaches what BMI (body-mass index) is, explains how individuals should calculate their BMI, and asks them to seek medical help if they are above its ‘ideal’ range. The other encourages exercising at least thirty minutes per day and works with the slogan of “come on, stand up and you too move against obesity”, by showing all sorts people walking or running in all kinds of places. And the last one, very similar to those on smoking, is a success story of a woman who used to be overweight, but lost forty-five kilos in one and a half years by walking, eating less and being more dynamic.

It is very clear how the public spot on BMI responsibilizes individuals. It does so by providing information on BMI’s standard procedure. Then it leaves the decision to individuals to see whether they are overweight or not; and if they are, the burden of seeking medical help also befalls upon them. The second one cautions individuals against the ‘great risk’ of obesity, ‘the most important threat of our era’, by pointing out how unhealthy diet and sedentary life leads to it. It directly calls individuals to exercise regularly everyday but leaves them the choice of how to do it. The spot shows all kinds of people across Turkey (young, old, man, woman, overweight, thin, fit) walking or running in their neighborhoods,
in parks, in forests, on beaches, over bridges, on streets, in historical sites, and etc. As such, it suggests walking or running as the easiest and most convenient form of exercise that can be done by everyone, everywhere and at any time of the day. Same emphasis on walking as a form of exercise can also be found in the success story of a once overweight woman, who lost weight by exercising and reducing the size of her portions. In the public spot, she repeatedly stresses her self-motivation to lose weight, explaining how she did this on her own without receiving any professional help. She tells us that what one needs is neither money, nor expensive gyms or beauty centers. “Will power and perseverance” is more than enough to successfully lose weight.

One reason why walking and running are chosen as the forms of exercise in these public spots is that they can be done literally by everyone. That is to say, since everyone is seen under the risk of being obese, no one could (and should) escape taking precautionary measures against the ‘threat’ of obesity. To put it differently, one does not necessarily be overweight in order to be cautious. Because obesity is constructed as a risk that can seize everyone, regardless of age, gender and class, precautionary measures against it inevitably serves to generalize the population. How the once-overweight woman had lost weight has an all-inclusive appeal in the sense that it addresses each individual in society without discriminating age, gender and / or class. Also, in the second public spot, the fact that there are such diverse locations and people from all spectrums of social life who are shown walking or running, again, generalizes the population.

Generalization of population, although it works through a different mechanism, is also prevalent in the public spots on security produced by the Turkish National Police (TNP). First it needs to be mentioned that the TNP produces as much public spots as the Ministry of Health. They cover a wide range of topics on security warning against theft, fraud, mugging, Internet abuse of children, hackers, smuggling, bomb-threat and cautioning individuals to obey the traffic rules (drunk driving, running a red light, speeding). Among these, we would like to concentrate on the ones on mugging and Internet abuse of children.

The first one starts with a woman walking on a crowded street. A man in his late twenties (no distinctive features) slowly approaches her, snatches her handbag and attempts to run. People walking on the street block his way by immediately surrounding him. Standing with a gutsy and gallant pose and wearing a proud expression on their faces, each individual in the crowd put on a police hat. Seeing the determination of the crowd, the young man apologetically returns the handbag to the woman. The spot ends with the slogan of “anyone who has conscience is a policeman”.

Whilst anyone can be a policeman, anyone can also be a criminal. The second public spot, the one on Internet abuse of children, pictures a calm upper middle class suburban neighborhood in the middle of the night. The camera goes inside a cozy house and shows a young mother reading a magazine in the living room, and her twelve years old daughter lying down on her bed and chatting on the Internet. As the young girl thinks that she is chatting with a boy her age, we the audience, hearing his voice, realize that he is rather an adult posing as a child (and most probably a child molester). Right after the man with a deep and perverted voice asks the girl if she has a camera, and the girl writes him back, the woman, who lost weight by exercising and reducing the size of her portions. In the public spot, she repeatedly stresses her self-motivation to lose weight, explaining how she did this on her own without receiving any professional help. She tells us that what one needs is neither money, nor expensive gyms or beauty centers. “Will power and perseverance” is more than enough to successfully lose weight.

These public spots on security responsibilize individuals for safeguarding their environment and for acting preemptively to minimize any potential crime risks that can come from anywhere, anywhere, and anytime. Being aware of one’s surrounding, staying constantly on alert, and being wary and suspicious of everyone becomes the precautionary duty of the responsibilized individual. At first glance, the security-related public spots seem to play on the figure of the policeman (whom everyone becomes one, and who forces the criminals to come out of the house) highlighting his preventive role in fighting crimes. However, a closer reading reveals that what is suggested here is to approach crimes through precautionary measures rather than preventive ones. The fact that both the young mugger and the ordinary men that come out of the house have no stereotypical features of a ‘criminal’, attests to the uncertainty concerning how, where and by whom crimes might be committed. It is specifically as a result of such uncertainty surrounding the crimes that everyone (the mother, the individuals walking on the street, and thus the public in general) needs to be wary of anyone, all the time.

We have been arguing that indirect governance, when confronted with risks, responsibilizes individuals for taking precautionary measures and duly generalizes the population. This does not, however, mean that generalization works...
similarly on various distinct occasions and responsibilizes individuals in the same way. A comparison between health-related public spots and those on security reveals multiple ways in which we can observe the plurality of these mechanisms. Whereas public spots on health address everyone, those on security address anyone. The former asks each individual to consider herself/himself as being part of everyone, notice risks as everyone else does, and take precautions by responsibilizing herself/himself in the face of risks just like everyone else. The latter, those on security, also addresses a totality/population. They, however, ask individuals to see that anyone could pose a threat, and as such responsibilizes them to be cautious about each single individual and protect both themselves and others from anyone. And it could be surmised easily that if anyone could pose a threat, then the individual herself/himself could also be one of anyone.

It should be noticed that regardless of whether the population is generalized as everyone or anyone, the risks are personified in one way or another. In the former, they are embedded within the individual, and s/he begets them. The sole fact that will power is seen as the road to success in health-related public spots attests to this. In other words, what is posed as necessary and sufficient condition of overcoming the risk of obesity as well as quitting smoking is the sheer will power inherent in the individual. Therefore, everyone should individually responsibilize oneself and take precautionary measures against risks. In security-related public spots, on the other hand, risks are once again personified, but this time in the form of an external other. The threat to one’s security comes from an outsider portrayed as a mugger on the street or a disguised child molester. In this respect, because anyone is a potential threat to the security of everyone, the responsibilized individual not only has to be cautious about anyone (regardless of whether or not they fit to the conventional criminal stereotypes) but also needs to prevent crimes and protect their loved ones.

4. Conclusion

Further elaboration and research is needed to deduce whether or not these two forms of responsibilization (responsibilization of individuals for protecting their own self against personal risks and their responsibilization for protecting others from external risks) merge within a single individual and/or converge in a novel subjectivity. Already within the scholarly literature on neoliberal governmentality, debates circulating around the concept of good citizen(ship) have been pointing towards a similar problematization in an attempt to understand the contemporary state-society relationships. The good citizen is conclusively defined as a responsibilized individual when confronted with risks (Lupton, 2006; Manzenreiter, 2012). Whether that responsibilization is for personal or external risks (or both), however, is open to discussion. It is largely due to the fact that any such discussion would be a mere speculation unless it is grounded within a given time and place. Besides, neoliberal governmentality works with the principle of indirect governance that is flexible in and of itself. Accordingly, it escapes being defined generically. Responsibilization of individuals is also context-specific given that under neoliberal governmentality, the aspects of life that are considered risky will always remain ambiguous. In this respect, any definition of good citizen(ship) would need careful contextualization within specific locales.

When we look at the Turkish context, we see that state-society relations have been increasingly defined through indirect governance of risks. Instead of linearly directing individuals towards certain behavioral patterns, the Turkish state has come to designate guidelines for appropriate ways of living via public spots without directly forcing individuals to comply with them. Accordingly, whilst the Turkish state (and its governmental apparatus) provides guidance through public spots, it is the self-motivated individuals rather than the state that is to be held responsible for dealing with risks. These self-motivated individuals are expected to enter into a precautionary relationship with presumed risks (obesity, smoking, mugging and Internet abuse of children) that are not necessarily pre-calculated. It is because of this vagueness and because life itself poses various potential threats to the self-motivated and responsibilized individual, s/he is expected to approach all aspects of life with a precautionary attitude. In the face of these ‘life-threatening’ risks, public spots function not only as guidelines on how to approach them, but they also keep the individual in a constant state of alertness when dwelling within life itself. As life is as unpredictable as it is and burgeoning with prolific and indeterminate risks, it is hardly possible for any individual to remain immune to risks of life. It is such unpredictability that generalizes the population as being both the subject and the object of risks under neoliberal governmentality. Turkish state, via public spots, follows a similar mentality when it resorts to call its audience as general and as indeterminate as public.

References


The Link Between Topic Work and Intrinsic Motivation

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Abstract

This study explores the relationship between topic work, as a teaching and learning method based on the philosophy of open classrooms and pupil’s motivation. Topic work, as a methodology emerged in our school after 1990’s, to support democratization in the relationship between teacher and pupils. Topic work had a stretch in Elbasan’s schools for more than 8 years, while this methodology has a long story and has been adopted across European and American schools. In these countries, the method continues to grow in its popularity. In the beginning, this paper will describe the principles of topic work based on literature about this theme, and the role of motivation in the attitude of children towards school. The motivation, likewise is analyzed based on recent findings in the educational psychology field. Comparing the principles of topic work, with elements of motivation especially of intrinsic motivation, it will be concluded that topic work as methodology includes a lot of elements of intrinsic motivation. With the changing of curriculum demands, teachers can rely on this methodology to motivate pupils, to be closer to their needs and closer to recent developments in education policy.

Keywords: topic work, motivation, intrinsic motivation, needs of pupils, teaching and learning methodology

1. Introduction

The diversity of students, the characteristics of their experiences in school, is present and visible. These characteristics and personal experiences contribute to their motivation. However, teachers as well can make a difference, for better or worse, to motivate students to learn. Some students are concerned about grades, others should necessarily participate in an optional subject. Still others want to learn and explore ideas. In fact, many students are probably motivated to learn and succeed by a combination of elements of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The key for us as teachers is to understand what we can do to build students’ motivation to learn in our class, and cultivate internal motivation that will lead them to be lifelong learners.

Intrinsic motivated students want to learn, because they are curious, they want to improve, they seek knowledge, learning gives them pleasure, and for those who are not internally motivated, the teacher is the one who does so, by going out of the routine, and bringing learning closer to learners. Topic work is an opportunity for this.

This study will analyze the elements of intrinsic motivation, and features of topic work, to conclude the strong link that exists between the topic work, as an element of open classes and intrinsic motivation of students.

Scrutiny of motivation, especially internal motivation, as treatises on contemporary literature, and its importance in the learning process will be the first part of the analysis to be done. This will be followed by analysis of topic work as a methodology on its specific characteristics and little known across the country, it will be treated not only on how it is organized, but with the elements that characterize this methodology. In this way, the link between topic work and motivation will be more obvious, and certainly more convincing to all those teachers who aim to increase students' motivation, as topic work method enables internal motivation levels are higher than in traditional learning.

Because students have different interests and different ways of viewing and perceiving the world, the optimism of children to their interests determines which education is best for them, and in this way a classroom can be created with an environment that will encourage them to choose their activities. The ways of organizing topic work creates priority for the establishment of the class environment that promotes cooperation and emphasizes affective abilities of each child.

This methodology assumes that the teacher’s role is not to control students, but to enable them to make choices they like and to pursue them. This does not mean that the teacher should expect the same from all students. A teacher who applies this methodology should be able to cultivate unexpected expectations, the student can show his skills, regardless of what the teacher has chosen for him. Parents who believe that children should always learn individually, should not forget that the student learns and experiences from the group.
2. Motivation

Psychology considers motivation as a term that includes a wide range of variables, resulting in a multitude of definitions and theories. Yet many researchers (Dörnyei, Z. 2001: p.8) are of the opinion that motivation has to do with running and magnitude of human behavior, in other words, is associated with the selection of an action, and persistence in it, and the efforts made in it.

Theories of motivation occupy an important place in psychology, because motivation plays an important role in human life, the way we not only learn, but learn and move forward in life. Usually, the motivation is defined as an inner state that enlivened, promotes and support the behavior. Psychology of Education believes that motivation is an important concept in theories of learning.

Intrinsic motivation is defined as doing an activity for personal pleasure. When you are internally motivated, you move to act for fun, or for challenging the activity. For example, if given the opportunity to choose a topic for a research, the child is motivated to do the research and to spend more time on the project. The result is that the student gains a better grasp of the content and is more satisfied with the work done. Being internally motivated, means that a person has an inner wheel to perform a task and completes it to his satisfaction. Some factors affecting the internal motivation are: self-determination, autonomy, curiosity for the subject/activity, competence in skills and habits, one’s pleasure to make a connection with activity and which the individual values for the same things with someone is very close (Baard. P.Paul, 2002: p.259). Some illustrations of these factors are:

Self determination / autonomy: A student chooses to read over the material required to fulfill his personal pleasure reading. This shows self-determination in the student because he is doing something for his personal motivating reasons.

Competence in skills habits: If a teacher allows the student to choose what he wants for a research or design student who has talent in literature will write a report search, because he has the power of writing.

Family Background: A student who has a relative doctor will be more interested in science (anatomy, biology), because he considers it to be appreciated by his parents.

Intrinsic motivation stimulated by tasks, difficulty, personal interests and help control personal choice. Curiosity, flexibility, critical thinking and creativity are indicators of intrinsic motivation for learning, which have a large function with basic needs and match the exercise of personal control.

Intrinsic motivation is seen as a born necessity, which begins in childhood years, as the need for power and determination, it is encouraging for exploring, learning and to challenge ourselves. Ryan and Deci (Deci and Ryan, 2010) defended the idea that intrinsic motivation underlies human behavior without the need for external rewards and has three basics needed to manage behavior, competence, autonomy and independence. According to this theory, these three basic needs are necessary to enable growth, social development and well-being. The relationship between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation not characteristic and the impact of this relationship in human growth, development, needs are developed in the theory presented by Decin and Ryan, The theory of Self-determination (Decin and Ryan, 2010).

Although intrinsic motivation has its origins in childhood, Deci and Ryan (Decin, and Ryan, 2010) describe intrinsic motivation as the 'eternal source of creativity'. This highlights the importance of intrinsic motivation and close relationships it has with creativity, and clearly this should not be overlooked, because as a result of perceived competence and autonomy will be essential to ensure that childhood games take place in the adult creativity.

Intrinsic motivation includes involvement in a fun activity and fulfilling that activity. Students complete their tasks because they enjoy and find that learning new things is interesting and pleasing, can be said to be internally motivated. Vallerand and his colleagues (Vallerand, J.Robert, Catherine F, Ratelle, 2002: p.42) suggest a taxonomy of IM (intrinsic motivation). First, acquaintances includes engaging in activities for enjoyment that comes from learning, exploring and understanding new things. Secondly, doing things refers to engaging in fun activities stems from the attempt to surpass themselves, to create, to accomplish something. Third, to test incentives when you engage in an activity because feelings associated with it are stimulated.

According postulate 5 of Vallerand., motivation leads to important consequences:
1. Positive consequences of reduced IM in EM, and IM specifically leads to positive consequences, followed by integration and identification. External regulation may be associated with adverse consequences and amotivation is one of these.
2. Perceived competence and autonomy (psychological factors), self determining situational motivation and concentration of targets for sustainability in the future (motivational consequences) are measured variables and has emerged that the success/failure affect perceptions of competence and autonomy, which influence situational self-determined motivation. At the end we can say that motivation predicts concentration and
behavioral goals in the future

3. Methods to promote intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation is important for people to develop lifelong learning, but it is difficult to see in many classrooms. For example, Deci and Richard (Ryan, M.Richard and Deci, L.Edward, 2000, p.55), discovered that money as a reward has harmful effects on motivation. Students become less motivated when rewarded with money in return. On the other hand, when students are given a prize as a reward they are more motivated. In addition they found that when a person perceives a reward that is more than they deserve, that person puts more effort to an activity. So, to promote intrinsic motivation, is necessary:

A. To create a climate of autonomy in class. Many researchers believe that the development of an autonomous class climate is a very good method to promote internal motivation. Paynter (Paynter, JL, 2004) states that "when students feel in control of their environment they are internally motivated to work, and may have positive self-esteem and feelings. She studied children performing arts activity. A group of children were left to choose some materials to work, and the other group was assigned materials to be used. She found that children who chose the materials were judged as more creative and they spent more time on the activity. According to her, this fact has important implications. With the increasing demand and rising child in school, while they need to be more motivated. Students were given more choices in their learning were more internally motivated than those who were assigned to the elections.

B. Giving a child choices. Koestner (Koestner, R., 2008, p. 60-67). suggests that there are many ways to give children choices in the classroom. With respect to academic learning, children can make choices to those that they learn quickly, choosing books to read, learn how to choose the setting group with whom to work, or where they will work in the classroom. The students can make their own choices in what they learn better than helping to determine the criteria on which their duty will be assessed. In the end, Koestner emphasizes the involvement of children in discussions about social and behavioral issues in the classroom, as the rules and procedures to be followed. Children can give solutions on these issues which should better be taken seriously. So, it must be said that children should be given the opportunity to make decisions about their learning, materials to be used and the way to work, all in order to reach the school's goals.

4. Topic Work

Topic work generally is open and not closed in terms of teaching-learning relationship. Goals of topic work are usually unknown to the student so that the student is free to have his reasons for doing it. If this is done, it helps children to decide what they can get out of it, and make it possible for the student to identify his targets. Unlike behavioral objectives that are widely used in schools, this method does not narrow the scope for the children learning.

The Topic for each topic work is based on the interests of the child, because children are more likely to be interested in topic work which have themes that are closely related to their interests.

The fact is that these methodologies is successful in the world and has given satisfactory results in the education of the young generation, remains to us this chance to give younger generations. Thus, in recent years more emphasis has been put on how students learn and the quality of their learning. Thus some subjects are taught through Labor topics (in America, Norway, Denmark, etc.). While in Scotland is the most widespread methods Story Line, which is basically working with principe of topic work. These methodologies consist in the integration of subjects, so history, geography, science, education can be studied as part of a wider body of knowledge. But it can develop and work on a single subject or theme set by which the integration subject.

Preparing for the 21st century and change of the curriculum have made it possible to enter the interdisciplinary curriculum to include education, protecting an interdisciplinary vision for our schools. Today, interdisciplinary learning has become more accepted in planning the curriculum, creating opportunities for teachers to plan interdisciplinary units with confidence, courage and understanding.

Teachers are those who give inspiration and guidance to children, create opportunities for learning skills in a natural way, develop a large range of possibilities for different interests and development and individualize grade level for each student progress.

Traditionally, a teacher can begin work on the topic by reading a chapter and make specific inquiries about it that are related to the content. In an open situation he can place children in a circle and discuss about their favorite game.

According to the opinions of teachers, the most successful approaches in a number of strategies to increase
students' interest in learning, include learning in collaboration, allowing alternative solutions and encouraging creativity. Students share ideas together and then organize their thoughts with each other. Then they begin to write individually.

*topic work* as an approach challenges the traditional role of teachers as providers of information and requires the teacher to take a step forward in the role of facilitators, and planning of the learning topic. *topic work* is built between teachers and students, and students are given autonomy in their learning. Moreover, the teacher is encouraged to learn from and together with the students in their classroom, assessment of knowledge that students bring to the classroom. *topic work* is not based on external compensation, no tests, certificate or other form of assessment. *Topic work* process is guided by the students and the way in which problems are addressed and resolved is determined by the pupils. In this way, many of the common extrinsic motivators, such as test scores, exam pressures and reward systems, widely encountered in the context of today's educational approach fade from *topic work*. In the method of *topic work* students make their choices in the learning topic and pursue their interests in *topic work*. For these reasons, it is logical to conclude that the *topic work* as a method may be closer to intrinsic motivation.

5. **Link between TOPIC WORK and intrinsic motivation**

As we stated above, *topic work* is a cross-curricular method. Topics may focused mainly on reading and counting, while in a number of areas learning will be applied as well, other subjects will be involved and when necessary, learning to make intersections with other disciplines. *Topic work* fosters a creative approach to teaching and learning, this method brings the combination of learning and experience brings freedom for both parties: teachers and students. Techniques for problem solving, creative thinking, decision-making and working with others are all necessary skills for students to develop when treatment is undertaken by *topic work* method. This method is characterized by seeking endlessly, and in *topic work* creativity is a primary importance. The teacher's role is to facilitate learning and working together with students, the teacher is therefore dependent on contributions from students with ideas and solutions to *topic work* problems.

The three dimensions required in this model by Amabile (Amabile, TM, 1997. p. 39-40), are the key skills, so, creative thinking, work skills, and intrinsic motivation. Describing the background of the key skills that we possess the knowledge, skills and creative abilities will describe the work to take risks and experiment, intrinsic motivation (as discussed) is the motivation to complete the task for the sake of the task itself. When three factors come together and overlap, this process is described as "creative junction." Amabile asserts that only when all three factors are true potential can then creativity flourish.

Deci and Ryan (Decin, EL, and Ryan, RM, 1985) found a close relationship between human creativity and perceptions about control, perceived choice and interest levels. When all these factors are placed in harmony with each other, they defend the idea that the levels of creativity and intrinsic motivation will increase.

Accessing the *topic work* is essentially a creative approach to the curriculum and as such it should have the key skills defining, job skills and a learning environment in which promote intrinsic motivation. *topic work* method takes as a starting point, based on students' knowledge and understanding about the subject that they bring to the classroom, and these are the main determinant skills. *topic work* method provides us with a problem in the classroom so that should be resolved and so are the job skills necessary to take risks and experiment to find solutions. Education determines that the *topic work* method is driven by extrinsic motivation, rather than the students having ownership of their learning and becoming motivated (internally) in the context of *topic work* itself and the problems they have to solve. In Amabile's research (Amabile, TM, 1998, p. 77-78) about creativity she found a link between creativity and the increase of intrinsic motivation. She describes them as creative individuals as "expertise", with good skills and creative thinking, and high levels of intrinsic motivation.

Through Amabile's research for creativity and impact of the work environment, have emerged these main categories:

1. challenges
2. freedom,
3. resources,
4. work-group,
5. encouragement from the supervisor,
6. organizational support

Amabile defends the idea that these categories are fundamental to the growth of internal motivation and ultimately to support creativity in the work environment.

Within the characteristics of the working group, the class is organized to work in a variety of situations in pairs or
groups and students to create groups that support family values and working with others. In a topic work the teacher facilitates learning, but support is given oversight by encouraging active participation, inviting experts in classroom learning and celebrating the end of the topic. The learning environment is essential to the success of a topic work, because the climate of the class should support the idea of the imagined world that has created classes together and support should be given to how classes cooperate in their learning.

Students in a topic work are challenged to solve problems and find solutions, and they have the freedom to make their own choices and decisions throughout the process. Open source used by students to design and create models and situations, and as previously set the topic work method will now be evaluated closely related to the main features of motivation. From the Leper Hodell (Lepper, MR and Hodell, M., 1989, p.73-105) it is thought that there are four key strands of intrinsic motivation, challenge, curiosity, control and fantasy.

An explanation of these origins is shown in the figure below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Implications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenges</td>
<td>The presentation students with tasks of an average difficulty they feel effective in meeting its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>Presentation of students with information that will surprise motivate them to close the gap between their knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>students were given a sense of control and choice in learning the results of their learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The fantasy</td>
<td>involves students in fantasy and imagination through simulations and games</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tab.1.** Four key of intrinsic motivation

5.1 Challenge

Ryan and Deci (Deci, EL and Ryan, RM, 2000:54-67) suggest that the key to motivating students is basically a challenge. Before starting a new topic work, classroom teacher finds out what knowledge students bring to the topic and what gaps there are in the understanding that they can show. With the progress of the topic work, collectively challenged, the class is to help solve a difficult situation or problem.

The teacher facilitates the learning of new skills and helps develop existing skills, working together with the students. Students are challenged on an individual level, giving part of the task to work on. Through this, they are able to not only develop their skills, but also to improve them. At the end of the unit there is no test.

Learning is the ability to direct, and students are motivated to reach a satisfactory solution to a common problem. In this way learning is differentiated and students are challenged on an individual level, suitable to their needs. As a group, students are challenged to determine the outcome of topic work, seeking solutions to problems and taking risks and experimenting with new ideas, develop their job skills (Amabile, 1997.p.39-58).

5.2 Curiosity

Topic work premise begins with the knowledge that the students bring to the topic, students are not seen as empty vessels. The teacher determines what knowledge and skills students have and identifies areas that are less popular. With the development of the topic work, students are presented with issues that require a solution. Through this method, the student’s curiosity grows and students are eager to use their existing knowledge which they have acquired in topic work so far (and fill any gaps) in order to come up with a common solution to the problem. Curiosity, as one of the four strands of intrinsic motivation is also associated with other motivational theories that surround the topic of interest (Hidi, Renninger, and Krapp, 2004).

In relation with an educational context, advocates of the theory of interest, support the idea that students are most effective when they keep their personal interest in their learning. Personal interest can be a useful and positive emotion in a classroom context, since the interest can promote applied and detailed learning. Interest method is used in the topic work enough to stimulate students’ interest in the work, using unexpected events, or the arrival of a letter as a context for learning.
5.3 Control

Giving a sense of control over learning is seen as essential to promote intrinsic motivation. (Ryan, RM and Decin, EL, 2000 Vol 55:1, p.68-78) Facilitating the control can be done through allowing students freedom of choice or including students in decision making.

*Topic work* learning becomes a shared experience between teachers and students. It’s as an approach that involves the inclusion of students in the learning process and leaves behind the traditional role of the teacher as the source for all the information, but rather brings with it the teacher as a facilitator in the learning process. Teachers course that controls and directs the structure of the topic and identified the desired learning to be undertaken within its students, but *topic work* developed as a result of contributions and students' responses.

While the *topic work* as an approach is based on the methodology of child-centered, progressive traditions, unlike some progressive approaches, it makes the same mistake with emphasis on the child, at the expense of new learning. Clearly, it is essential for *topic work* students to have a voice, their learning builds on what they already know and thus, the result of *topic work* is led by students and choices they make. During *topic work* students decipher what they need to know in order to complete the *topic work* and in doing so they create their own questions. However, it is the teacher who provides structure to find this information or writes biography, providing formats so that students are not only to fulfill their duties. This learning model promotes high levels of student control and therefore, intrinsic motivation should be high. Within this structure, students have the opportunity to enhance their determinative skills (knowledge that they bring) and their ability to work.

5.4 Fantasy

A further element of intrinsic motivation is fantasy. Lepper and Hodell (Lepper, MR and Hodell, M., 1989) believe that intrinsic motivation can be increased through the use of incentives and encouraging situations. *Topic work* also presents real life, giving students a context that is familiar, but allowing them to create an imaginary world within a real context. It’s as method is built around a chosen theme, and the students construct their own learning by giving us the expected results. Imagination which is somewhat lost in our schools, is essential to the learning process and is important in all disciplines, not just subjects of art as some might assume. It must be said that traditional teaching leaves little room to imagination, as the teacher feels safer with standard answers from students, within the framework that the teacher, or the textbook predetermine. In the *topic work* method, students present their contexts in *topic work* class, they imagine themselves as characters and begin to recreate and make sense of the world they have created. Within this fantasy world, students and teachers can explore difficult themes, complex and often contradictory for a safe and secure classroom environment. It is clear from this statement that the *topic work* as a method is more closely aligned to the theory of intrinsic motivation.

Self-determination of goals, persistence on tasks, can be considered self motivation ingredients. Within classes where *topic work* is developed, there are a series of appropriate activities, and freedom of choice and opportunity for these activities, which can be developed in a natural situation, in which the teacher can observe. Below is given a summary of the *topic work* connection with internal motivation, based on the above analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic motivation</th>
<th>Topic Work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination</td>
<td>Autonomy of decision-making goals for learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence in problem solving task</td>
<td>Problem solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
<td>Is not based on external appraisal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence (perceived choice)</td>
<td>Students make their choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity for learning / Satisfaction</td>
<td>Creativity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tab.2. Connection between Intrinsic motivation and topic work

6. Conclusion

It's time for our school to be more open, more democratic and for changes to take place in it. The need for change noted
in SKPA 2005-2015, which states: "It is now a need to develop a curriculum requirement oriented and focused on knowledge and skills sufficient for active citizens of a democratic society based on market economy. Implementation of this requirement dictates the method over the existing "core curricula subjects" in "curriculum based on learning outcomes", according to which alternatives are open to new subjects and / or integration of subjects. (MASH, 2007). According to these goals, the school will:
- Improve cooperation between students and their creativity and independence in performing work
- Increase positive attitudes towards school students
- Raise motivation and satisfaction from learning
- Increase school results and also those affective of students

All these lead to the democratization of relations in the classroom, enabling the realization of many goals that our schools today has in front, preparing its citizens for the future by educating the students respect and tolerance of lifelong learning.

All these can be achieved by following these steps:
- Thinking about the curriculum as a unit results from different subjects and related to each other, then go outside templates solid schemes.
- To build your class curriculum taking into account the background of every day experience of the child. The introduction of specific objectives that can help.
- To examine critically the curriculum guide. If you need to teach a specific unit, it must be found within the framework more flexible ways to seek and give children the opportunity to be directly involved in their learning.
- Children should be thinking about how things differ from the importance of simple possession of information and encourage the learning process.
- Planning should be done with the children and give them an acceptable solution can be accomplished in the classroom.
- More importance should be given to use of source material than to those in the textbook study.
- It should always be spoken with children to help them understand that teachers care about them as individuals.
- Must spend more time watching students carefully in order to identify ways in which they learn.
- A good teacher must know the child's interests, to support these interests, to develop a suitable activity and valuable in a large range.

The key role of teachers, as facilitators of learning, is to increase the opportunities that every child has, to be fully engaged in the activities of the day as much as possible, to encourage active exploration of the world of the child by the teacher itself, making it more intrinsically motivated. In this way it will be possible for the students to learn throughout life, and as topic work is a good method for this.

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Comprehension and Interpretation of English and Albanian Fixed Expressions

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Abstract

Processing and understanding this unique group of fixed expressions has been a topic of great importance for many scholars and language educators. The comprehension of an expression is a prerequisite for its acquisition. It deals with, among other things, how people learn to use them in their own language production. Using them in the proper context or situation is difficult in the native language (L1) and second language (L2) as well. There have been numerous studies on L1 and L2 comprehension and acquisition of these expressions but researchers have not come to an agreement about them. Different approaches suggest an L2 learner uses a variety of strategies (including guessing, using pragmatic knowledge, and experimentation) to decipher the meaning of an unknown expression. The problem addressed in this study is from the perspective of foreign language learners. Its purpose is to: 1) identify comprehension strategies used by intermediate level English language learners to understand the selected expressions in English and Albanian; 2) determine whether comprehension depends on the category of an expression (identical, similar, dissimilar to an expression in Albanian); and 3) discover their ability to use these expressions in different contexts. The results will be drawn from a questionnaire completed by EFL students.

1. Introduction

“Fixed expressions” pose problems in understanding and interpreting. They are considered as complex units since they consist of more than one word. Many authors agree that these complex units are syntactic expressions that exhibit lexical co-occurrence restrictions that cannot be explained in terms of regular rule-governed syntactic or semantic restrictions. The fact that kick the bucket means “die” does not follow from any underlying principle or from our knowledge of the world. The fact that we have to say spill the beans and not spill the peas does not follow from any grammatical rule but simply has to be learned even if we assume that this idiom is semantically compositional or analyzable. This means that in a sense, one could say that idioms are idioms by convention. Like all conventions, idioms have to be explicitly learned and remembered (Everaert et al. 1995, p.3).

In this paper we will first review some problems concerning the terminology and some of the major aspects of idiomatic expressions. Then we will describe the study that we have conducted with EFL students of our university in Korça by exploring the perspective of second language learners on idiomatic expressions. In the end, we will try to draw some conclusions based on the results of the questionnaire. Addressing the issue from the learners’ perspective is necessary because learners’ criteria for identifying idioms may sometimes differ from those of researchers due to the learners’ unique interest in idioms: to learn to understand and use them (Liu 2008, p.4).

We shall now look at the reasons for the difficulties which foreign learners experience when trying to use idioms. Seidl (1978, p.7) describes three major difficulties. She mentions that one of the main difficulties is that the learner does not know in which situations it is correct to use an idiom. Choice of words depends on the person one is speaking to and on the situation or place at the time. Another major difficulty is that the learner does not know if an idiom is natural or appropriate in a certain situation. This can only be learnt by careful listening to native speakers or careful reading of English texts which contain idioms. The third major difficulty is that of fixed idioms. It is important that the learner should be exact in his use of fixed idioms, as an inaccurate idiom may mean very little or even nothing at all to a native speaker. She also emphasizes that it is usually extremely unwise to translate idioms into English form one’s own native language. One may be lucky that the two languages have the same form and vocabulary, but in most cases, the result will be utterly
bewildering to the native speaker – and possibly highly amusing (p.8). Mastery of idiom comes only slowly, through careful study and observation, through practice and experience.

2. Literature review

This sections looks at the various terms used to describe these complex units, definitions, as well as some general aspects about them and setting limits on the expressions as part of our study.

2.1 Terminology

Terminology in this field has always been problematic... There is no generally agreed common vocabulary. Different terms are sometimes used to describe identical or very similar kinds of unit; at the same time, a single term may be used to denote very different phenomena (Moon 1998, p.2). So it is essential to clarify the kinds of unit which we will be discussing in this paper.

Fixed expression is a very general but convenient term, adopted from Alexander (1978, 1979), Carter (1987), and others, and used to cover several kinds of phrasal lexeme, phraseological unit or multi-word lexical item... (Moon 1998, p.2) According to her, fixed expression, like idiom, is unsatisfactory as a term... many fixed expressions of these types are not actually fixed. After discussing the difficulty of finding precise terms for these different expressions (fixed expressions and idioms) she writes: “I will retain it [fixed expression] for simplicity’s sake. I will refer to fixed expressions (including idioms) as FEIs (p.2). In other words,... she basically avoids the problem of separating idioms from the other fixed expressions. Of course, this does not mean that Moon does not distinguish the two categories in theory. She does, and somewhat vehemently, although she does not quite maintain the distinction in practice (Liu 2008, p.11). Other notions that cover most of these kinds of expressions are complex unit, fixed phrase, phraseolexeme, and conventional expression.1

Even in Albanian there are several terms used to cover the same kinds of expressions. Çeliku (1962) in his study “Togjalësha të qëndrueshëm foljorë në shqipën e sotme”2 states that verb fixed expressions are treated as grammatical and lexical units (p.194). Samara (1981) also states that ‘fixed expressions are those linguistic units which ’are totally lexicalized’ or have ‘a tendency for lexicalization’; they are semantically equivalent to a single word. They are not created at the moment of speaking, but are historically constructed. They have become fixed and are used as ready-made units just like words. Most of them are phraseological.” Other terms used are phraseological units, fixed expressions (which are very common), locations, phrases, etc. Recently, even the term idiomë (idiom) is used very often. For this reason, it is very important to decide the term that we are going to use in this paper. The set of expressions in our study covers fixed expressions with figurative meaning. We have deliberately selected only idiomatic expressions and avoided other kinds of fixed expressions as proverbs, routine formulae, sayings, similes, phrasal verbs etc. in order for our students not to get confused. We are going to refer to them as fixed expressions because they include not only idioms (in English), but even some very popular Albanian expressions, which are used in our region and which are very common in everyday speaking. We find ‘fixed expression’ as a very convenient term to describe the units we have included in our study.

2.2 Different aspects of fixed expressions in English and Albanian

In this section we will look at some aspects of fixed expressions which are idiomatic. Despite of the different approaches related to terminology or definition, there are some characteristics of these expressions which are common in both languages. It is important to stress that these expressions are not only colloquial, as many people believe. They can appear in different styles, either formal or informal (Seid 1978, p.4). The idiomatic expressions consist of a number of words which, taken together, mean something different from the individual words of the expression when they stand alone. The way in which the words are put together is often odd, illogical or even grammatically incorrect. But there are other expressions which are completely regular and logical in their grammar and vocabulary. Because of these special features, we have to learn these expressions as wholes and often we cannot change any part of it (except perhaps, only the tense of the verb); e.g. in the expression to catch someone red-handed we cannot change any word from it to replace

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1 For a thorough overview of terminology see Barkema (1993)
2 “Verb fixed expressions in Albanian”
with another one *to catch someone blue-handed or *to catch someone red-legged because the idiomatic meaning of the expression would be destroyed, but we can change the form of the verb according to its grammatical features (tense, aspect, person etc.): They caught him red-handed., or He was caught red-handed. This is true even in Albanian; e.g. ta kapësh dikë me presh në dorë (to catch someone with leek in his hands) is the Albanian equivalent of the above expression. We cannot change the word presh with domate (tomatoes) or dorë with këmbë (legs), but we can change the form of the verb: E kapën me presh në dorë. I kapën me presh në dorë., or E kishin kapur me presh në dorë., etc. Both languages, English and Albanian, are very rich in idiomatic expressions. In fact, it is difficult to speak any of these languages without using them. Native speakers are very often not aware that they are using these expressions. On the other hand, non-native learners find it difficult to learn and use them in the proper way. Only careful study and exact learning will help (Ibidim).

There are many sources of these expressions in both languages. The most important thing about them is their meaning. For this reason, native speakers do not pay attention to their structure even when they are grammatically incorrect, by and large is one example, in which we have the combination of a preposition with an adjective. But if the source of the expression is known then it is easier to guess its meaning. Many expressions come from every-day life, from home life, e.g. a storm in a tea-cup (shumë zhurmë për asjë), to be born under a lucky star (të lindësh me këmishë), a blind date (takim me një të panjohur) or in Albanian, paraja e bardhë për ditë të zezë (to save for a rainy day), kokë e këmbë (head over hills). There are many which have to do with food and cooking, e.g. a fish out of water (si pesku pa ujë), the salt of the world (kripa e botës) or in Albanian, e ka xhepin kukurec (to have pockets full), giella me kripë e kripa me karar (enough is enough), etc. Many other expressions include parts of the body as; to twist someone round one’s (little) finger (ta vërtitetë dikë me gishtin e vogël), to lead someone by the nose (ta tërheqësh dikë prej hunde), or to have something on the tip of one’s tongue (ta kësh dëcka në majë të gjuhës), which are used in the same way in English and Albanian. There are many other sources as nautical life and military life, animals, colours and so on and so forth.

These expressions take many different forms or structures, which means that they can be very short or rather long, e.g. there are combinations of adjective and noun; artet e bukura (the fine arts), bukë e vjetër (old friends), delja e zezë (the black sheep), etc. But some other expressions are much longer, e.g. to keep one’s fingers crossed (të kryqëzosh gishtat), to raise one’s glass to someone (të ngrësh dolli për shëndetin e dikujt), to put a spoke in someone’s wheel (t’i vësh shkopinjë në rrotë dikujt), etc., which are used in the same way in both languages.

3. Description of the study

There have been numerous studies on L1 and L2 comprehension and acquisition of fixed expressions but researchers have not come to an agreement about them. Different approaches suggest an L2 learner uses a variety of strategies (including guessing, using pragmatic knowledge, and experimentation) to detect the meaning of an unknown expression. The results of our study are drawn from a questionnaire completed by EFL students.

The participants were all EFL Albanian students of Korça University. They are of an upper-intermediate level. They were given a written questionnaire containing two lists of expressions one in Albanian (40) and the other in English (40). The subjects’ task was three fold: First they were requested to give the definition of each expression or at least try to explain their meanings. For those that they were uncertain of or did not know the meaning, they were requested to make a guess and write down a paraphrase. Secondly, once finished with this first task they were given two other lists in which half of the expressions were used in sentences to see if the students could guess the meanings of the unknown expressions in the first place. While for the second half of the expressions was given the correct definition for the students to check themselves and see if they were right and find out the meanings of the unknown expressions. Thirdly, they were also requested to produce simple sentences of their own to find out if they had understood the unknown expressions in the right way. There were also some simple questions that the students had to answer:

Which of these expressions (either in English or Albanian) have you heard?
How much does the definition help you to understand the meaning of the unknown expressions in L1 and L2?

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3 The expressions are taken from “Shprehje popular e rrethit të Korçës”, collected by N. Mustafa, SF. 1, (1984).
4 The sources from where they were taken are: “Illustrated American Idioms” by Curry, (1994) and “English idioms and how to use them”, by Seidl/McCordie, (1978).
How much does the context help you?
Do you find it difficult to use these expressions in sentences of your own?
Which of the English expressions have equivalents in Albanian?

The aim of this modest study was to investigate how definition and context helped them in order to assign a meaning to the unknown expressions in both L1 and L2. Sometimes students made mistakes; they were sure that they knew the meaning of the expression, and that was not always the case. Sometimes they confused two similar expressions and the like. The main problems that we noticed were as follows:

3.1 Giving the definition

What we noticed from the students’ answers was that they found it hard to give the proper definition to describe the meaning of the expression, even when they knew it. Sometimes they prefer to make sentences to describe them. It should be emphasized that they knew almost all the expressions in Albanian (probably because they were expressions used in our region in everyday speaking). On the other hand, not only were they right in explaining their meanings but also used other fixed idiomatic expressions, similar to the ones given, to describe them: e.g.

Godet me një çekan dikush (në një vrimë i bie fyellit dikush) – someone always does or says the same thing
Sa ke kopsën, hap vrimën (shtriji këmbët sa ke jorganin) – do as much as you can, not more
I ngeli këmba në gurë (i ngeci sharra në gozhdë) – something prevents someone from doing something

But, there is an Albanian expression I ngriftë dhjamët e syrit, which none of the students understood, although it is used in a sentence: I ngriftë dhjamët e syrit, qenit se na plasi! They do understand that it refers to a kind of curse, but they are not right in detecting its exact meaning, which is wishing death to someone who has upset you a lot, just die! As far as English expressions are concerned, we can say that it was hard for the students to give the right definition to describe them unless they were known to them. They could describe the meanings of the known expressions and the ones which were similar to Albanian (see section 3.3), in the first place.

When it was given the correct definition, the students found it easier to interpret the meaning of the unknown expressions, especially in English, which means that, in most of the cases, after reading the definition they could make correct sentences of their own to use them. Here are some examples of their sentences after reading the definitions. We cannot include all of them, but we have presented only some of the most typical cases.5

A wet blanket: She always is like a wet blanket. Don’t invite him, he is going to be a wet blanket in the party. *This boring meeting needs a wet blanket.

Most of the students did not give any sentences at all, probably because they did not understand it.

To be born under a lucky star: He always wins, he was born under a lucky star. She is a rich woman, she was born under a lucky star. Not all the people are born under a lucky star like you.

Not only did most of the students use it correctly, but they also provided the Albanian equivalent of it: të lindësh me këmishë.

To get the sack: I’m happy he got the sack, he was so lazy. She got the sack when she protested about her payment. *They got me the sack. *I’m surprised, it got me the sack. *He got a sack and missed his job.

Only half of the students made sentences, but some of them did not use the expression correctly.

To give someone the cold shoulder: I don’t think it’s a good idea to give your sister the cold shoulder. She didn’t like him, so she gave him the cold shoulder. You always give me the cold shoulder. *After what she did, she deserves to give a cold shoulder.

It was not difficult for the majority of the students to use it correctly.

To kick the bucket: The oldest man in your village kicked the bucket yesterday. After having suffered for so long, he kicked the bucket. My neighbor kicked the bucket last week.

Although this expression is one of the most difficult to guess, when it is explained, the students use it correctly. All of them were right.

To catch someone red-handed: finally the police caught him red-handed. He was caught red-handed when he was trying to rob the bank.

5 The asterisk (*) is used to mark the incorrect uses.
Almost all the students used this expression correctly. They also paraphrased it by providing its Albanian equivalent: *ta kapësh dikë me presh në dorë*.

There are some very common expressions in English such as: *take it easy, get the message, or by and large*, which almost all the students know.

### 3.2 Usage in context

Some expressions are too difficult to guess correctly because they have no association with the original meaning of the individual words, especially in L2. Even when they are used in context, it is not easy to detect their meanings exactly. Here are some examples from the questionnaire to see how the students tried to describe the expressions after reading the sentences in which they were used. It is obvious that we have only given some of them:

*Get it in the neck (to be blamed or punished):* to be punished for something that you have done; to be criticized; to pay the consequences of an action that someone did; when someone makes a mistake and it brings consequences; *to be taken aback.*

*Hard act to follow (excellent performance; one difficult to surpass in quality):* when somebody is excellent in doing something, we find it hard to imitate; a person who is difficult to be imitated; *a difficult case;* something that you cannot do, it is difficult; *someone who is hard to be followed.*

*Head over hills (upside down/ completely):* *to be in love with somebody;* *to be injured;* *when someone is not concentrated.*

*Out of circulation (not out in the company of other people):* not to appear for some time; a person missing for a long time; something or someone not seen for a long time; *when something is out of use;* *not knowing what happened for some time;* *not in good condition.*

*Pop the question (ask someone to marry):* to ask somebody to marry you; to propose marriage; *to analyze the question;* *answer a question;* *raising a question;* *trying for something new.*

*Straight from the horse’s mouth (directly from the person or place where something began, a reliable source):* to hear something from a trustful person, to hear something directly; to get information directly from a person who is involved; *from the person in question.*

As it can be seen, most of the students relate its meaning with ways of questioning and only two of them were correct. This happens because this expression is very much culture-related and Albanian students cannot detect its meaning even in context: *I’m really uptight because I plan to pop the question tonight.*

We can say that this expression was difficult; only 2 students were correct and detected its meaning from the example given: *He got the news straight from the horse’s mouth – his mother.*

We say that one of the main reasons is that these expressions are not at all similar to Albanian ones.

### 3.3 Similarity with L1

Some of the expressions in English have the Albanian equivalents, which means they are very similar in structure and meaning. They were included in the questionnaire in order to see how the native language helps in understanding the meaning of idiomatic expressions in a foreign language. In the list of the English expressions, in brackets, we have given the Albanian equivalent expressions (see Appendix I). We can state that these expressions were much easier to be understood by the students. They can also make correct use of them in sentences of their own. Here are some examples: *I have the name of the book on the tip of my tongue. She can twist him round her little finger, he’s very dependent on her. When she found out what he had done, she lost her temper. Let’s forget about the past, it’s time to turn over a new leaf. He’s got lung cancer, I’m sorry he’s at death’s door. Lucky her! She can lead her husband by the nose. When I went to*
Tirana, I felt like a fish out of water. Don’t feel sorry for him, they’re just crocodile tears.

On the other hand, there is the expression to put a spoke in someone’s wheel, which has its equivalent in Albanian (t’i vësh shkopinjtë në rrotë dikujt), but which most of the students do not understand, even when its definition is given. It is obvious that the other expressions, which are different, are much more difficult to be detected and used in the right way by the students.

3.4 Making sentences

After taking into consideration the definitions of the expressions and the contexts in which they were used, the students were also requested to make simple sentences of their own to use the expressions in both languages. Understanding fixed idiomatic expressions and interpreting them is as important as using them in the proper way and context. After all, the main purpose of why people learn them is to be able to use them (see 3.1).

4. Concluding remarks

The results from the questionnaire indicated that fixed expressions are hard to be understood and learned in L1 and L2. After having carefully considered the students’ answers, we can draw these conclusions: First, the students know most of the expressions in Albanian simply because they have heard them more often. They do not find it very difficult to use them correctly and sometimes even by paraphrasing them with other similar expressions although “There are semantic as well as pragmatic constrains on idioms’ use that go beyond the scope of a simple paraphrase” (Cacciari 1993, p. 27). Secondly, it is much more difficult for them to detect the meaning of the unknown English expressions even when they are used in context or their definition is given. We can say that the English expressions, which have equivalent counterparts in Albanian, are understood and used in the proper way, although not always. Thirdly, we also noticed that the students find it easier to detect the meaning of the unknown expression in both L1 and L2 when they are given the definition than when they are used in context. Lastly, we would conclude that comprehension and interpretation of the unknown idiomatic expressions is difficult because of their special features. Out of context, their meanings are difficult to be detected in the native and foreign language as well. But acquiring and using them in the proper context or situation is harder. These tendencies hold true for learners of English or any other language in the world.

References


Appendix I: The list of English and Albanian fixed expressions included in the questionnaire:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English fixed expressions</th>
<th>Albanian fixed expressions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. By word of mouth:</td>
<td>1. Bën allatkë me dikë:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Come out of one’s shell:</td>
<td>2. Nga avllia duket shtëpia:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Get it in the neck:</td>
<td>3. Mos na bëj baltë:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Get the message:</td>
<td>4. S’te jep as barin e zgjebes dikush:</td>
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<tr>
<td>(marr mesazhin)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Give (lend) an ear to: (I vë veshin diçkaqe ose dikujt)</td>
<td>5. Të kám parë edhe në behar:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Expression</td>
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<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Hard act to follow:</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Head over hills:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Keep one’s fingers crossed: (tà kryqëzosh gishtat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Lose one’s temper: (tà humbësh toruan)</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Out of circulation:</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>Pop the question:</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>Save for a rainy day:</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Skate on thin ice:</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>Snake in the grass:</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>Straight from the horse’s mouth</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>Take it easy:</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>Crocodile tears: (lotë krokodil)</td>
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<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>A blind date:</td>
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<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>A wet blanket:</td>
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<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>A fish out of water:</td>
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<td>21.</td>
<td>The salt of the world:</td>
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<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>A skeleton in the cupboard:</td>
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<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>To put a spoke in someone’s wheel: (t’i vësh shkopinjë në rotë dikujt)</td>
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<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>A storm in a tea-cup:</td>
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<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>To call someone names:</td>
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<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>To drop a line to someone:</td>
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<td>27.</td>
<td>To raise one’s glass to someone:</td>
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<td>28.</td>
<td>To lead someone by the nose:</td>
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<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>By and large:</td>
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<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>To be born under a lucky star:</td>
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<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>To be at death’s door:</td>
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<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>To get the sack:</td>
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<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>To give someone the cold shoulder:</td>
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<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>To pull someone’s leg:</td>
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<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>To turn over a new leaf:</td>
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<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>To spill the beans:</td>
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<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>To kick the bucket:</td>
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<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>To catch someone red-handed;</td>
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<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>To twist someone round one’s (little) finger: (ta vërtitësh dike me gishtin e vogël)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>To have something on the tip of one’s tongue: (ta kesh dëcka në majë të gjuhës)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Abstract

Postmodernism, which making a principle ambiguousness and uncertainty instead of rationality and functionality of modernism and skeptical any statement, has brought many innovations to literature. Postmodernism is trying to utter the elements which cannot be displayed when applied to literature, it benefits from intertextuality, so it doesn’t ignore before, makes references and also reminiscent of the Works. However, this understanding eliminates all the existent spaces, times and concepts of personality and revealed new spaces, times and self-described personalities determined by each author. On that score, postmodernism, which nourishes from subjectivity, isn’t clearly identified. This concept defined as postmodernism, which approaches skeptic to be defined, is uncertain, formed as uncertainty and clear to all kinds of variability. So in this study its reflections in literature will be discussed. Consequently, a review will be on what one need to have to examine postmodern literary Works, with examples of this work (Fame).

Keywords: Postmodernism, Daniel Kehlmann, Ruhm (Fame), metafiction, intertextuality.

1. Introduction

Postmodernism is not a fact that can easily be described both as a concept and also in terms of its reflection to literature. A concept and way of thinking reflection to literature, the description of postmodernism is still being tried to be defined. Furthermore, obscurity of the word and hardness in definition has retained this movement that shows itself in literature from de facto descriptions. One of the most significant reasons of this is that postmodernism includes eclectical structure; particularly it includes many things from each period, each author, and each literal work within literary content. Rather than trying to describe this development the principle of which is to include invisible elements, obscurity and indefinableness with words, a criteria catalogue can be established by using literal works that can be described as postmodern. This method can be more de facto as the beginning point will be samplings and thus this can determine the place of the work in hand among the other works that are also described as postmodern. In this study, criteria catalogue will be established rather than describing the concept with aforementioned purposes and compliance of work by Daniel Kehlmann called “Fame” to the literal form named postmodernism will be examined as per these criteria. The original name of the Work is “Ruhm” but its english translation “Fame” will be used in the paper.

There is a group that claims postmodernism as a culture and idea movement that follows modernism in principle conceptually (see: http://www.frustfrei-lernen.de). Besides from this, another group considers postmodernism as a phase that exceeds modernism, that interrogates recognized certainties and conclusiveness of modern science and as a reflection of what people are curious about incredible and unthinkable issues (Türk, 2012: 16). To Ihab Hassan “The word postmodernism sounds not only awkward uncouth; it evokes what it wishes to surpass or suppress, modernism itself” (Hassan, 1993: 148). Postmodern literature has changed perceive of Unity (Einheit), Identity (Identität), and Meaning (Sinn) concepts in Modern literature. On the contrary to the modernism that does not accept the deficiency of these, it assumes the lack of unity, identity and meaning as a profit and even accepts this deficiency as it paves the way for pluralism (Just as Lyotard and Welsch asserts) (see: Harbers, 2000:9).

In our study, work will be studied under the titles of kitsch, identity, eclectical structure and metafiction. A general evaluation will be carried out basing on all these elements within the frame of plurality.
2. Kitsch

The origin of the word “Kitsch” (Werkkitschen) is German and this word is generally described as disprize, desublimation, commercialization, duplication and aesthetic improperness. All works excluding aesthetic concerns (aesthetic guided) were evaluated as kitsch in modernism and these kinds of works were not accepted as significant in modern literature. This style that was not accepted by modernism. Postmodern literature and kitsch is tried to be included in art together with pop art. Thus kitsch is included in art as against modernism (see: Aslışen, 2006: 6). Kitsch is fed with some instruments such as eclecticism, intertextuality, metafiction, plurality, a lasting place for itself. Specified as “Making art entertaining” (op.cit.: 3) kitsch had negative meaning at first, but nowadays it has a positive uncertainty and irony in literature. As the mass media gains more importance day by day meaning in some way thanks to postmodern literature (see: Gelfert, 2010:164). “It’s main purpose is to convey the message to the addressee in a direct way and in a way that easily be understood and do not have any aesthetic concern for this purpose.” (op.cit.: XII). Kitsch is smartened with paradoxical items and includes heavy emotional themes and thus easily let people wander around realms of imaginary. “Fame” by Daniel Kehlmann contains kitsch elements and can be considered as it serves to postmodern literature. The most remarkable kitsch elements in novel can be seen with dilemmas in stories. The protagonists are between two women and while praising one, and insist on desiring for other and also can give up none of them. This situation is mentioned in the first and fourth stories but the most dominant one is seen in the eight one. Depression arising from this case and the completion of the crisis are left for reader. The protagonist, stock his wife, Hannah, and his beloved, Luzia, continues his life with several lies and expresses the ease of deceiving and being deceived because of technology:

“How strange that technology has brought us into a world where there are no fixed places anymore. You speak out of nowhere, you can be anywhere, and because nothing can be checked, anything you chose to imagine is, at bottom, true. If no one can prove me where I am, if I myself am not absolutely certain, where is the court that can adjudicate these things?” (Fame: 100).

“How did it happen in old days? How did you lie and deceive, how did you have affairs, how did you get away and manipulate and orginize your secret activities without the help of ultra-sophisticated technology?” (op.cit.: 101).

One of the protagonists who have dilemmas is Ebling. Despite his unreliable attitude against technology as a technician, in the end, he cannot refuse the bringing of the era and bought himself a cell phone. And then the moments that he does not want to be far away from his mobile phone explicitly show his addiction to it increasing day by day: “Not so long ago you didn’t want anything to do with one (phone), and now you don’t budge an inch without it. Just relax-nothing can be that urgent” (op.cit.: 16).

Furthermore, kitsch elements can also be observed in the second story, “In Danger”. A successful author Leo Richter is always being asked about the origin of his ideas. Leo answers this question in an ironic way and says “bath-tube”. Being expected to give more serious, didactic and guiding answer on the origin of his ideas as it is significant, Leo surprises everyone with this way of reply:

“Why do they always ask that?” Leo whispered in the car. “Where do I get my ideas from. What kind of a question is that, what am I supposed to say?”

“Well, what do you tell them?”

“Bathtub.”

“Excuseme?”

“I say I gey all my ideas in the bathtub. That does it for them. They’re happy” (op.cit.:24).

There is nothing in Kitsch that is impossible. Postmodern literature reunites the things that are accepted as impossible with reader by turning these into possible things. Rosalie wants Leo Richter, who is her creator, to heal her disease. At first Leo expresses that this is impossible but then heals her and even make her younger. (see: 33,34,45) Being a novel hero, Lara Gaspard emerges in the last story, “In Danger” as a real novel hero. She meets and converses with Elizabeth:

“Excuse me.” A handshake, both soft and strong. “A pleasure to meet you. I’m Lara Gaspard.”

“You’re…” Elisabeth rubbed her forehead. “Weren’t you….in America?”

“A long story. Very complicated. My whole life is one long story of complications” (op.cit.: 116).

Some sources indicate that Miguel Auristos Blancos hero in the sixth story, is a copy of Brazilian author Paulo
Coelho and this can be considered as kitsch. The reason for this is the similarity between Miguel’s guiding books and ideas on personal development and Paulo Coelho’s ideas (see: http://www.berlinerliteraturkritik.de). In this story, ideas on Miguel or the style of the author is completely compatible with kitsch. While kitsch is evaluated as copy of the originals, the similarities between Miguel and Paulo are examples for this situation:

“As always when he came back from the toilet, he felt both comforted and prey to a vague melancholy. (...) he trotted on a groaning, Rolling treadmill about which he had once written a little book on the affirmation of uniformity, the changes within continuity, and the gentle swaying of the spirit as it moves between exhaustion and concentration” (Fame: 71).

In addition to this, it is also remarkable that the life style of the hero in the eighth story and Coelho have many similarities. Coelho’s mother continuously tells that he should choose engineering as an occupation just as his father, rather than choosing authorship, so does the father of the hero of the story by expressing that reading books is not an occupation and in the end the hero studies in electrical engineering and specializes in mobile communication (see. op.cit.: 94).

The works that can be described as Kitsch have universal theme and the scenes take place in unusual ambiances. This novel also refers to universal issues by using technology. Heroes Leo Richter, Elizabeth, Maria Rubinstein, Madame Riedergott try to manage the events that they face with in far away and exotic places (Central Asia, Central America, Africa).

3. Identity

Phenomenon of identity in postmodern literature emerges in comply with plurality, obscurity, metafiction technique and eclectic structure of postmodernism. Characters are self-alienated, lean questioning themselves and try to know themselves by getting even within the plot. The identity crisis of the characters in aforementioned work by Daniel Kehlmann is explicit. All characters in stories question their existence, identity and personality:

“To distract herself, she looks in the goldframed mirror that’s hanging on the wall. Is that really us? These little hats and crocodile handbags and eccentrically made-up faces, these fussy gestures and ridiculous clothes? What happened?”
(op.cit.: 35) (also see the pages 93,94,102)

Identity that covers obscurity propels readers to differentiate the real entities and fictional entities. There are not any characteristic features of heroes and therefore there are not any specifications that reflect their identity. Who is who, where is where, what is real, what is fictional is not known, everything is messed up, in obscurity and interlocked. Identity that directs us on personifying people, has acquired a new dimension in this work in associate with postmodern literature and has abolished the possibility of personifying characters:

“Every one of us was once promised the kingdom of heaven and none of us wants to acknowledge that we’re part of these people we never wanted anything to do with, have been for years, that nothing about s is exceptional, and that it’s precisely the sense that we’re different that makes us so banal” (op.cit.: 98).

Heroes that question their existence, their place in the society that is to say their reflections disappear. Their being alone and away from their friends and families cause their curiosity on whether they are being realized or not and thus lead a new question for them. In this story, the reality that they are not recognized results in a new identity crisis as they are sure that they will be recognized. In the mean time, their existence becomes alienated to themselves:

“Was it possible that the others hadn’t (hadn’t) noticed she was missing, or that they’d accepted some threadbare explanation to avoid any delay in their own departure? Something told her this was perfectly possible” (op.cit.: 62,63).
(also see: 64, 93,94)

Characters impersonated into different characteristics. Changes in identity which are at first entertaining causes dilemma on people and result in forgetting their identities that is who they are. Ebling, pretends as Ralf, starts to play within the play and Ralf Tanner who strips from his identity by creating a new identity for himself with his new name, Mathias Wagner, also loses his Ralph identity in the end: “He would like to have known more about Ralf’s life; after all, it was now, to small extent, his life too” (op.cit.: 13; also see: 48, 49, 50).

One of the other attention grabbing points is that Ralf’s new identity is actually a character that tries to have Ralf’s
identity. That means Ralf is trying to have a new identity getting rid of his own, but his preference is a character that
pretends to be Ralf. This case that is stripping from his own identity refers freedom for him. As we can observe the same
situation in other characters –characters’ being alienated from their identities eventually- reminds us the need or wish in
having someone else’s identities by leaving ours when faced with some situations. The reason for that is sometimes it is
hard to be ourselves. Therefore Ralf finally realizes that nobody resemble to its own (self):

“No, he thought on the streetcar on the way to Matthias Wagner’s place. Of course it didn’t prove anything of the sort, it
merely showed that self-examination disturbs the personality, deflects the will, and saps the mind; it proved that no one,
seen clearly from the outside, resembles themselves at all” (op.cit.: 51). (also see: 55,92)

People in postmodern literature are engaged with their own interests and worries that they cannot realize the
things going on. This is the starting point of the disidentification of characters:

“(…)and yet again she was forced to realize that people were bound up in their own preoccupations and worries, and
registered so little of what was actually going on in front of them” (op.cit.:29).

“Mirror” that helps people, lost among disidentification, facing-off the realities is found as a strong metaphor. Motive
of mirror ends up dreams and fictions and leads characters face with realities. Moreover, it emerges how the characters
are alienated to themselves and their identities. “Ralf paused for awhile in front of the mirror on the wall, and watched his
face become less and less recognizable by the second” (op. cit.:52). (also see: 35,45,48,53)

Besides metaphor of mirror, there is also motive of “glass” and it has the same reference with mirror that is
reflection of people: “He tried to see himself in the glass, but it didn’t work, any more than it did in shop Windows, there
seemed to be no more reflecting surfaces to be found anywhere” (op.cit.: 53). (also see: 55, 56)

Existences of heroes are not determined with sharp and net borders. A hero that is created can disappear all of a
sudden and without any reason. This can be associated with the dialectics of postmodern literature:

“For like Rosalie I cannot imagine that I’m a nothing if I’m not being observed by somebody else, and that my only half-
real existence ends the moment that somebody takes his eyes off me-just as, now that I’m finally ending this story, Rosalie
cesses to exist. From one moment to the next. Without any death throes, pain, or transition” (op.cit.: 46).

Change of identity is shown in fifth story in a different way. In this story Maria Rubinstein attends a meeting abroad
on behalf of Leo, as Leo cannot attend this meeting. So Maria does everything and lives instead of Leo: “I’m here instead
of Leo Richter. They sent me his ticket. I’m replacing him” (op.cit.: 58).

As in seventh story another dimension of identity change is observed. Being addicted to internet our hero, Mollwitz,
enters into forum sites by leaving his own identity apart and having pseudonym and information. This is a transformation
for him that means transferring himself into another thing:

“Leo used stuff he saw? Guys he met? Events that happened? Yes, he could even us me. Nothing against it! Appearing in
a story – really no different from being in a chat room. Transformation! Transport yourself into some other place. In a story
I’d be someone else, but also me. In the same world as Lara” (op.cit.: 85).

As change of identities provides leaving characters’ own identities, looking from external perspective and
evaluation and questioning their identities, it gains a new point of vision:

“(…)And suddenly was seeing myself from the outside as if it wasn’t me; result more stuttering, and result more stuttering
still. (…)I saw myself standing there looking at myself” (op.cit.: 87,88).

Heroes’ changing their identities and emerging with more than one identities in Postmodern literature can be in
relation with the principle of plurality. This can be interpreted as wish of being sophisticated. In parallel to the principle of
plurality, it can be indicated that a second personality is available in each character:

“(…)Because a man wishes to be many things. In the literal sense of the word. He wishes to be multiple. Diverse. He’d
like to have several lives. But only superficially, not deep down” (p.108,109). (also see: 100, 105,106)

After identity and kitsch, the following part is about eclectic structure and metafiction. Also in this part,
intertextuality will be mentioned.
4. Eclectic Structure and Metafiction

Postmodernism has multi-layered in its structure, it is difficult to define eclectic objects, make up literature and art. It affects the periods from Ancient and to the present day but doesn't embrace items of the properties, these items are used in a new unity and lose their roots. The eclectic nature of postmodernism makes variations by using existences, hybridizes forms and types, changes formats, removes and re-establishes. Also the eclectic structure of “Fame” shows many affects from Ancient period and many movements. In the story “Rosalie Goes off to Die”, the dialogue between Rosalie and taxi driver is remarkable: “The old riddle”, he says with a sidelong glance at her face. “Oedipus and the Sphinx. In the morning, four; at midday, two; in the evening, three. So profound, dear lady.” (op.cit.: 42)

Here the mentioned puzzle, is the puzzle asked to Oidipus on the way to Tebai by Sphinx. Sometimes, existential philosophy occurs (see: 94-95), sometimes also dreams filled with romantic effects (op.cit.: 22-23) and thoughts about reflection and reality evoking Plato (see: 53-56). At the same time, the attitudes of people through the world they live in baroque period combined with today’s requirements:

“(…)the feeling of being a prisoner dishol e part of the world was its own unique hell, you just knew instinctively you’d never get out. You’d have to be nuts to put yourself willingly in a situation like this” (op.cit.: 22).

Philosophical thoughts have dominant features in the work like the features of the periods. We have mentioned earlier, the ideas of Plato’s world and the real world (which has been exhibited in reflection) as well as the sense of skepticism are presented: “If no one can prove me where I am, if I myself am not absolutely certain, where is the court that can adjudicate these things?” (op.cit.: 100-101).

However this skeptical understanding is different from that period but this skepticism is about technology benefits. With technology the understanding of being anywhere or talking nowhere, skepticism revealed in technological era. All these are blended by the events in today’s technology era and combined under the structure of a new understanding (postmodern).

One of the most important elements of an eclectic structure in this Work is metafiction. It can be defined as fiction in fiction in fiction in a simple way. At the same time, by using metafictional elements, the postmodern authors point out a difference between reality and its linguistic representation. And also using metafictional elements point out the fictionality of fiction, involve a reader in a creation of meaning of the literary text.

In “Fame”, metafictional elements are to be found too much. In particular the concept of fiction in fiction in fiction is clearly expressed by the author in the Work:

“We’re always in stories.” (…) “stories within stories within stories. You never know where one ends and another begins! In truth, they all flow into one another. It’s only in books that they’re clearly divided” (op.cit.: 117).

The author described the structure of the Work with these words. Other metafictional features reflected in the work like this: In the story named “In Danger”, there is an author. The author’s name is Leo Richter and his character, loved by everybody, is Lara Gaspard. Leo and his girlfriend go different parts of the world to participate in a number of conferences and seminars and the questions to asked Leo are usually the same. The most striking question, “Well, what do you tell them?” “Bathtub.” (see: 24, 25, 27, 84, 86).

Leo Richter isn’t the only writer in the Work. In the story named “Replying to the Abbess”, Miguel Auristos Blancos is a writer, who writes books in a variety of personal and spiritual growth. Persons in other stories read the works of Miguel. Because of technical error, Miguel called his friend but talked with Ebling who plays as his friend. Miguel said to him “I am going to swallow the hole container,” And he answered “go right ahead”(op.cit.: 15). After this answer, Miguel puts an end to his life. Saying these words by Ebling, it is surprising that Miguel’s books lying on the table. Maria Rubinstein, a character of fifth story, is a writer who writes dedective stories, she went to a tour of Central Asia instead of Leo Richter and can not be heard about her again. (see: 56-69).

As mentioned earlier, “Fame” is a novel composed of many stories and of course this is a metafictional indication. It tells another story in itself. And these stories break the novel from traditional molds like beginning, development and conclusion. At the end of the events, it is not certain where they begin and end, the reader can not take any result or doctrine from the story. That can be seen as a significant example of postmodern literary text feature as well.

Readers need to consider the following point: Who wrote the story named “Rosalie Goes off to Die”, Leo Richter or Daniel Kehlmann? The answer is not obvious.

Another example of metafiction is a fictional character in communication with author. The fictional character
Rosalie is in contact with the author, who creates and characterizes her, through the story, when she is unwilling to do in her life:

"Rosalie, it' not with in my power. I can't. Of course you can! It's your story" (op.cit.: 34).

Metafictional elements of the Work are; fiction in fiction in fiction, a novel about a novel-author, a novel in a novel itself, a fictional character in a contact with the author, without beginning, development and conclusion.

In postmodern literature, metafiction has a close relationship with intertextuality. Intertextuality is a concept often associated with postmodernism, more particularly with that sphere of postmodernism where literature encounters critical theory (Kusmir, 2005:35). Julia Kristeva's definition of intertextuality is important: “Any text is constructed of a mosaic of quotations; any text is the absorption and transformation another” (Kristeva, 1980: 66). In Julia Kristeva’s understanding, literary text is not only a product of a single author but of its relationship to other text and to the structures of language itself (Pokrivcak, 2006: 18). In the works intertextuality will occur in many different ways. Pokrivcak, classifies them as follows: “direct reference, allusion, quotation, echo, plagiarism, collage, mosaic, palimpsest and others” (op.cit.: 20).

“Fame” shows similar features with “New York Trilogy” by Paul Auster. The first story of “Fame”, “Voices”, thematizes confounding telephone numbers and reaching wrong person and then everything changes into a play. In the novel “City of Glass”, a couple of evening Quinn called by a person he doesn’t know. He says that he wants to talk a dedective named Paul Auster and in third call, Quinn introduces himself as Paul Auster and play begins like that. Intertextuality factors of “Fame” are parody and collage. Work, in general, as stated on the cover, established nine multistory as a novel. Although each story has been seen as different from each other, they are all in a close relationship with using collage. The elements of the collage such as different styles, characters, narrative voices can be understood only in their relation to chapters, styles, characters from other parts of the book. To D’haen’s argument, postmodern collage evokes the effect of multiplicity rather than simultaneity (D’haen, 1991: 220). Postmodern collage is closely connected with fragmentation plurality and relativization. In the Work, characters, parts and story tellers are in contact with each other.

The striking spots in this collage are telephone and books. The telephone number of Ralf Tanner is accidentally given to Ebling, Ebling is bored of people who call Ralf, and so talks as if he is Ralf and causes to Miguel’s death. Telecom chief, who gives wrong number to Ebling, sends his employees to a presentation. Employee meets Leo Richter in this presentation, he is a fan of Leo especially his character Lara Gaspard. Lara Gaspard is Rosalie’s nephew. Maria Rubenstein goes to a conference on behalf of Leo Richter and she is lost there. The wrong given phone number and behaviours of people unlike themselves let the events interlocking. The story Rosalie Goes off to Die shows feature of parody in this collage. Rosalie suffers from cancer and goes to euthanasia center in Switzerland (or sent by the author). Rosalie does not want to actually do it. She has various thoughts until coming to Switzerland. She wants to have her health again and become young. At this point, it is necessary to touch upon the work “Black Swan” (Die Betrogene) by Thomas Mann. In that Work Rosalie Tümmler fells in love a young man but indeed she is away from womanhood productivity, but this love brings her womanhood again. While she is thinking to have her youthness again, she is actually cancer and dies because of this illness. Parody is conspicuous to replace the head and the end in here. Young Rosalie disappears as a breeze, old Rosalie but feels young, dies because of cancer. Eclectic structure in here turned into a different structure from the perspective of the divine by taking canon with a new approach.

The key point of this work is the fact that the mistake of telecommunications company, because of the mistake, people’s lifes confuse and everyone’s true characters appear in a sense. Author's references to usage of technology especially computers and internet are noteworthy (Fame: 78, 79, 80). Except that the references to technology in the following words about the writing is remarkable:

“(…) In addion to which, I’m not really the kind of writer who uses real facts. Others like to be metuculous and naildown every single tiny detail, so that some shop that one of their characters is wandering past has the exact right name in the book. This sort of thing leaves me cold”(op.cit.: 33).

There is a criticism to authors who write everything in a reality atmosphere. There is a subtle message directed to a realist or naturalist authors. Again, with the words of the author, it is also possible to make a distinction between reality and fiction.

“Fame” is a Work to exhibit postmodern characteristics founded on an eclectic building structure, enriched with metafiction and intertextuality. It also benefits from identity and kitsch elements by using pluralism. Aspect of pluralism of the Work can provide itemized as follows:
First need to be said, the novel composes of stories and it is the most prominent feature of pluralism. Technique of intertextuality and metafiction plays an important role here.

Characters in the Work don’t show a single personality trait, they are usually divided into two personalities revealed pluralistic.

As a matter of eclectic form, it is used some literary currents and thoughts, and not influenced only one understanding or current.

With the technique of collage breaks the linearity of narration, enables the stylistic and generic hybridity and offers a multiple, pluralistic vision of the worlds.

5. Conclusion

In this study we aimed to reveal postmodern features by means of Daniel Kehlmann’s Work “Fame”. Primarily the result we reached is about indefinability of the term. Postmodernism has been shaped by uncertainty, does not constitute elements of unity like time, space and subject. Because of not being confined in a specific timeframe, we can say that it is a literary form rather than a literary current. As mentioned at the beginning of the study, we tried to identify such cases like, complexity of plot and identity, pluralism, uncertainty, eclectic structure, collage, metafiction, intertextuality instead of making description and all of these features have been revealed by examples from the Work. These features prove to constitute a cohesive structure all the elements of postmodern literature. In light of these, if comparative analysis is made between this Work and other Works belonging to postmodern, it can be said that Fame has postmodern structure.

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The Execution of Final Judicial Decision as Part of Human Rights Legislation

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Abstract

The compulsory execution of judicial decisions like that of executive titles is one of the fundamental human rights and it serves to guarantee a regular procedure. Therefore, the decision of an independent and impartial court is meaningless in the case when no execution of a final judgment has taken place. The execution of the final judgment is an intrinsic element of the right for a regular legal process, in the framework of the article 42 of the Constitution and article 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights. The European Court of Human Rights has reached to the conclusion that if any of the parties refuses to abide by a final judgment, then the process has not finished yet, because when a party has won a case, but the decision is not executed, then his/her right are infringed. Based on the Constitutional Court, it could be derived that the execution of the final judgment is the last phase of a judicial process. Only upon the execution of such judgment one could say that the individual has won the case. A fair trial does not consist only to the process of court's decision-taking, but to the concrete actions taken by the bodies in charge to execute the final judgment. The process of the execution of the final judgment lacks with regard to the compliance with legal procedures, which is an indicator that human rights are broken. Reason to the lack of such compliance could be found to the debtor's lack of cooperation, indifference of state institutions, lack of a complete procedural legislation, lack of knowledge of the law from those in charge of the judicial decision execution, lack of funds which is especially evident in the case of the execution of the Law for the Return and Compensation of Properties and in the inability to afford the penalties placed by the European Court of Human Rights.

Keywords: human rights, final judicial decision, procedural legislation, regular legal process, executive titles.

1. Introduction

In the state of right, one of the essential principles of the democratic society, that focuses particularly on the respect of human rights, contains in itself even the duty of public authorities to execute the irrevocable judicial decisions, where their complete and effective implementation is of primary importance, with the purpose of establishing, consolidating, and developing of a judicial system that will be respectable by everyone. The execution of the irrevocable decisions is an important element of right for a regular and legal process, according to the article 42 of the Constitution and the Article 6 of the European Convention of Human Rights (Convention below), and is therefore a major part of Human Rights. The judgement should not be narrowly perceived, simply as a legal verdict but as the termination of the whole process, because a right gained is worthless if it is not achieved through the execution of the verdict.

The execution of the irrevocable verdict of the Court of Law is considered as the final stage of the realization of a right gained legally. Only after the realisation of this stage can the individual claim that he/she has accomplished his/her purpose about the gained right. Regarding what is mentioned above, in this stage must participate not only the parties, so the creditor and the debtor but also the competent institutions in charge of the execution of the irrevocable verdict, private or state owned bailiff offices. The role of the bailiff is determinative when the debtor refuses to willingly execute the duty towards the creditor. In such cases the process of correcting what was done to a disrespected right includes not only the proces of decision-making by the courts of law but the concrete actions of the responsible institutions which are in charge of executing the irrevocable judicial verdicts.

The Constitutional Court (the Court below) regarding the orientations given by the European Court of Human Rights (it will be found below as ECtHR) has declared that an issue that involves the specification of a civil right, the duration of the procedures is normally calculated from the moment when the legal procedure starts until the moment when the verdict is given and executed, in which the executive stage will be considered as the next phase of the same process. The reasonable duration of the procedures according to the article 42 of the Constitution, must be evaluated by taking in consideration the circumstances and the complexity of the case, the attitude and the interest of the seeker as
well as the attitude of the specific authorities. The Court of Law has also emphasized that regarding the execution of the judiciary decisions that assign monetary duties towards the state, the person toward whom the state is a debtor, must not be asked to initiate procedures for the execution of the verdict in order to have the compensation for the decided amount. In such cases, the right state authority must be notified in the appropriate way for the verdict in order to be in the right conditions to take all the necessary precautions to fulfill its duty or to deliver it to another state authority that is competent for the execution.

The respect towards the basic human rights and liberties in Albania has been and continues to be the main aim of the mission of the Albanian Helsinki Committee (AHC) during the 22 years of its activity. Based on this activity, AHC has created the tradition of compiling of an annual report about the respect of the human rights in the country as well as the problematic issues in this aspect. (http://ahc.org.al/site/doc The report of the human rights, Legal Clinic, December 19, 2012 pdf).

Regarding the continuous practice the ECHRR has considered an integral part of the article 6/1 of the AHC the right to demand the execution of an irrevocable verdict within a reasonable deadline. (See the decision of CHR Hornsby against Greece, March 19 1997; Georgiadis against Greece, March 28-th, 2000). ECHRR has continuously declared that the seeker must not be deprived to the right of benefiting from the favourable result of the legal process simply by supporting the argument of the financial inability of the state. (See the decision of CHR Hornsby against Greece, March 19 1997; Georgiadis against Greece, March 28-th, 2000). This Court of Law has underlined that the state must continuously take responsibility to secure the parties involved in the process that they will have real opportunities to execute the irrevocable verdict and that the right to access the Court of Law would be an illusion if the judicial system or its practical execution would be the cause that an irrevocable verdict would remain ineffective and impossible to be executed for a very long time. As it is emphasized even in other well-known international documents, the complete implementation in the most effective and efficient way of the judiciary decisions is of primary importance for the states in order to establish, enforce, and develop a respectable by all judiciary system*. (The Resolution of the Conference of the European Ministers of Justice, October 4-5-th 2001). The state of right, as one of the basic principles of a democratic society, contains in itself the obligation of the public authorities to implement the orders or the irrevocable judicial verdicts. (Decision of the ECTHR Hasan and Chaus against Bulgaria, No.30985/96, pg 87)

2. The Execution of the Verdict as an Essential Element of the State of the Right

The execution of the verdict is an essential element of the state of right and of the notion of judging one right. No state organ can cast doubt on the righteousness of the irrevocable judiciary verdicts. Each state organ is obliged to take all the precautions in anticipation for their implementation. The execution of the irrevocable verdict of the court of law is considered as the final stage in the realization of a right gained legally. Only after the termination of this stage it can be considered that the individual has completely set the things to right. Therefore the process of setting to right of a disregarded and disrespected right includes not only the process of decision making by the courts, but also the concrete actions of the organs in charge of the execution of the irrevocable judiciary verdicts. In general, the right of judgement within a reasonable period of time is an almost universal and constitutional standard and consequently, the people who claim that they were affected by the lack of respect towards such a standard, as a rule, do not have legal obstacles to demand a constitutional judgement from the Constitutional Court, therefore it is known the right to bring a constitutional suit. (Sadushi,2012, p.100).

In order to make a complete analyses of the right of the parties based on the constitutional standards in the cases that are the object of investigation, introduced in the Constitutional Court under the objective of destroying the normal legal process. (The Constitution of the Republic of Albania, 2010, article 131/f, The Constitutional Court decides that: the final judgment of the complaints of the individuals regarding the disrespect of their constitutional rights for a fair legal process, after the use of all the other juridical means for the defense of these rights), this Court takes into the consideration and analyses the provisions of the Code of Civil Procedure (CCP) related to the implementation of the judiciary decisions. These provisions clarify the legal procedures, which must be accomplished for the execution of a judiciary decision. Article 451/a of CCP provide that the decision which is irreversible must be obligatory for the parties, their predecessors, for the people that willingly withdraw from their right, for the court that announces the verdict as well as for all the courts and other institutions. Part 4 and more precisely article510 of CCP provide that the obligatory execution can be achieved only on the basis of an executive title where among others, the civil decisions of the court that are now irrevocable, consist executive title. Article 511 provides that the executive title is executed due to the demand of the creditor and on that purpose the order of the execution is made by the court based on the article 511 of CCP. The order of the execution is executed from the judiciary bailiff always based on the request of the creditor, article 515 (The
3. The Irrevocable Judicial Verdict as an Executive Title

Every individual, to realize his/her rights that have been violated by the subjects of right such as an individual or judiciary person has the right to return things in the previous state by addressing the court, which on its part will announce an irrevocable verdict.

The execution of the irrevocable verdicts is not only a reflection of the respect of legal order, but also of lots of elements that are elaborated by the Constitutional Court for a case after case analysis after the conclusion related to the violation or not of the right because of the prolonged period of non-execution (Zaganjori, 2011). The recognition of the Right by the courts is not enough in itself to restate a right, therefore the necessity arises that the other state organ defined by the law and with the right power to achieve its purpose (Lamani, 1962), the state or private bailiiff services. Beside the European Court of the Human Rights there are 58 declared requests against Albania and 50 others that are about to be declared, in which it is claimed the violation of the rights of property as well as other rights related to it. In most of the cases the claims about the right of property according to article 1, Protokol 1, of the european Convention of the Human Rights are accompanied by the claims for the right of a fair legal process according to the article 6 and the right for effective means of complaint according to the article 13 of the ECHR. During 2000-2012 are stated verdicts for 20 cases of this kind against Albania, from which in 16 cases are observed violation of rights, sanctioned with the value of 6,571,876 euros and 1,650 m² land surface. Albania has completely executed 11 verdicts, has 2 verdicts in the execution process and three others in the process of negotiation for the value of award damages. (http://dsdc.gov.al "Intersectional strategies, reforms in the area of the right of property 2012-2020". The rights coincide with the start of 2012)

Albania has a clear legal obligation according to the article 46 of the ECHR to undertake the right precautions in order to execute the inner irrevocable decisions for the return and compensation as well as for the realization of an effective complaint in case of non-execution of the verdicts. The execution of the existent irrevocable verdicts is not only a special issue but also the most urgent from the perspective of the execution of certain verdicts of the European Court. In such situations the state has a wider evaluation margin to select the measures as well as its implementation. The Comitee of the Ministers of the EK has approved the 2010 Memorandum for the supervision of the execution of the verdicts of ECTHR by paying special attention to the cases of return and compensation of the property. In this document are verified the problems that require solutions based on the experience of the other states already members of the European Council. In answer to this document, the Council of Ministers has approved a DCM nr.350, date 29.04.201, (DCM no350, date 29.01.2011 “About the approval of the actions taken for the solution of the problems concerning the issue of property”), specified in the memorandum of the European Commitee of the Council of Ministers that includes the raport and the action plan about the omitting of the obstacles for the implementation of the inner action that recognize, return and compesate property as well as the security of the effective means for the complaint in cases in which they are not respected. Of a great importance in relation to this problem is even the Decision of The Council of Ministers no.405, date 27.6.2012 "About the Approval of the intersectorial Strategy "The Reform in the area of the right of property, 2012-2020" and of its action plan. (http://qbz.gov.al/edition/legal papers/2012/PDF-2012/86-2012.pdf).

Among the strategic objectives related to the consolidation of the democratic state based on the basic rights and liberties of the individuals about the improvement of the execution of the judiciary verdicts, the Council of the Ministers has compiled and approved the draft-constitution “About the specification of the detailed analysis of the regulation for the occurrence of the auction ” and has also drafted the draft-constitution “About the specification of the execution of the monetary duty of the state institutions for the sake of the public treasury”. (Instruction no.2, date 18.08.2011. The council of Ministers “About the way of the execution of the monetary duties of the state institutions for the account of public treasury”. This initiative has intended the execution of the judiciary verdicts in which the state is debtor.)

4. The Practice of the Constitutional Court

The Constitutional Court has a diverse practice regarding non-execution of judicial decisions in the light of respect for one of the basic rights - to a fair hearing.

1. In Decision no. 42, dated 19.07.2012, the Constitutional Court (here in after Court) has found a violation of due process as a result of failure to enforce the final court within a reasonable time. Pursuant to Article 142/3 of the Constitution, the state authorities are obliged to judicial decisions and it is self-executing provision of these bodies. State authorities can not avoid fulfilling this constitutional obligation directly with the claim that the execution of the court decision is rendered impossible or / and delayed simply and only because of the acts of...
others in the hierarchy of normative acts, sanctioned Article 116 of the Constitution, follow the Constitution because such a thing would lead to violation of the constitutional principle of the rule of law, the separation and balance of powers and the constitutional right to a fair trial. (The decision no. 42, date 19.07.2012, of the Constitutional Court). This decision consolidates the position held by the Court on violation of due process as a result of non-enforcement of a final court judgment within a reasonable time, but explaining the rules established by-laws do not preclude the obligation to avoid execution of constitutional court decisions. (Decisions: no. 8, date 23.3.2010; no. 13, date 22.4.2011; no. 13, date 21.03.2012 of the Constitutional Court).

2. In Decision no. 49, dated 26.07.2012, the Constitutional Court found a violation of the constitutional right to a fair hearing, as a result of the failure to enforce a final court of Tirana District Court in 2010. Execution, within a reasonable time, a final decision of the court, should be considered as an integral part of the right to a fair hearing. It is the final stage of implementation of the right to earn a judicially. A delay in execution of a judgment may be justified in certain circumstances, but there can be delays to such an extent as to impair the essence of the right. Reasonable length of proceedings must be assessed under the circumstances of the case and taking into account the complexity of the case, the conduct of the applicant and the relevant authorities and the applicant's interest. The issue is not specific to particular circumstances or complexity of the factual or legal point of view, that could justify a delay in the execution of the decision, to assess the behavior of public authorities and researchers is important in this context. The applicant, during the plenary session, specified that has renounced his return to work, for this reason the Court has taken in his analysis of the claims relating to the payment of salary. State authorities can not cite lack of funds as an excuse for not honoring a financial obligation arising from a judicial decision. Although METE (The Ministry of Economy, Trade and Energetics), has shown willingness to fulfill the obligation to the creditor by ordering the payment of a part thereof, the Court considers that the amount of unilaterally defined in quota of 10,000 leks per month starting from August 2011 to December 2012, for a total of 180,000 lek is disproportionate, unreasonable and unjustified in relation to the full extent of the value of the obligation in favor of the applicant (from 5,833,952 ALL), which itself violates the essence of this right and reasonable to delay the execution (The decision no. 48, date 26.07.2012, of the Constitutional Court). In this decision the Constitutional Court consolidated the position with regard to the assessment of delays in execution of a judicial decision, as a very important aspect of due process.

3. Similarly, in decision no. 49, dated 26.07.2012, the Constitutional Court found a violation of the constitutional right to a fair hearing, due to the failure to enforce a final court decision of Korca’s District Court in 1996. The issue under scrutiny does not manifest any factual or legal complexity. The applicant cannot be held liable because, due to various reasons, she requested the suspension of the execution procedure of this decision for a two-year period 2009-2011. As ECHR states, a person who receives an enforceable decision against the state in his favour, cannot be asked to go to enforcement bodies for the execution of the court decision. In terms of public authorities, getting aware of the financial liability stemming from the verdict final, Korca Municipality debtor should take all necessary measures for its execution and should not expect the propulsion of enforcement procedures, to restrictive measures (see the decision of the ECHR, dated 22.08.2006, in case Basheer and others v. Albania). While actions have been formally Executive Office, she did not use all legal means available, also in reference to Article 589 of the CPC, which recognizes the right of this subject, as is the case, he asks himself the superior release of funds for the purpose of execution of duties, and can apply sanctions against those responsible for the failure. (Decision no. 49, date 26.07.2012, The constitutional Court.)

5. Conclusions/ Recommendation

The execution of a final decision of the court is considered as the final stage of implementation of the right earned judicially. Only after completion of this phase can be considered that the individual has fully set in place the legal right. At this stage should not only actively participating parties, debtor and creditor, but the authorities charged with the enforcement of final judicial, executive offices, public or private. The role of the enforcement body becomes crucial when the debtor refuses to voluntarily execute his obligation towards the creditor. Therefore, in such cases it can be said that the process of setting in place of a right includes not only the violated court decisions, but the concrete actions of the responsible bodies charged with the execution of judicial decisions.

In a case involving the determination of a civil right, the length of proceedings is normally calculated from the start of the proceedings, until the decision is given and executed, where executive phases will be considered as a further stage
of the same process. Execution of the decision constitutes an essential element of the rule of law and the very idea of a fair trial. No state organ can be put into question about the fairness of final judicial decisions. Any public body is obliged to take appropriate measures for their implementation, and can not cite lack of funds as an excuse for not honoring a financial obligation arising from a judicial decision.

In terms of public authority, getting aware of the financial liability that results from an irrevocable verdict, the debtor that may be a state institution must take all necessary measures for its execution and must not wait for the execution of procedures until the obligatory measures are put into practice in a way that the creditor can realize its right.

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Teacher’s and Students’ Scaffolding in an EFL Classroom

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Abstract

Scaffolding is a teaching strategy which originates from Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. He proposed the concept of the zone of proximal development, illustrating the distance between what individuals can achieve by themselves and what they can achieve with assistance from others. Scaffolding is a temporary support which individuals receive from more knowledgeable others during their development. In a classroom, the scaffolding can come from the teacher of the classroom as well as students. This study investigated the scaffolding from a teacher and from classmates while students were doing tasks in the classroom setting. As the participants of the research were EFL students with low English proficiency, the research compared the scaffolding strategies used by the teacher to by the classmates. Also, it focused on the task achievement after the students received the social supports and students’ attitudes towards the scaffolding providers. The research provided recommendation on using scaffolding as a teaching strategy in an EFL classroom.

Keywords: Sociocultural theory, Scaffolding, Classroom research, Teacher-student interaction

1. Introduction

Scaffolding is an interactional process related to learning, which is highly mentioned in many research studies. Scaffolding was developed by (Vygotsky, 1978) to describe a kind of assistance given by an expert to a novice when he introduced the concept of ‘zone of proximal development’. According to Vygotsky (1978), in order to achieve tasks a novice can learn from an expert through scaffolding interaction. In the language classroom, a teacher is generally considered as ‘an expert,’ who provides scaffolded assistance to his/her students, i.e. novices.

After being proposed, the concept of scaffolding has been investigated and developed by a number of scholars and researchers. Many later research studies show that the role of ‘an expert’ is not limited to the teacher of the classroom, but students are also capable of providing each other with scaffolding. Students can offer help to their peers (for example in Donato, 1994; De Guerrero and Villamil, 2000; Ohta, 2001).

The concept of scaffolding between the teacher and students has been welcomed in Thailand. Khamwan (2007) studied the effect of interactional strategy training on teacher-student interaction, aiming to increase the effectiveness of the interaction between the teacher and students. Scaffolding is one of interactional strategies she emphasized. Charttrakul (2009) commented that “scaffolding is very important for EFL young learners, particularly in Thai classroom situations where students rarely use L2 or English in their real life” (p.14). In his article, Nomnian (2002) called for more attention to promote teacher-student scaffolding interaction in the language classroom.

According to Khamwan (2007), Thai academies feel familiar with the concept of classroom interaction between the teacher and students. The scaffolding interaction between students has received very little attention. The students are not familiar with the scaffolding from peers, and they are not trained to scaffold their peers because they don’t receive many opportunities for interaction among peers. Moreover, there were very few studies mentioned scaffolding in student interaction in Thailand.

In this study, the researcher aimed to investigate the scaffolding interaction between the teacher of the classroom and students, and the scaffolding interaction between students and students when they were in a classroom, doing activities.

2. Literature review

Classroom interaction is a great opportunity for language learning (Widdowson, 1978). There have been many studies reporting that activities stimulating interaction in the classroom are beneficial for student development of learning (Hall &
Verplaetse, 2000). The study of classroom interaction has been in focus since 1980s (Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1989). The trend is influenced by the cognitive development theories, such as Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory of learning which focuses on the dynamic social interactive process.

Scaffolding is “the dialogic process by which one speaker assists another in performing a function that he or she cannot perform alone” (Ellis, 2003, p. 180). The term ‘scaffolding’ was firstly defined by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976). According to them, scaffolding is “adult controlling those elements of the task that are essentially beyond the learner’s capacity, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence” (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976, p. 90). As the concept of scaffolding parallels the theory proposed by Vygotsky. Scaffolding was adopted and used with Vygotsky’s work (Ellis, 2003). It is a kind of supportive dialogues (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994) It is sometimes referred to as ‘assisted performance’ (Ohta, 2001).

According to Vygostky (1978), the cognitive development is the initial stage of social interaction. A child begins to learn about his sociocultural environment since the time after he was born. Then, the internalization process starts. The child internalizes information around him through interaction. Learning occurs in the ‘zone of proximal development’ (ZPD) (Lantolf, 2000). Vygotsky (1978) defined the zone as ‘the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers’ (86). This zone is not a physical place, but a metaphor (Lantolf, 2000). ZPD is a gap between what a person can accomplish independently and what the person can do with support from other people (Lantolf, 2000). Scaffolding is used to bridge the gap (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

The characteristics of scaffolding dialogue include ‘recruiting interest in the task, simplifying the task, maintaining pursuit goal, marking critical features and discrepancies between what has been produce and the ideal solution, controlling frustration during problem solving, and demonstrating an idealised version of the act to be performed’ (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976).

The scaffolding can be divided into degrees. Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) studied the interaction between a tutor and three students. Each student received special one-on-one tutorial about their writing every week. The researchers proposed the regulatory scale, which showed scaffolding behaviours. In their study, there were 12 levels in the scale, from the tutor providing examples of the correct pattern, to students being able to find and correct error by themselves. The tutor went through each scaffolding level. He gradually reduced his help to students, when they showed that they could perform the task individually. The study provided clear evidence of scaffolding behaviours, moving from implicit to explicit assistance.

Children learn through scaffolding interaction with adults. The adult is considered as an expert providing scaffolding to a child (Vygotsky, 1978). Similarly to general learning, in the classroom students learn their second language through ‘scaffolding’ dialogues with their teachers or peers in language learning (Ellis, 2003). However, some research studies reported that it is not necessary that the scaffolded assistance comes from the expert or from the teacher. The students can also scaffold their peers. For example, Donato (1994) reported evidence that students could provide support to their peers in the same way as experts, such as parents or teachers, gave help to novices, such as children or students. Similarly, De Guerrero and Villamil (2000) found that two ESL college students could assist each other while revising an essay.

Scaffolding is a kind of supportive help which enhances an individual to achieve a task. During scaffolding interaction, assistance is given bid by bid. Therefore, an individual gradually learns from interaction with others. In the classroom, scaffolding can come from both the teacher of the classroom and from classmates. This study analyzed the interaction provided by the two sources.

3. Research methodology

This article is a part of a research study investigating the scaffolding interaction and the learning development resulting from the interaction in a classroom while students were doing pair works. The report presents only the scaffolding provided by the teacher of the classroom and by classmates when the pair asked for help.

The data of the study were from a teacher of the classroom who was also the researcher of the research, and 14 voluntary university students, who enrolled on an English course. They were seven (7) females and five (5) males, who were approximately 18 - 19 years old. This study considered these students as students with low level of proficiency as all of them were repeater students, i.e. they experienced failing either the previous course or the current course.

At the end of each class session, students in the class were given a collaborative task to review and practice what they had learned. Fourteen student participants did the same task. The only difference was that their conversation during each task was audio recorded. Because the given task required working in pairs, students paired up with their self
selected pairs. As the teacher of the classroom, I visited each pair of students to give assistance when they asked for help.

All audio recorded talks of research participants were transcribed and translated into English. Then, the interaction was analyzed for language related episodes. A language related episode (LRE) is a part of a dialogue which the students “talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves or others” (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, p. 326). The interaction which was not about language was excluded from the study. In this paper, the analysis focused especially on the scaffolding interaction which the teacher or classmates gave to the student pairs. The scaffolding interactions were counted and analyzed. In addition to the conversational data, the participants were interviewed to give reflections on their interaction.

4. Findings

The data in the study was based on audio recordings collected while the participants were pairing up to do eight (8) tasks at the end of each classroom session. According to the analysis, 445 LREs were found in the study. There were 95 (21%) of total LREs showing that the student participants sought help from either the teacher of the classroom or from their classmates (39 LREs; 41%). The details of the 95 LREs are presented in this paper.

4.1 Language related episodes with scaffolding

It was found that the students with low level of proficiency tended to request help from the teacher (56 LREs; 58%) more than from their classmates (39 LREs; 41%). The data further revealed that out of 56 LREs of the teacher’s scaffolded assistance, 49 (87%) LREs led to positive outcomes, 2 (4%) LREs led to negative outcomes and 5 (9%) LREs were rejected. Out of 39 LREs of students’ scaffolded assistance, 19 (49%) LREs led to positive outcomes, 9 (23%) LREs led to negative outcomes and 11 (28%) LREs were rejected.

Table 1: Scaffolded assistance from the teacher and from the students

As all of the 95 LREs showed that the students consulted with their classmates before they turned to their teacher, I did an interview after the analysis asking students to explain about their preference of seeking help. Their responses were interesting. All students agreed that the teacher was a reliable source, and they thought that suggestions from the teacher were always correct. When their classmates could not provide them satisfying information, they could consult with the teacher at the end. Therefore, they wanted to try by themselves before getting the teacher’s support.

4.2 Scaffolding strategies

The teacher and the students provided scaffolding to the student pairs differently. In this section, some extracts of student talks were provided to illustrate the ways which the teacher and the students gave scaffolded assistance.

4.2.1 Teacher’s scaffolding

Extract 1 shows how the teacher of the classroom scaffolded her students. In this extract, a pair of student, Gail and Amy, was doing a text editing task. The task required them to rewrite a paragraph with infinitive verbs to a paragraph with appropriate verb tenses. From the extract the students were talking about the past form of the verb ‘catch’. They did not know anything about the verb, so they decided to ask me, the teacher of the class, for help (Turn 65).
4.2.2 Students’ scaffolding

Extract 2 demonstrates assistance classmates provided to their peers. In this extract, Ivy and Jane were doing a picture-story task. They wrote a story to describe a series of pictures. While they were working, the pair could not find an appropriate clause connector. They asked for help in Turn 86. Ryan provided help to Ivy and Jane in Turn 89. He suggested the pair to use the word ‘so’ and told them to put it in front of a sentence. Ryan’s advice was not quite right. It was not appropriate for Ivy and Jan’s text as can be seen in Turn 95. Ryan did not explain how and when to use the word ‘so’.

Extract 2: ‘Then - so’

I assisted the pairs to do the task four times. I pronounced the word in Turn 67 and told them that the verb ‘catch’ had an irregular form in Turn 69. In Turn 71, I gave the students the meaning of the verb ‘catch’ in Thai and then in Turn 101 and 103 I suggested the pair to use their electronic dictionary to find the past form of the verb ‘catch’. In this situation, Gail owned an electronic dictionary. However, her dictionary did not clearly show the past form of the verb ‘catch’. Instead, it provided the meaning in English, which the pair could not comprehend, and gave only the infinitive form of the verb ‘catch’. I realized that Gail could not get the past form of the verb ‘catch’, therefore I told them the past form of the verb ‘catch’ and asked them to seek the word ‘caught’ in the dictionary.

The strategies that the teacher and classmates provided help were quite different. As illustrated in Extract 1 and Extract...
2, the teacher of the classroom tended to provide assistance to the pair bid by bid. The helps were gradually given. The teacher increased her help when she realized that the students could not go on without her support. Unlike the scaffolding given by the teacher, students responded differently when they were requested from their peers to help. The students usually provided answers to their peers immediately. Their assistance might support their peer to achieve the tasks. However, they did not estimate how much assistance was needed and how much assistance should be given to their peers. According to the interview, some students reported that they usually gave their peers solutions without any explanation because they might know a correct answer but they could not explain how to reach the answers.

When the teacher of the class scaffolds her students, the aim of the assistance is to encourage students learning. The aim of students’ scaffolding seems to help their classmates complete a task. Because of different aims, the assistance appears differently. The teacher carefully and gradually gives scaffolding while students give fast and direct solutions.

In Extract 3, Vicky and Cara were doing a text editing task. The pair was not certain about the past form of the verb ‘give’. Vicky asked Hugo, her nearby classmate. Hugo told the pair that the verb did not require any tense in Turn 52 and Turn 54. Vicky asked me the same question in Turn 59 and Turn 61, and I suggested them that ‘gave’ was the past form of ‘give’ in Turn 64 and 66. As I did not tell the pair how to spell the word, Vicki and Cara could not complete the task. Hugo could not help them in Turn 74. Finally, they decided to write ‘gived’ in their work even though they know that it was wrong in Turn 80.

Extract 3: ‘Give-given’

In this extract, Vicky and Cara received help from the teacher only once. At that time, I was busy with other students because it was near the end of the class. Despite the pair got the teacher’s assistance, the pair decided to give up. The teacher’s assistance was not effective as it was too slow and not enough to help them complete the task.
5. Conclusion and discussion

In the classroom, not only the teacher can scaffold students, students with low level of English proficiency can also successfully scaffold their peers. It is not necessary that the scaffolding comes from an expert or a teacher. Novices or students who are not fluent in English can also give help. Ohta (2001) explained that students can help their peers because each student has different strengths and weaknesses. Also, students have different interactive roles during interaction. While ones are speaking, the others are listening. Therefore, it is easy for them to notice problems their peers encountering and provide solutions.

The teacher of the classroom and students provide help differently. The teacher increases help to her students when she considers necessarily and withdraws when it is not needed. In contrast, students are not able to control the degree of assistance. They tend to tell everything they know to their peers. Their assistance seems to be more knowledge sharing than scaffolding. The students are willing to share what they know. However, their knowledge may not be enough for them to provide deep explanations. The scaffolding from students may help complete tasks, but it may not enhance learning as much as the scaffolding from the teacher.

Teacher’s scaffolding comes in a series of assistance. Students may not get direct solution immediately. Students’ scaffolding is more straightforward. The scaffolding from the teacher is sometimes ignored. Therefore, the teacher should monitor the students’ performance closely and provide assistance continuously until the students are able to work on their own.

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Application of Direct Marketing Tools in the Nonprofit Sector. The Albanian Case

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Abstract

Non-profit organizations rely on direct marketing tactics to attract the target market. Managers of nonprofit organizations use direct marketing to attract donors, recruit volunteers and attract beneficiaries. Direct marketing tools are used by non-profit organizations for many years. This concept was expanded to include not only mail but any medium that provides a two-way communication with the target audience. The development of technology in this field has created new communication possibilities, although traditional methods are still effective. The purpose of this paper is to identify what are the forms of direct marketing used by non-profit organizations operating in Albania in attracting the target market. Information will be provided about the use of direct marketing tools to attract donors, volunteers, and beneficiaries by type of nonprofit organizations and their location. Secondary data helped to obtain information on the use of direct marketing tool by non-profit organizations while primary data helped to obtain information on the use of direct marketing by non-profit organizations operating in Albania. For primary data collection were used questionnaires to the non-profit organizations operating in Albania. For the interpretation of primary data, extracting conclusions and recommendations are used focus groups, representatives of whom were executive directors of nonprofit organizations.

Keywords: Direct Marketing, nonprofit sector.

1. Introduction

Direct marketing is a communication and sale channel that allows businesses and nonprofits organizations to communicate straight to the customer, with advertising techniques that can include direct mail, email, interactive consumer websites, online display ads, fliers, catalog distribution, promotional letters, and outdoor advertising.

Direct mail fundraising is a form of direct marketing widely used by nonprofit organizations in North America and Europe to recruit or "acquire" new donors or members and to inform, cultivate and "upgrade" the level of their contributions or dues. The technique has been shown to work equally well in many other countries across the globe. Its use is spreading quickly.

The professional use of direct mail fundraising requires an understanding both of the principles and practice of direct marketing and of the discipline of fundraising. In direct marketing, practitioners view large numbers of prospects or donors through the lens of statistics. Fundraising teaches us how to view prospects or donors as individuals, with unique values, beliefs, and preferences.

In its modern form, direct mail fundraising appeared in the United States after World War II, when nationwide charities such as the National Easter Seal Society sought ways to broaden their fundraising base.

Direct mail fundraising has its own unique jargon, much of it related to the art and science of creating, producing and mailing the right appeal to the right list at the right time, and measuring the results.

Direct marketing is attractive to many marketers because its positive results can be measured directly. For example, if a marketer sends out 1,000 solicitations by mail and 100 respond to the promotion, the marketer can say with confidence that campaign led directly to 10% direct responses. This metric is known as the 'response rate,' and it is one of many clearly quantifiable success metrics employed by direct marketers. In contrast, general advertising uses indirect measurements, such as awareness or engagement, since there is no direct response from a consumer.

Measurement of results is a fundamental element in successful direct marketing. The Internet has made it easier for marketing managers to measure the results of a campaign. This is often achieved by using a specific website landing page directly relating to the promotional material. A call to action will ask the customer to visit the landing page, and the effectiveness of the campaign can be measured by taking the number of promotional messages distributed (e.g., 1,000) and dividing it by the number of responses (people visiting the unique website page). Another way to measure the results is to compare the projected sales or generated leads for a given term with the actual sales or leads after a direct
advertising campaign.

While many marketers recognize the financial benefits of increasing targeted awareness, some direct marketing efforts using particular media have been criticized for generating poor quality leads, either due to poor message strategy or because of poorly compiled demographic databases. This poses a problem for marketers and consumers alike, as advertisers do not wish to waste money on communicating with consumers not interested in their products.

Some of these concerns have been addressed by direct marketers by the use of individual "opt-out" lists, variable printing, and better-targeted list practices. Additionally, in order to avoid unwanted mailings, members of the marketing industry have established preference services that give customers more control over the marketing communications they receive in the mail.

Consumers have expressed concerns about the privacy and environmental implications of direct marketing. In response to consumer demand and increasing business pressure to increase the effectiveness of reaching the right customer with direct marketing, companies specialize in targeted direct advertising to great effect, reducing advertising budget waste and increasing the effectiveness of delivering a marketing message with better geo-demography information, delivering the advertising message to only the customers interested in the product, service, or event on offer. Additionally, members of the advertising industry have been working to adopt stricter codes regarding online targeted advertising.

2. Literature Review

Any medium that can be used to deliver a direct communication to a customer can be employed in direct marketing, including:

**E-mail marketing:** Sending marketing messages through email is one of the most widely used direct-marketing methods. One reason for email marketing's popularity is that it is relatively inexpensive to design, test, and send an email message. It also allows marketers of nonprofit sector to deliver messages and to accurately measure responses.

**Online tools:** With the expansion of digital technology and tools, direct marketing is increasingly taking place through online channels. Most online advertising is delivered to a focused group of customers and has a trackable response.

- **Display Ads** are interactive ads that appear on the Web next to content on Web pages or Web services. Formats include static banners, pop ups, videos, and floating units. Customers can click on the ad to respond directly to the message or to find more detailed information.

- **Social Media Sites,** such as Facebook and Twitter, also provide opportunities for direct marketers to communicate directly with customers by creating content to which customers can respond.

**Mobile.** Through mobile marketing, marketers engage with prospective customers and donors in an interactive manner through a mobile device or network, such as a cellphone, smartphone, or tablet. Types of mobile marketing messages include: SMS: (short message service) — marketing communications are sent in the form of text messages, also known as texting. MMS: (multi-media message service). These messages use elements such as images, video, and audio.

**Telemarketing:** Another common form of direct marketing is telemarketing, in which marketers contact customers by phone. The primary benefit to businesses is increased lead generation, which helps businesses increase sales volume and customer base. The most successful telemarketing service providers focus on generating more "qualified" leads that have a higher probability of getting converted into actual sales.

**Voicemail Marketing:** Voicemail marketing emerged out of the market prevalence of personal voice mailboxes, and business voicemail systems. Voicemail marketing presented a cost effective means by which to reach people directly, by voice. More recently, businesses have utilized guided voicemail (an application where pre-recorded voicemails are guided by live callers) to accomplish personalized business-to-business marketing formerly reserved for telemarketing. Because guided voicemail is used to contact only businesses, it is exempt from Do Not Call regulations in place for other forms of voicemail marketing. Voicemail courier is a similar form of voicemail marketing with both business-to-business and business-to-consumer applications.

**Broadcast Faxing:** Broadcast faxing, in which faxes are sent to multiple recipients, is now less common than in the past. Also due to the popularity of a variety of digital communication methods, the overall use of faxes is less than in the past.

**Couponing:** Couponing is used in print and digital media to elicit a response from the reader. An example is a coupon which the reader receives through the mail and takes to a store’s check-out counter to receive a discount.
Digital Coupons: Manufacturers and retailers make coupons available online for electronic orders that can be downloaded and printed. Digital coupons are available on company websites, social media outlets, texts, and email alerts. There are an increasing number of mobile phone applications offering digital coupons for direct use.

Direct Response TV: Direct marketing via television (commonly referred to as DRTV) has two basic forms: long form (usually half-hour or hour-long segments that explain a product in detail and are commonly referred to as infomercials) and short form, which refers to typical 30-second or 60-second commercials that ask viewers for an immediate response (typically to call a phone number on screen or go to a website). TV-response marketing can be considered a form of direct marketing, since responses are in the form of calls to telephone numbers given on-air. This allows marketers to reasonably conclude that the calls are due to a particular campaign, and enables them to obtain customers' phone numbers as targets for telemarketing.

Direct Mail: The term "direct mail" is used to refer to communications sent to potential customers or donors via the postal service and other delivery services. Direct mail is sent to customers based on criteria such as age, income, location, profession, buying pattern, etc.

Direct mail includes advertising circulars, catalogs, free-trial CDs, pre-approved credit card applications, and other unsolicited merchandising invitations delivered by mail to homes and businesses.

Direct Response Radio: In direct response radio, ads contain a call to action with a specific tracking mechanism. Often, this tracking mechanism is a "call now" prompt with a toll-free phone number or a unique Web URL. Results of the ad can be tracked in terms of calls, orders, customers, leads, sales, revenue, and profits that result from the airing of those ads.

Out-of-home direct marketing refers to a wide array of media designed to reach the consumer outside the home, including billboards, transit, bus shelters, bus benches, aerials, airports, in-flight, in-store, movies, college campus/high schools, hotels, shopping malls, sport facilities, stadiums, taxis, that contain a call-to-action for the customer to respond.

Magazine and newspaper ads often include a direct response call-to-action, such as a toll-free number, a coupon redeemable at a brick-and-mortar store, or a QR code that can be scanned by a mobile device — these methods are all forms of direct marketing, because they elicit a direct and measurable action from the customer.

Direct selling is the sale of products by face-to-face contact with the customer, either by having salespeople approach potential customers in person, or through indirect means such as Tupperware parties.

The door-to-door distribution of leaflets within a local community is a form of direct marketing used extensively by restaurants, fast food companies, and many other business and nonprofit sector focusing on a local catchment.

3. The Use of direct marketing tools in nonprofit sector to attract target market.

Among the direct marketing tools used by nonprofit organizations (NPOs) that operate in Albania to communicate with donors is e-mail, as it is associated with a lower cost and higher profit. 84% of NPOs see as more effective use of e-mail to communicate with donors. Direct communications tools with effectiveness above average are direct mail, phone and face to face communication. This is because direct mail is free but is not very profitable, and can not be used for all types of communication.

While the phone and face to face communication are effective in communication but may be associated with a higher cost, and that is why they have this level of use. Telemarketing is not used. NPOs should make more effort to have more individual donors and donations from private businesses through telemarketing which is an effective tool for NPOs operating in international markets (Figure 1).

![Assessment of the use of direct marketing tools to attract donors](image.png)

If you look at the level of use of these tools by type of NPO conclude that telemarketing is not used, have a high level of
use of e-mail, and other tools as face-to-face communication, phone and direct mail have an average use. Levels of use of these tools don’t depend by the type of NPO (Table 1).

Table 1: Assessment of use of direct marketing tools to attract donors by type of NPOs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment of use of direct marketing tools to attract donors by type of NPOs.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Association</th>
<th>Foundation</th>
<th>Center</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Telemarketing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face to face communication</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mail</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct mail</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-marketing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you look at the level of use of direct marketing tools to attract donors by location, conclude that telemarketing isn’t used by NPOs that belong to different areas and have a high level of use email regardless of location of NPOs. If we look at other levels of use of direct marketing tools they have an average level of use (table 2).

Table 2: Assessment of use of direct marketing tools to attract donors by location of NPOs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment of use of direct marketing tools to attract donors by location of NPOs.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Tirana</th>
<th>North</th>
<th>South</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Telemarketing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face to face communication</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mail</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct mail</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you look at the level of use of direct marketing tools to attract donors conclude that telemarketing as a tool of direct marketing isn’t use to attract donors. Are used other tools of direct marketing and has a high level of use e-mail. If we look at the statistical significance of the relationship between the level of use of direct marketing tools and providing funds conclude that relationship has a statistically significant because:

- There is a statistically significant the relationship between the level of face to face communication and securing funding from foreign donors.
- There is a statistically significant the relationship between the level of use of e-mail and secure funds from foreign donors.
- For both cases test Che Squre is smaller than the interval of reliability 0.05.

Table 3: Assessment of use of direct marketing tools to attract donors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment of use of direct marketing tools to attract donors.</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Individual Donors</th>
<th>Private Business</th>
<th>Foundations</th>
<th>International Donators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Telemarketing</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face to face communication</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mail</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>4.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct mail</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Face-to-face communication is one of the direct marketing tools that is used to attract beneficiaries. It is characterized by an average of 3.80 which means that there is a level of use above average. This tool of direct communication is used by 58% of NPOs to inform and convince beneficiaries that can provide for free the service of the organization. If we compare the use of e-mail to communicate with beneficiaries notice that it is an average level of use, because it is not very effective communication tool, since not all beneficiaries have the opportunity to communicate by e-mail. The phone has e
low level of use because it is expensive and beneficiaries are numerous. Direct mail isn’t used because of distance, which is small. Telemarketing is a tool that should provide the opportunity by own NPOs (figure 2).

![Assessment of use of direct marketing tools to attract beneficiaries](image)

**Figure 2.** Assessment of the use of direct marketing tools to attract beneficiaries.

If you look at the level of use of direct marketing tools to attract beneficiaries, by type and location of the NPO, we conclude that the level of their use does not depend by the type or location of the NPO (table 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct marketing tools</th>
<th>Association</th>
<th>Foundation</th>
<th>Center</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Telemarketing</td>
<td>1,10</td>
<td>1,00</td>
<td>1,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-marketing</td>
<td>2,39</td>
<td>2,50</td>
<td>2,89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face to Face communication</td>
<td>3,62</td>
<td>3,89</td>
<td>4,03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone</td>
<td>2,64</td>
<td>2,67</td>
<td>2,65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-mail</td>
<td>3,10</td>
<td>3,00</td>
<td>3,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct mail</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>1,67</td>
<td>1,55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4: Assessment of use of direct marketing tools to attract beneficiaries by type of NPOs.**

Among the most commonly used tools of direct communication with volunteers is e-mail that is characterized by a high level of use, and the phone has an average use in those NPOs which have less volunteers and is little used as a communication tool in those NPOs which was characterized by many volunteers. Face-to-face communication is little used. Telemarketing is not very effective in communication and direct mail also because the distance is shorter and there are other faster tools of communication.

Among the direct marketing tools used to attract volunteers is e-mail, the phone and face to face communication have an average level of use, regardless type and location of NPOs. Direct mail is little used (figure3).

![Assessment of direct marketing tools to attract volunteers](image)

**Figure 3:** Assessment of direct marketing tools to attract volunteers.

Among the direct marketing tools used to attract volunteers is e-mail, the phone and face to face communication have an average level of use, regardless type and location of NPOs. Direct mail is little used.
4. Conclusion and Recommendation.

Among the direct marketing tools used to communicate with donors, characterized by a high level of use is e-mail and have an above average level of use, phone, face-to-face communication, and direct mail. The telemarketing is not used to attract donors. The level of use of direct marketing tools does not depend by the type and location of NPOs.

Among the direct communication tools that have a higher level of use in attracting beneficiaries is face to face communication which is used but not much. In the opinion of NPOs use of face-to-face communication is necessary to attract beneficiaries if we talk about social centers. Other tools of direct marketing are e-mail which has an average use, phone, direct mail has a low level of use and telemarketing isn’t used to attract beneficiaries. There is no relationship between the level of usage of direct marketing and the type or location of NPOs.

Direct communication tools used to communicate with volunteers is e-mail which is less costly, phone and face to face communication which has an average use, has a low level of use direct mail and telemarketing is not used.

Direct marketing tools that aren’t used to attract donors and that should be paid attention by NPOs are telemarketing and e-marketing. In other countries they are more important tools used to secure funding from donors and to attract beneficiaries and volunteers.

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Regression and Matching Estimates of the Effects of the Land Certification Program on Rural Household Income in China

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Abstract
Despite the steady growth of China’s economic since the economic reforms in 1978, the rural-urban income inequality has also risen rapidly. Here we explore the role that rural land reform plays in raising income. We investigate growth in rural household income which can be attributed to a Rural Land Registration and Certification (RLRC) program that was put into effect in Chengdu city, Sichuan province in 2009. We draw on household socio-economic data collected in 2011 through a purpose designed survey for the analysis. Using regression and matching methods, we find that the RLRC program has contributed to certified farmers’ participation in land market, especially rental transfer of land to more productive producers. Findings for the program’s impact on increasing farmers’ income are mixed. Although transfer income from land rentals and government subsidies has greatly increased, farming income and wage income have not significantly improved, suggesting that land certification may have had a substitution effect and an income effect on household’s choice between farm, wage employment and leisure.

Keywords: rural land certification, household income, propensity score matching, China

1. Introduction

The land that the farmers are allocated is among the few resources that they can use to generate incomes, particularly due to limited access to formal sectors employment. Property rights to land are thus one of the most powerful resources available to farmers to increase and extend their sustainable livelihoods (FAO, 2002). While there is a lot of research on the investment and productivity effects of land tenure (Deininger, Ali, & Alemu, 2011; Dong, 2000; Feder & Onchan, 1987; S. Holden, Deininger, & Ghebru, 2009; Place & Otsuka, 2002), very few quantitative studies focus on the welfare impacts of land reforms.

Land in rural China is an asset that farmers have had access to, but the property rights to this land have remained with the local community collectively. The issue of such rights has the potential to enrich farmers whilst reducing inequality between rural and urban residents. In China, the urban income was about 3.23 times that of the countryside in 2010, so that China has one of the largest urban-rural gaps (Xin He, 2011). To address the issues, consecutive No. 1 policy documents issued by the central government have taken boosting farmers’ incomes as the theme (Zhang, 2010). For example, the No.1 document in 2008 regulates that a land certification program should be carried out and farmers would be allowed to transfer their land use rights based on the new land certification. This rural land reform was expected to improve rural living standards and double per capita annual net income by 2020 for China’s 700 million farmers – who currently earn 4,760 yuan (less than US$800) a year on average1.

By better protecting property rights through land certification program, the reforms could also help reduce the social tensions and riots that have resulted from corruption within the present system, with property developers conspiring...
with local officials to illegally seize farmland in exchange for little to no compensation. Of the tens of thousands of rural protests that occur in China annually, nearly half relate to land grabs (Fan, 2008).

Chengdu was in the first wave to pilot this rural land reform which entailed issue of property rights to the land. In this paper, we investigate the impacts of Rural Land Registration and Certification (RLRC) program on rural household income. Section 2 discusses the methodology that will be employed. Section 3 presents the empirical results of the analysis, followed by section 4 to draw the conclusion.

2. Methodology

2.1 Study sites and data collection

The purpose of the paper is to study the impact of RLRC program on household income. Thus the survey sample was stratified into two groups: (1) Treatment group comprising: households on certified land in Qun'an village, Sichuan province, and (2) Control group comprising: households on uncertified land in Xiayong village, Fujian province. Ideally the treatment and control villages ought to be identical except for certification but this was not the case as explained below.

These two sites were selected in consultation with local government officials. Qun'an village was identified as one of the pilot areas in Chengdu City where a land reform project was on-going in 2011. At the time of survey, the households in Qun'an village had had land certification for about two years. Land issues are sensitive in rural China and it proved impossible to find an uncertified village in Sichuan: officials refused to disclose the list of uncertified areas, describing it as an “internal confidential file”. After exhausting all other options, I chose solely for convenience my hometown. Both the villages are located within the main rice producing regions in their counties in south China, and some 50 kilometres via paved road to the main market. As to the uncertified village (Xiayong), although it is located in a mountainous area, the farmers grow crops mainly on the flat plots. All these similarities make the uncertified village a suitable comparison group to the certified village.

With the referral letters from official departments in the counties, I made appointments with the village heads to set up times for the survey. In addition to budget and time constraints, the fact that many household heads work outside villages after the rice harvest made random sampling difficult. The village heads arranged the production team leaders to assist the survey through: (1) recruiting as many household heads as possible to do the questionnaires; and (2) guiding us to visit household heads house by house. All the interviewees were informed of the purpose of the survey and their written consent was sought before the interview.2

Data was collected in November 2011, about two months after the rice harvest. The questions focussed on information relating to the socioeconomic characteristics of households; the output of rice; the use of purchased inputs and labour; the tenure status of the land; and household income sources. Data were therefore cross-sectional with responses from 140 households, including 73 from Qun'an village (certified) and 67 from Xiayong village (uncertified). Respondents were usually the household heads except when they were absent, in which case they were mainly replaced by their spouses or other adult household members.

2.2 Hypotheses

Research shows that land certification has enhanced tenure security and stimulated land rental market participation (Deininger, et al., 2011; Gine, 2005; Holden, Deininger, & Ghebru, 2011). Therefore, the titled farmers lacking comparative advantage in agriculture can lease their land to others, take up non-agricultural employment or invest in a business as a source of off-farm income (Chand & Yala, 2009; de Janvry, Gordillo, Platteau, & Sadoulet, 2001).

In terms of the relationship between land tenure security and household income, López (1996) cited in Holden (2011)) found a positive return, net of the cost of titling, to household income from land registration and titling in Honduras. Moreover, positive impacts of land registration and titling on both income and land values have been found in Thailand (Feder & Nishio, 1998). In Nicaragua, receipt of registered title increases land values by 30% (Deininger & Chamorro, 2002). Since the rural land registration program has just started in China, there is a void in terms of empirical research on the welfare effects of land titling.

In rural China, farmers have three main sources of income: farm income, wage income, and transfer income.

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2 The survey was conducted as stipulated in the UNSW ethics approval for this research.
1. Farm income: comprises the potential market value of crops and the sale of livestock. In order to encourage farmers to grow more grains and boost production, since 2004, the central government has set minimum procurement prices for grain, including rice and wheat to buy grains from farmers (ChinaDaily, 2013). At the time of survey, the minimum procurement prices for rice and wheat were 1.2 yuan/jin and 1 yuan/jin, respectively.

2. Wage income: includes wages received from employment outside of agriculture plus income from self-employment (entrepreneurship).

3. Transfer income consists of rental income from the land being leased out and government subsidies, such as Cultivated Land Protection Fund (CLPF), available only in Chengdu city.

4. Other income: for example, remittances from children and pension insurance.

In June 2007, Chengdu city was licensed by the state to proceed with a land reform pilot project that would allow farmers to lease out and mortgage their land. The RLRC program was the first step of the reform. The goal of RLRC was to address the problems of land tenure insecurity, establish an effective land market and thus narrow the income gap between urban and rural residents (Zhou, 2011). The key features of this experiment are: first, that being granted with formal land certificates, farmers can transfer their land to more productive farmers or to private agricultural companies; and second, they can also be employed in these agricultural companies and share the bonuses from increased output.

Besides, to encourage farmers to protect the cultivated land from being converted to non-farm uses, Cultivated Land Protection Fund (CLPF) was given out by the Chengdu government. It should be noted that CLPF was unique to Chengdu City. It was derived from the land transaction revenue of the Chengdu municipal government. To be eligible for the CLPF payment, the land had to be under cultivation. CLPF payment amounted to 360 yuan per mu per year for basic farmland (to grow field crops such as grain, cotton, oil, and vegetables) and 270 yuan per mu per year for general farmland (used for cash crops like flowers, herbs, etc). In addition, farmers could receive direct subsidy for growing grain which was 60-90 yuan per mu. Therefore, farmers in the certified village could receive up to 450 yuan per mu subsidy from the government. Farmers in the uncertified village, however, do not receive CLPF payments or anything similar. The grain subsidy in the uncertified village was only for households who grew grain over 15 mu.

Household incomes were calculated for the 12 months preceding the survey without deducting costs such as farm inputs and daily expenses. As most of these farmers are producing crops primarily for household consumption, if these costs were deducted, their net incomes would be close to zero, as the interviewees complained.

Five hypotheses are to be tested in this paper based on the fieldwork data:

H1: The RLRC program enables certified farmers to participate more in land rental market;

H2: By leasing in land, farms may achieve economies of scale, and therefore obtain higher farm income;

H3: Being freed from land by leasing out farm plots, farmers are able to devote themselves to non-agricultural activities, thus raising their wage income;

H4: The RLRC program helps to increase total household income;

H5: The RLRC program helps to improve the living conditions and quality of life of rural households by increasing per capita income.

2.3 Estimating treatment effects

To estimate the impact of the RLRC program on the household income, the households’ likelihood of participation in land rental market is firstly estimated through a linear probability model (Wooldridge, 2006, p. 253):

\[ P(R = 1 | X) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 D + \alpha_2 X + \varepsilon \]

where R is the dummy that is equal to 1 if household is participating in land rental market either through leasing in or leasing out some land, and 0 otherwise. D represents the land tenure status (1-certified, 0-uncertified). X is a vector of household/land variables. \( \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \) are the parameters of interest, and capture the partial effects of the variables on the farmer’s land market participation.

The impacts of land certification program on income sources are estimated through both ordinary least squares (OLS) regression and propensity score matching methods, which are two basic methods for adjusting estimates of causal effects. The goal of both methods is to construct comparison of treated and control units that are balanced in household

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3 jin: Chinese unit of weight, 1 kg = 2 jin.
4 mu: Chinese unit of area, 1 hectare=15 mu.
socioeconomic covariates except for land tenure status.

2.3.1 OLS regression model

The parameters estimated by the OLS model are based on Cobb-Douglas function:

\[ I = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D + \sum \beta_2 X + u \]  

where \( I \) denotes the income categories: farm income, wage income, transfer income, total household income, and per capita income. \( \beta_1 \) captures the tenure effect on income sources, which is the average treatment effect over all observations. \( \beta_2 \) represents the impact of household variables on household income.

2.3.2 Matching model

The goal of matching is to measure the causal effect of a binary (0-1) treatment or policy on the average outcome variable, i.e. average treatment effects (Wooldridge, 2006, p. 458). The two mostly studied average causal effects in the treatment effects context are the average treatment effects over all observations (ATE), and the average treatment effects on the treated (ATT). By conditioning on observed covariates, \( X \), the two treatment effects can be estimated by (Sekhon, 2011):

\[ \text{ATE} = E (Y_{i1}|D_i = 1) - E (Y_{i0}|D_i = 0) \]  
\[ \text{ATT} = E (Y_{i1}|D_i = 1) - E (Y_{i0}|D_i = 1) \]

Equation 4 cannot be directly estimated because the outcome of certified households if they had not participated in the RLRC program i.e., \( E (Y_{i0}|D_i = 1) \), is not observed for the treated. Therefore, the matching methods involve the construction of counterfactual expectations of the dependent variable, i.e., constructing estimates of \( E (Y_{i0}|D_i = 1) \) for the mean outcome of certified households if they had not participated in the RLRC program. ATT is then actually estimated by averaging over the observed outcome values of \( Y \) for households that are similar on the covariates \( X \):

\[ \text{ATT} = E \{E (Y_i | X_i, D_i = 1) - E (Y_i | X_i, D_i = 0) | D_i = 1\} \]

where the right-hand side is the estimate of the ATE adjusted for the conditional treatment effect among the distribution of covariates \( X \) in the treated group (Sekhon, 2011). If causal effects are constant over each observation, then the ATE and ATT are identical (Ho, Imai, King, & Stuart, 2007).

The matching estimators based on propensity score are widely used to estimate treatment effects. Rosenbaum and Rubin (1983) defined the propensity score as the conditional probability of assignment to a treatment given a vector of covariates \( X \) including the values of all treatment confounders:

\[ P (X) = Pr (D = 1|X) \]

After running a probit of household characteristics on tenure status, a propensity score is obtained for each household. This score is the predicted probability of being treated (whether or not actually treated), allowing households to be matched using this score that represents observable characteristics of the household. A better procedure of after-matching analysis is to use the same parametric analysis as have been used to analyze the original raw data set without pre-processing (Ho, et al., 2007). Therefore, least square estimates were chosen in matching model.

3. Empirical results

3.1 Data description

Table 1 presents a summary of statistics on the variables for which data was collected from the two villages, as well as test statistics on the equality of means between the villages.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Survey Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Qun'an (certified)</th>
<th>Xiayong (uncertified)</th>
<th>Difference: t test (p value)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristics of household head and the household</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>53.12</td>
<td>53.16</td>
<td>53.07</td>
<td>-0.05(0.95)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.35(0.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>-1.86(0.06)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household size</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>0.75(0.45)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

353
Number of adults (14<age<65) 3.53 3.15 3.95 3.32(0.001)***
Number of migrant workers 2.23 1.91 2.58 3.01(0.003)**

**Characteristics of land**

Hold a new land certification 0.52 1 0 --
Land area (mu) 4.16 4.48 3.61 -2.20(0.03) *
Participation in land transfer: 0.47 0.78 0.13 -10.04(0.000)***
Lease in 0.10 0.09 0.10 0.16(0.86)
Lease out 0.40 0.75 0.02 -13.16(0.000)***

**Income sources (yuan)**

Farm income 6,123 6,925 5,250 -0.40(0.68)
Wage income 25,624 24,514 26,833 0.47(0.63)
Transfer income 1,898 3,640 0 -11.62(0.000)***
Rent income 1135 2,177 0 -7.33(0.000)***
Subsidy 763 1,463 0 -14.61(0.000)***
Other income 125 184 60 -1.46(0.14)
Total income 33,766 35,256 32,143 -0.50(0.61)
Per capita income 8,190 9,031 7,273 -0.82(0.41)

Observations 140 73 67

Significance code: 0.001***, 0.01**, 0.05 *, 0.10·

**Source:** Author’s Survey in 2011.

There are no significant differences between villages in terms of the household head’s age (average 53 years) and gender (over 90% male), and the household size (average 4 members). However, the uncertified village averages nearly 1 additional adult and 1 extra migrant worker.

Although the average education level in both villages is at the “primary school” level, the average is higher in the certified village; this difference is statistically significant at 10% level. The mean land area per household is 4.48 mu in the certified village and 3.81 mu in the uncertified. In both villages, land area per capita ranged from 0.7 to 1.3 mu.

As to income variables, the average household has a total income of around 34,000 yuan per year, composed of farm income (18%), wage income (76%), and transfer income (6%). In both villages, wage income is clearly more important as a source of income than the other two sources. The two study sites differ in transfer income. Some 78% of the certified households engage in land transfer activities: 96% of these lease the land out to others. Farmers in Qun’an village receive transfers amounting to 3,640 yuan per household. Farmers in the uncertified village, however, rarely lease their land. Of the 67 households in Xiayong, only 9 (13%) participate in land transfers: 7 lease in land for a rent (100-390 yuan per year per mu), and the other 2 allow their relatives to farm the land without charge. Therefore, the average transfer income of the uncertified households is 0.

3.2 Econometric results

3.2.1 Effect of land certification on land market participation

Table 2 tests Hypothesis 1 based on a probit regression model. The clear result is that the land certification program has a positive and significant (at 0.1% level) impact on household participation in land transfer activities, especially leasing out the land. Hypothesis 1 is therefore strongly supported.

**Table 2.** Probability of Participating in Land Market (n=140)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Participation in land leasing (in or out)</th>
<th>Lease-out</th>
<th>Lease-in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Intercept)</td>
<td>-0.593 (1.340)</td>
<td>-2.672 (1.474)</td>
<td>1.016 (1.694)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hold a new land certification</td>
<td>1.502 (0.298)***</td>
<td>2.477 (0.414)***</td>
<td>-0.617 (0.404)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.013 (0.015)</td>
<td>-0.021 (0.017)</td>
<td>-0.008 (0.019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.020 (0.614)</td>
<td>0.911 (0.627)</td>
<td>-0.631 (0.578)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>0.033 (0.209)</td>
<td>0.168 (0.234)</td>
<td>-0.110 (0.284)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household size</td>
<td>-0.095 (0.166)</td>
<td>-0.029 (0.187)</td>
<td>-0.228 (0.238)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of adults</td>
<td>-0.270 (0.195)</td>
<td>-0.158 (0.220)</td>
<td>0.032 (0.246)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The number of migrant workers is statistically significant at 5% level and with a negative sign. If more household members work outside the village, fewer are available to work on the farm and it is less possible for the household to lease in land.

The land area held by households has a positive and significant effect on land market participation, particularly leasing out of land. As the survey data shows, only 75% of the total land area in the sample was used to grow rice. Therefore, households with a larger land area may have extra land to lease out.

3.2.2 OLS regression estimates

The treatment effects were firstly estimated with the OLS regression model. Table 3 provides the regression results for all the five outcome variables.

### 3.2.2.1 Land tenure status and incomes

As Table 3 shows, holding a new certification significantly improves transfer income because of the rental income and the CLPF given out in the certified village. In the certified village, transfer income contributes up to 10% of the total household income.

However, secure land tenure does not have a discernible impact on other income sources. There could be two explanations for this result:

1. Reinforcing property rights of the farmers by land certification program, together with the matching support of the village leaders’ efforts to attract investment, has a substitution effect which boosts farmers’ participation in land transferring activities instead of farming or being employed. This can be confirmed by the probit results. In return, households obtain rental income which is determined by the lessees’ performance in the current year. This rental income raises welfare since farmers save on effort they might otherwise expend on farming or working in non-farm activities. The results from column 4 and 5 support the conjecture that leasing is contributing to household income.

2. An income effect may exist if a household receives transfer income which is large enough to discourage them from using effort to farm or take up wage employment in the cities. The income effect could increase the household’s demand for leisure.

Land tenure status can only raise a household’s transfer income on the condition that the household can transfer the land to more productive farmers or private agricultural businesses. This will largely depend on the plot location, and most importantly, the village committee’s ability to attract investments in agricultural business.

While conducting the survey, we learnt that those farmers who do not lease out their land, which is largely due to a limited land market, continue to farm to supplement their income, even when they do not obtain a corresponding return from land compared to their labour input and other farm-related inputs. The high living costs and instability of employment opportunities in urban areas compels them to cultivate. For them, farming is like having insurance against the volatile wage income from urban cities. For farmers who leased out their land, especially those who leased out all of their land, the problem is how to make sure they obtain the transfer income in time. In some villages in Chengdu city, it is not unusual for private enterprises to quit in the middle of contracts without paying rent to farmers (Han, 2009). In the village surveyed, 11 households had not received rent because of the poor performance of the plantations.

The contribution of land certification to incomes could also be constrained by the short time lapse between the time when land certificates were issued and when the survey was conducted. The RLRC program had been in effect in Qun’an village for just about 2 years at the time of survey, thus the insignificance of tenure dummy on non-transfer incomes may be due to the limited time for the effect of tenure on income to materialize.
Table 3. Regression Results for Household Incomes (n=140)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Farm income</td>
<td>Wage income</td>
<td>Transfer income</td>
<td>Total income</td>
<td>Per capita income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Intercept)</td>
<td>11474.825 (0.169)</td>
<td>-37410.234 (-0.559)</td>
<td>-4169.364 (-0.948)</td>
<td>-30943.936 (-0.324)</td>
<td>9991.372 (0.281)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenure</td>
<td>1225.512 (0.178)</td>
<td>1199.047 (0.177)</td>
<td>1667.792 (3.749)**</td>
<td>4097.744 (0.425)</td>
<td>666.670 (0.337)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>-602.701 (-0.243)</td>
<td>782.283 (0.320)</td>
<td>1667.792 (3.749)**</td>
<td>4097.744 (0.425)</td>
<td>666.670 (0.337)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age^2</td>
<td>6.382 (0.270)</td>
<td>1225.512 (0.178)</td>
<td>1199.047 (0.177)</td>
<td>1667.792 (3.749)**</td>
<td>4097.744 (0.425)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>7094.886 (0.742)</td>
<td>-12762.885 (-1.357)</td>
<td>-101.126 (-0.164)</td>
<td>-5562.618 (-0.415)</td>
<td>1687.803 (0.337)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td>-1215.923 (-0.326)</td>
<td>3013.774 (0.823)</td>
<td>157.851 (0.655)</td>
<td>295.263 (0.085)</td>
<td>-347.513 (-0.267)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>household size</td>
<td>-916.470 (-0.306)</td>
<td>2587.731 (0.823)</td>
<td>-539.301 (-2.787)**</td>
<td>1128.256 (0.269)</td>
<td>-1595.240 (-1.019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adults</td>
<td>3603.839 (0.979)</td>
<td>-771.580 (-0.213)</td>
<td>125.963 (0.529)</td>
<td>2926.440 (0.567)</td>
<td>1981.129 (1.028)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>migrants</td>
<td>-1645.090 (-0.652)</td>
<td>11052.784 (4.452)**</td>
<td>110.986 (0.680)</td>
<td>23771.117 (2.286) *</td>
<td>9581.347 (2.706)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>labourers</td>
<td>-1491.172 (-0.668)</td>
<td>290.143 (0.132)</td>
<td>606.862 (4.202)**</td>
<td>-780.607 (-2.14)</td>
<td>-1046.650 (-0.896)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>land area</td>
<td>27055.866 (3.650)**</td>
<td>-2621.967 (-0.360)</td>
<td>671.582 (-1.629)</td>
<td>23771.117 (2.286) *</td>
<td>11091.726 (2.859)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lease in land</td>
<td>5119.819 (0.755)</td>
<td>3245.958 (0.487)</td>
<td>2198.608 (5.014)**</td>
<td>10799.045 (1.135)</td>
<td>5522.496 (1.556)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R² | 0.12 | 0.37 | 0.66 | 0.21 | 0.10 |

Values of t-statistics are reported in parenthesis.
Significance code: 0.001***, 0.01**, 0.05 *, 0.1·

Source: Authors’ Survey in 2011.

3.2.2.2 Non-farm employment and household income

Non-farm employment has strongly demonstrated its importance in improving household income. As is shown in Table 1, over 60% of the adults in both villages work in non-agricultural sectors out of the village; the proportion of total household income derived from wage income accounts for 70% in the certified village, and 83% in the uncertified.

The impacts of the number of migrant labourers on wage income and total income are positive and significant (see Table 3). With one more migrant labourer employed in the non-agricultural sector, the household’s annual wage income would increase by 11,052 yuan, and total income rises 9,581 yuan. All these indicate the increasing importance of wages in household income growth.

3.2.2.3 Land market participation and incomes

Participation in the land rental market has manifested its importance in raising household income. Households who leased out land may gain 2,198 yuan more transfer income than those who did not.

Compared to households who did not lease in land, households that did so achieved 27,055 yuan more farm income, 23,771 yuan more total household income and 11,091 yuan more per capita income. This may be due to the fact that land was transferred to more productive farmers and economy of scale was reached. The above evidence supports Hypothesis 2.

3.2.2.4 Other determinants of income variables

The positive and significant effect of land area on transfer income is plausible since a title (certificate) allows the
household to receive transfer income in proportion to the size of their holding.

Household size has a statistically significant and negative impact on transfer income per household. For extra member, a household would receive 539 yuan less transfer income. The reason that larger household size does not help to obtain more transfer income may be that transfer income was given out according to land area rather than household size.

3.2.3 Matching estimates

The matching model gives the bias-adjusted estimates that correct the within-match mean differences in the outcome variables.

One of the most common and easiest matching algorithms to implement is k: 1 nearest neighbour matching (Rubin, 1973). It matches control individuals to the treated group and discards controls that are not selected as matches. Since there are fewer control individuals (67) comparable to the treated individuals (73) in the sample, the matching method is implemented with replacement (Dehejia & Wahba, 2002), which means control individual can be used as matches for more than one treated individual.

Table 4. Matching Estimates of Treatment Effects of RLRC Program on Household Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income sources</th>
<th>Matching ATT</th>
<th>Matching ATE</th>
<th>OLS ATE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farm income</td>
<td>2918.1 (0.29)</td>
<td>1331.9 (0.24)</td>
<td>1225.51 (0.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage income</td>
<td>5991.6 (0.53)</td>
<td>5837.8 (0.73)</td>
<td>1199.04 (0.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer income</td>
<td>3639.7 (4.79)***</td>
<td>2679.7 (5.57)***</td>
<td>1667.79 (3.74)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total income</td>
<td>12721 (0.88)</td>
<td>10001 (1.05)</td>
<td>4097.74 (0.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per capita income</td>
<td>4218.9 (0.82)</td>
<td>1977.7 (0.67)</td>
<td>666.67 (0.18)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Results are estimated by R software. Matching based on 5:1 with replacement achieved better improvement and higher common support compared to k=1…4. So we chose 5:1 nearest neighbour matching.

Source: Author’s Survey in 2011. Numbers in parentheses are t ratios.

The OLS regression from Table 3 is also provided as a benchmark in Table 4. The models of matching yield similar patterns of statistical significance to the OLS estimates. Both methods agree that the land certification program has significantly increased households’ transfer income only.

Overall, the average treatment effect on the treated (ATT) exceeds the average treatment effect over all observations (ATE), and both are larger than the OLS estimates, which represents an estimate of the ATE. As can be seen, after discarding the unmatched data, the causal effects become stronger than those in the regression model.

4. Conclusion

This paper has attempted to demonstrate two main points: land certification encourages farmers to participate in land market and improves household incomes.

The impact of land tenure security on land market participation has been confirmed: the land certification program encourages farmers to engage more in land transferring activities, especially leasing out land to plantations or more productive farmers.

However, the average household income or per capita income on certified plots was no greater than that on the uncertified. Reasons for this include the fact that land certification may have a substitution effect and an income effect: if households engage in the land market to earn rental income, as confirmed above, they may save on the effort they otherwise would have expended on farming or working in non-farm activities; if the cash transfer plus land rentals are large enough, the farmers may rely on this source of income and enjoy more leisure.

In addition, leasing in land for farming contributes significantly to raising the total income and per capita income of the households. This supports the proposition that farmers are using the farmland more efficiently, and that benefits of economies of scale are being realised. Those who had comparative advantages in farming tend to lease in land, while those who had comparative advantages in off-farm employment tend to lease out land.
Two policy implications can be drawn from these findings.

1. Wage income from migrant workers is the main source of income for rural households. Therefore, lowering the risk of wage employment would encourage more workers to move to the formal sector, improve rural household income, and at the same time release more land for large-scale agriculture.

The challenge for policymakers is to attract investors and industries to their cities that provide more job opportunities with greater income security, and thus absorb the surplus rural labour. Therefore, security of tenure has to be complemented with security of wage income if farm consolidation is to take place on a larger scale.

2. The effect of tenure security on household income is not significant except for transfer income. However, subsidies in the form of transfer income from the government and income derived from land rent cannot be a permanent solution. Some commentators warn that farmers could lose their land once they were allowed to lease it out and thus in the process lose the guarantee of their livelihood (Xuefeng He, 2010). Thus income security and livelihood opportunities remain a challenge for the foreseeable future. Consequently, the introduction of the RLRC program in other places must be closely scrutinized for all its effects before it is expanded to the rest of the country.

References


The Childhood Nutrition and Their Problems:  
The Case Study of an Elementary School in Shkodra City

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Abstract

Body weight is a reliable indicator of nutritional status. The deviation of body weight with 20% over or under the ideal level, places a person at nutritional risk. In recognition of the serious health implication of obesity, current definition of "malnutrition" includes states of over nutrition as well as conditions marked by nutritional deficits. Worldwide, the elderly population is increasingly becoming obese regardless of socio-economic status. Obesity increases the risks for a variety of morbidity conditions. The prevalence in children is also rising at a worrisome rate. Childhood obesity is frequently portrayed as a serious and complex modern-day “epidemic”. This has created considerable public health concern due to the association of obesity with the development of several chronic and life threatening physical and psychological health problems. On the other hand the underweight is a big problem in the present day especially in developing countries. The aim of this study is to represent the situation of the childhood nutrition and their problems in an elementary school in Shkodra city. All the children have been part of an anthropometrically measurement (weight, height, waist circumference) and they have fulfilled a short questionnaire of information about their nutrition, physical activity, lifestyle and their parents’ education. The questionnaire is done with the support of school directory and helped by their teachers during school year 2012. In this study are involved 200 children from 6 - 14 year old and the data are calculated with SPSS 20. Programme.

Keywords: childhood, malnutrition, obesity, underweight, weight.

1. Introduction

In a world where food supplies are intermittent, the ability to store energy in excess of what is required for immediate use is essential for survival. However, in the presence of nutritional abundance and a sedentary lifestyle, and influenced importantly by genetic endowment, this system increases adipose energy stores and produces adverse health consequences as Obesity. Obesity is a state of excess adipose tissue mass. Although often viewed as equivalent to increased body weight, this need not be the case—lean but very muscular individuals may be overweight by arbitrary standards without having increased adiposity. Body weights are distributed continuously in populations, so that a medically meaningful distinction between lean and obese is somewhat arbitrary. Obesity is therefore more effectively defined by assessing its linkage to morbidity or mortality. Although not a direct measure of adiposity, the most widely used method to gauge obesity is the body mass index (BMI), which is equal to weight/height$^2$ (in kg/m$^2$). Other approaches to quantifying obesity include anthropometry (skin-fold thickness), densitometry (underwater weighing), computed tomography (CT) or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and electrical impedance. Based on unequivocal data of substantial morbidity, a BMI of 30 is most commonly used as a threshold for obesity in both men and women. Large-scale epidemiologic studies suggest that all-cause, metabolic, cancer, and cardiovascular morbidity begin to rise (albeit at a slow rate) when BMIs are > 25, suggesting that the cut-off for obesity should be lowered. Some authorities use the term
overweight (rather than obese) to describe individuals with BMIs between 25 and 30. A BMI between 25 and 30 should be viewed as medically significant and worthy of therapeutic intervention, especially in the presence of risk factors that are influenced by adiposity, such as hypertension and glucose intolerance. BMI is used differently for children. It is calculated the same way as for adults, but then compared to typical values for other children of the same age. Instead of set thresholds for underweight and overweight, then, the BMI percentile allows comparison with children of the same sex and age. (Dobbelsteyn. CJ et al. 2001. Pg. 652–660) A BMI that is less than the 5th percentile is considered underweight and above the 95th percentile is considered obese for people 20 and under. People under 20 with a BMI between the 85th and 95th percentile are considered to be overweight.

Table 1. Body Mass Index (BMI) Percentiles for Age, Boys 6-14 yr

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (Yr)</th>
<th>5th</th>
<th>10th</th>
<th>25th</th>
<th>50th</th>
<th>75th</th>
<th>85th</th>
<th>90th</th>
<th>95th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The distribution of adipose tissue in different anatomic depots also has substantial implications for morbidity. Specifically, intra abdominal and abdominal subcutaneous fat has more significance than subcutaneous fat present in the buttocks and lower extremities. This distinction is most easily made by determining the waist-to-hip ratio, with a ratio >0.9 in women and >1.0 in men being abnormal. Research shows that people with "apple-shaped" bodies (with more weight around the waist) face more health risks than those with "pear-shaped" bodies who carry more weight around the hips. The WHR has been used as an indicator or measure of the health of a person, and the risk of developing serious health conditions. Research shows that people with "apple-shaped" bodies (with more weight around the waist) face more health risks than those with "pear-shaped" bodies who carry more weight around the hips.

Table 2. Body Mass Index (BMI) Percentiles for Age, Girls 6–14 yr

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (Yr)</th>
<th>5th</th>
<th>10th</th>
<th>25th</th>
<th>50th</th>
<th>75th</th>
<th>85th</th>
<th>90th</th>
<th>95th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>18.3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WHR is used as a measurement of obesity which in turn is a possible indicator of other more serious health conditions. WHO STEPS states that abdominal obesity is defined as a waist–hip ratio above 0.90 for males and above 0.85 for
females, or a (BMI) above 30.0. The National Institute of Diabetes, Digestive and Kidney Diseases (NIDDK) states that women with waist–hip ratios of more than 0.8, and men with more than 1.0, are at increased health risk because of their fat distribution. WHR has been found to be a more efficient predictor of mortality in older people than waist circumference or BMI (Price GM, et al 2006. Pg 449–460). If obesity is redefined using WHR instead of BMI, the proportion of people categorized as at risk of heart attack worldwide increases threefold. (Yusuf S, et al 2005. Pg 1640–9). The body fat percentage is considered to be an even more accurate measure of relative weight. Of these three measurements, only the waist–hip ratio takes account of the differences in body structure. Hence, it is possible for two women to have vastly different body mass indices but the same waist–hip ratio, or to have the same body mass index but vastly different waist–hip ratios. Even in ancient civilizations globally, female representations are most often in the 0.6-0.7 range for WHR, suggesting a preference towards lower WHR. (Singh. D, et al 2002. Pg. 81–91) WHR have been shown to be a better predictor of cardiovascular disease than waist circumference and body-mass index. (Mørkedal, B 2011, pg. 457–461) However, other studies have found that waist circumference, not WHR, to be a good indicator of cardiovascular risk factors, (Dobbelsteyn. CJ et al. 2001. Pg. 652–660) body fat distribution (Ketel IJ et al. 2007. Pg. 655–661) and hypertension in type 2 diabetes. (Picon PX et al. 2007. Pg 443–449) Many of the most important complications of obesity, such as insulin resistance, diabetes, hypertension, and hyperlipidemia, and hyperandrogenism in women, are linked more strongly to intraabdominal and/or upper body fat than to overall adiposity.

2. Methodology

The aim of this study is to represent the situation of the childhood nutrition and their problems in an elementary school in Shkodra city. In this study are involved 200 children from 6 - 14 year old in an elementary public school. All the children have been part of an anthropometrically measurement (weight, high, waist circumference) and they have fulfilled a short questionnaire of information about their nutrition, physical activity, lifestyle and their parents’ education. The questionnaire is done with the support of school directory and helped by their teachers during school year 2012. In this study we have calculated the health indicators such as Body Mass Index of children and Waist-to-Hip Ratio (WHR) and the data are calculated with SPSS. 20. Programme.

3. Results of the study

The last years of developments in Albania, influenced the social and economical system, but these changes reflected on school too. The rapid everyday life influenced also in the children`s nutrition. The children have more options to choose their food. They don’t get yet their food only at home, but also at the front door of the school, the fast foods on the road, the school canteens etc. Between all these options, they mostly like the fast foods. The parents on the other hand have no time to cook for them or to fulfill their wishes and some times they have to cook or buy food according to the children`s requests. To highlight these changes in children`s nutrition attitudes and the effects in their future life style, we have include 200 children of an elementary school, from 6-14 years old, 55% of them were male and 45% female. All age groups were almost spread at the same percentage. (see figure 1.)

![Spread of children according to the age groups](image)

**Figure. 1.** Spread of children according to the age groups

According to the answers, children refer that they consume different foods such as: fast food, french fries, deserts. We can see that 79% of them consume fast food (figure 2) and 13% of them admit that they consume these foods every day. (figure 3).
As we can see on figure 4, 91% of children consume deserts and 15% of them admit that they consume deserts every day. (figure 5)

The children prefer to eat: pizza, hamburgers, hot-dogs, sandwiches, french fries and to drink: coca-cola, sprite, concentrated juice instead of natural juices homemade. But this situation is created with the “support” of the parents, too. They give money to their children, without influencing on the manner they have to spent it. So the children have their own
free choices how to spend their money. This is the reason why we see fast foods always full of work and children almost every day with these products in their hands. So we can see (figure 6 and 7) that 86% of children consume french-fries and 34% of them admit that they consume these products every day.

![Figure 6. French-fries consume](image)

As a result, the children influenced by the situation (parent`s money) and stimulated by each others eat these kinds of junk food. In this point of view the children refuse to taste and eat healthy food as: vegetables, fruits, meat, milk, fish and food prepared at home. So the children are out of their parents controle and they can choose an unhealthy life style directed toward smoking, alcooholic drinks, drugs etc.

So we can see at figure 8, that the most part of parents have only the high school education. Their level of education influences on their children`s life style, not only on their feeding, but also on the knowledge about feeding, the physical activity and their future health problems.

![Figure 7. Parent`s level of education](image)

Efforts to create a health-conducive environment should also include food vendors that may be present on or near the school premises. In many countries there is a high concentration of fast-food restaurants near schools and a relatively low concentration of stores that sell fruits and vegetables. It is a fact that in the nonpublic schools in Shkodra, there are small shops that offer different cookies, candies chocolates, fast- food, french fries ect, inside the school. So these places stimulate this kind of feeding. On the other hand the public schools generally offer these products at the front door of the school. There exists a correlation between the consume of french –fries, fast food and deserts. So the same children are predisposed to consume all these products and they don`t select the healthy ones.
Table 4. The correlation between the different products

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>French fries consume</th>
<th>Deserts consume</th>
<th>Fast-food consume</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>French fries consume</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.302**</td>
<td>.234**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cookies consume</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.302**</td>
<td>.412**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast-food consume</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.234**</td>
<td>.412**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Another problem is the time spent in front of TV or computer and for the homework by the children. The most part of children (51% 2 hours per day, figure 9) lose their time in front of the TV and with homework (65% of them spent 3 hours every day, figure 10).

Table 5. The correlation between the age and consume of different products.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Desert consume</th>
<th>Fast-food consume</th>
<th>French fries consume</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.181*</td>
<td>.202*</td>
<td>.202*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desert consume</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.181*</td>
<td>.412**</td>
<td>.302**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast-food consume</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.202**</td>
<td>.412**</td>
<td>.234**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French fries consume</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.202**</td>
<td>.302**</td>
<td>.234**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In this table we see that exists a strong correlation between the consume of these products with the age of children. So the elder ages tend to consume more than the younger ones.

Figure 9. Hours in front of the TV
Physical education classes offered by schools often do not meet the recommended levels of physical activity for children and adolescents (WHO 2006 b). Walking and cycling to and from school presents a great opportunity for children and adolescents to be physically active on a regular basis (WHO 2006 b). So in figure 11 we can see that 51% of children don’t practice any sport and only 25% of them admit that they do it regularly, every day (figure 12).

In table 6 and 7 we can see that the sportive activity is related to the parents’ level of education and especially with mother’s, where the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). On the other hand the father’s level of education has a correlation significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Also we see at the table 8 that exists a strong correlation that is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) between the age of the child and the sport practice.

**Table 6.** The correlation between father level of education and sport practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Father level education</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Practice the sport</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father level education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Practice the sport</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.152*</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>Practice the sport</td>
<td>-.152*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.031</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Table 7. The correlation between mother level of education and sport practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice the sport</th>
<th>Mother level education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>-.215 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.215 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Table 8. The correlation between age and sport practice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sport practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Based on what children consume and prefer to consume and on the other hand the physical activity they practice, we tried to describe their level of nutrition, based in BMI calculation. In figure 13 is represented the level of nutrition based in BMI calculated and classified for children according to gender, based on tables 1 and 2. It was found that 63% of children have a normal weight, 12.5% underweight, 10% overweight and 14.5 % are obese. In table 9 is represented the correlation that exists between the level of nutrition and BMI of children and this correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), also for the Albanian children.

Table 9. The correlation between nutrition level and BMI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nutrition level</th>
<th>BMI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.757 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Figure 13. The level of nutrition
We have calculated also the health risk based on the WHR based in the table according to gender and we conclude that 53% of male are exposed to a moderate level risk and 37.5% of female are exposed to a high level risk (figure 14).

**Figure 14. Health risk according to the sex**

This correlation is significant between health risk and sex of children. That means that females are more risky than male. (table 10)

**Table 10. Correlation between health risk and sex.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Health Risk</th>
<th>Sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Pearson Correlation | 1 | -.108
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .128 | .065 |
| N | 200 | 200 | 200 |
| Health Risk Pearson Correlation | -.108 | 1 | .737** |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .128 | .000 |
| N | 200 | 200 | 200 |
| Sex Pearson Correlation | .131 | .737** | 1 |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .065 | .000 |
| N | 200 | 200 | 200 |

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

**Table 11. Correlations between health risk and WHR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHR</th>
<th>Health Risk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Risk Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.343**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Table 12. Correlations between age and WHR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHR</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.519**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Discussion

A nutritious diet should meet the nutrient and energy needs of students and be based on a variety of foods originating mainly from plant-based sources. A variety of vegetables, fruits, whole cereals, bread, grains, pasta, rice or potatoes should be eaten, preferably fresh (for fruit and vegetables) and locally produced, several times a day. Fat intake should be limited to not more than 30% of daily energy and most saturated fats should be replaced with unsaturated fats. Trans-fatty acids should be avoided. The consumption of sugar and salt should be limited, while ensuring that all salt used is iodized. Sugary drinks and sweets should only be used with limited frequency, and refined sugar used sparingly. Fish and low-fat meat should be served for preference. Food should be prepared in a safe, hygienic and healthy way. Steaming, baking, boiling or microwaving helps to reduce the amount of added fat. (WHO 2006 a). School vending machines and school snack bars have been criticized for providing easy access to energy-dense, micronutrient-poor foods and beverages. In many schools, revenues from snack bars and vending machines are important sources of income for the school management. Foods and beverages provided in snack bars or vending machines should be consistent with nutritional standards for school foods and beverages or with the national dietary guidelines for school-aged children. In order to keep the source of revenue, policy-makers may encourage schools to replace energy-dense, micronutrient-poor products with milk, yogurts without added sugar, water, fruit juices without added sugar, sandwiches, fruits, nuts or vegetables. All of these may be good options to include in the range of products available in schools.

Also possible obstacles for involving parents include lack of awareness of the importance of eating and physical activity behaviors; resistance to teachers or governments being involved with diet and physical activity practices in the household environment and therefore perceived as private; a misperception that time and attention given to healthy diets and physical activity may withdraw attention from more important subjects or may negatively impact academic standards/scores; lack of time and financial resources.

Extracurricular activities can help to supplement physical activity obtained in formal physical education classes. Extracurricular activities include any form of activity provided by schools other than formal classes, such as: comprehensive programmes of after-school gatherings offering physical activity opportunities, both competitive and non-competitive; active recess, morning, lunch or after-lunch exercises, traditional dances, etc; school sports competitions.

5. Conclusions

Based on our study in an elementary school, we can see that the future of our population will face the obesity problems as the wide world too. We concluded that 63% of children have a normal weight, 12.5% underweight, 10% overweight and 14.5% are obese. In our city we found that exists also the malnutrition that is related also with the level of parents’ health education.

Females are more risky than males because 53% of male are exposed at a moderate level risk and 37.5% of females are exposed at a high level risk, because the children prefer to eat pizza, hamburgers, hot-dogs, sandwiches, french fries. This situation is created with the “support” of the parents too. They give money to their children, without influencing on the manner they have to spent it. So the children have their own free choices how to spend their money. They prefer more fast-foods, deserts and other unhealthy food, wich is influenced by the presence of shops inside and at the front door of the schools. The children don’t have the regular physical activity in and out of school and this is related to the parents’ level of education, specially to mother’s education. Also they have a sedentary life related to the time they spend in front of TV or computers and doing their homework.

6. Recommendations

Health promotion of school personnel is important because teachers and other staff need to be aware and responsible for the messages they give as models to students and others. Furthermore, evidence suggests that promoting the health of school staff by encouraging physical activity and healthy diet may improve staff productivity and mood, and reduce medical/insurance expenses. But a school's facilities are a key factor if the implementation of physical activity policies is to be successful. These include the school building, the classrooms, recreation and sport facilities and the surroundings in which the school is situated. By improving the physical facilities in schools, policy-makers will encourage students to spend their recess time more actively. School health services help foster health and well-being as well as monitor, prevent, reduce, treat and refer important health problems or conditions of students and staff of the school (WHO 2006 b). School health services can consist of a teacher designated to be responsible for healthy diet and physical activity monitoring, a trained school nurse or a school health team that includes a nutritionist or a diet/nutrition specialist.
Although not all governments can provide health services in schools, where resources are available the following services may be considered (WHO 1998, WHO 2006 b). Children need to be educated related to the knowledge of being selective about the food that they choose to eat. For this reason the younger children have to be under strict rules, especially about the hand washing before they eat. But all this is related with the parent’s level of education. Parents and other caregivers play an important role in a child’s life as nurturers, teachers, disciplinarians, role models and supervisors. They control most of the food choices at home and their support positively influences physical activity among children and adolescents.

It is very important to do regular measurement of body weight and height of students with a feedback system to parents. Schools that initiate BMI measurement programmes should adhere to safeguards to reduce the risk of harming students, have in place a safe and supportive environment for students of all body sizes, and implement strategies to promote physical activity and healthy eating. We can refer to other school services and community health services based on results of the screening. The recommendations about physical activity for all students, including those with disabilities, and their parents is another important point of health education. Health education consist also in counseling of students and their parents to promote healthy eating and appropriate levels of physical activity. In addition to providing these regular health services, health professionals may also be involved in research, monitoring and evaluation, education and advocacy. Health professionals can play a significant role in promoting healthy diets and physical activity in schools. Nurses, nutritionists, doctors, counselors, and staff can help children to eat healthily and participate in appropriate levels of physical activity.

References


Permanent Control: The Formula of a Sound Operational Risk Management Approach in the Albanian Banking System

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Abstract

Statistically based the operational risk management culture is still primitive in the Albanian banking system and that’s why it attracts and causes operational risk. Inevitably, the operational risks may only be increasing, as we see growing globalisation, more competitive markets, rapid developments in technology, and periods of economic difficulty... by becoming an emergency for the Albanian banking system. Thus, in this paper we explore on proposing to a/m system a developing strategy for detection, prevention and response to the operational risk with highest standards of professionalism and the utmost integrity in dealing with all stakeholders of the Albanian banking system by providing also to its customers a safe banking business guaranteed from the banks control functions.

1. Introduction

It should be admitted that operational risk management remains a very individual issue pertaining to each bank in Albanian banking system in prospect of business, customer target group, organisation, etc.... and finally to the perceived development strategy. This led us to discuss the matter initially with risk professionals of banking industry aiming to categorize the concerns faced and latter on think about appropriate responses materialized through proposed methodologies needed to be implemented aiming a proactive general operational risk management in the a/m system. It’s worth mentioning that specific nature initiatives are undertaken from Albanian Association of Banks through the establishment of technical committees but anyway it seems that were not enough.... Precisely, by enabling a broader discussion of the issue based not only on loss statistics but also to the overall operational risk management process, were verified problems in operational risk events identification, assessment and analysis due to the lack of detailed controls exercised permanently on the entire banking activity and following their miscommunication to the responsible instances.

1.1 Data Collection Methodology

Our analysis used qualitative and quantitative data collected directly from the second level banks. For this purpose, it was elaborated a structural questionnaire with specific questions (regarding the operational risk management methodology deployed in the bank and respective loss statistics) which was electronically delivered to the Risk Management departments (by making clear the data usage, anonymity preservation and by simultaneously requesting the response validation from Chief Risk Officer before the submission). In any case the data collected were analysed by using SPSS-16 version in terms of validity and reliability.
1.2 Research Results

The questionnaire through which the analysed data were collected was organised in two parts. The first part consisted in questions on the existing daily operational risk management approach (regulatory framework or the group standards) while the second one referred to the defective areas statistics (operations, market and lending) revealed during the last two years (since the regulation of operational risk management from Central bank of Albania became effective).

The responders were asked to mark the level of daily operational risk management process on a 5-point scale in the first part while a 3-point scale was used in the second part regarding the severity of loss in each defective area.

This research results have shown that in the first part, banks mainly handle the risk management according their headquarters’ standards /requirements in the quality of the international banking groups affiliates by including our regulator’s embryonic requirements. Furthermore, the second part results revealed not fully compliant with the operational risk approach implemented from the banks, so more operational risk events were reported in the areas not indicated under the methodological framework implemented. Logically, these results bring to strong arguments on deeper controls climate in each cell of the operational risk management process powered by permanent control functions.

2. Tracking operational risk events through warning signals and alerts captured from control lines

Even why operational risk identification and reporting mandatory remains the responsibility of each bank employee it can’t be correctly handled due to the human being nature. Under this context the identification process should be resized by using different warning signals and alerts received from the key risk indicators (KRI’s) as well as by implementing first and second control levels in the banking activity. What are the key risk indicators, and what can be treated as operational risk warning signals and alerts?

KRI’s (see Fig. 1) are measurable metrics/scorecards or indicators that track exposure or loss, or, as one person put it, “trouble”. The indicator becomes key when it tracks an especially important exposure, or it does so especially well, or ideally both. There is a rationale for thinking that, at least in some ranges, changes in the value of this indicator are likely to be associated with changes in operational risk exposure or operational loss experience.

While warning signals encompasses: business risk, cultural, management, employee, process, transactions, financial, environmental risk and IT - data risk issues.

And operational risk alerts consist in: unusual destinations, discrepancy between earnings and lifestyle, unusual irrational or inconsistent behaviour, alteration of documents and records, extensive use of correction fluid and unusual erasures, photocopies of documents in place of originals, immediate fluctuations in stock accounts, etc.

By this way, in order to reflect and capture on time the warning signals, alerts and translate them in KRI’s we should affirm and extend the first (1.1C) and second (2.1C) control levels. In other words, we should divide the banking practices in two phases (through the access rights matrix), in operative (1.1C) and approval one (2.1C) on behalf of its criticism and risk exposure. Furthermore, the experience obtained from the two-phase validation process as bureaucratic seems as well as risk identifier appears. The approval phase also can increase the chances to retrieve additional warning signals, alerts and contributes in the improvement of operational risk identification methodology by contemporary enhancing the internal communication. An important fact in the identification process is the causality but should be mentioned that the periodic controls (internal, external audit and permanent controls) can also reveal them. And sometimes the last requires the process resizing.

Fig 1. KRI evaluation method

KRI = Anomalies/Breaches/Failures identified
Total no of transactions controlled


3. Operational risk investigation scheme

All the operational risk events revealed through the 1.1C and 2.1C controls should be investigated in order to understand the cases which made the occurrence and prevent similar future events. For the a/m purposes the following investigation scheme is proposed:

- Preservation of evidence (Physical and Electronic);
Interviews;
Statements and witnesses;
Statements from suspects;
Analysis of the Whistle Blowing Policy (compliant settled on a malpractice noted);
The 2.2C and 3C controllers reports on the issue.

In respect of the investigation steps and respective results should be implemented the recommendations of the 2.2C and 3C controllers which may consist in further 1.1C, 2.1C and 2.2C controls implementation or in additional preventive measures in respect of anomalies observed.

4. Operational risk monitoring and assessment

Operational risk monitoring is the crucial point of the entire operational risk management process. It should be widespread in the eight indicated business lines/functions as well as on operational risk categories according to Basel II methodology and must be exercised in quarter, semi-annual and annual basis. The quarterly monitoring is performed against through KRIs, while the semi-annual through 2.2C and 3C level of controls. These controls are exercised from the control functions, respectively the 2.2C level of control is exercised from the Permanent Control Department while 3C level of control is exercised from Internal Audit Department. In contrast to 1.1C and 2.1C level of controls they are exercised on sample basis. Based on these control results and relative experience Permanent Control and Internal Audit Departments can give indications on new KRI’s establishment in order to improve the monitoring process as well as to evaluate the necessity to build and exercise additional 2.2C level of controls. These practices used among banks can enable the interpretation and comparison of KRIs between them by expanding their external communication line. The assessment refers to a three dimensional model (risk function, risk category and business lines (see Fig. 2) for the overall institution as well as for a certain product or activity within the bank.

![Three dimensional model](image)

**Source:** Risk Management Association (RMA), [http://www.rmahq.org/RMA/](http://www.rmahq.org/RMA/).

This process must be held at least annually, thanks of the business lines manager’s (senior managers) contribution in the quality of the main responsible for operational risk management in the respective area. Organized under monitoring and assessment workshop theme may be exploited the occasion to build and develop scenarios that can impact the business under different banking areas expert’s knowledge. And, this kind of communication aims on a general awareness toward the collaborators by contributing on a safer internal environment.

5. Segregation of duties

The segregation of duties is quite expensive for banks as more people are needed to accomplish and finally execute the initiated transactions. It largely depends from bank’s core systems designation or their strategic choices related to process centralisation or decentralisation. In any case the segregation of duties perfects the transactions quality and can raise their quantity due to the operations homogeneity. Therefore large banks always segregate the duties (implement the four eyes principle) in order to correspond to the business needs (a practical context) and from the other side the segregation of duties makes the people involved in the system more responsible of the actions undertaken (a
philosophical context). The segregation of duties reveals more than necessary for the operational risk management process as assists in the identification of anomalies and urges their management. Exactly, the anomalies identified from the segregation of duties in any other manner can be treated as key performance indicators (KPIs). Furthermore, the key performance indicators may be used as operational risk warning signals or alerts retrieved to better understand and evaluate the institutions operational risk situation. Thus, the segregation of duties represents an alternative way of exercising different level of controls by becoming a real internal preventive mechanism.

6. Permanent control structure

Permanent control functions (the specialised second level controls-2.2C), adjusted to specific needs are lately introduced in banking control philosophy. They are perceived to supervise the transactions /processes finalized through first or second level of controls (see Fig. 3).

Fig.3: KPI evaluation

\[
2.2c \text{ indicator/ KPI} = \frac{\text{TRN's performance}}{\text{Controlled sample}}
\]

Source: Permanent control function, Calyon, http://www.ca-cib.com

Shortly, they ascertain the validity of segregation of duties within the institution by using against the four eyes principle logic and giving as feedback key performance indicators (KPIs). Prone on more sensitive areas such as: compliance, legal, operational risk, financial risk, accounting risk, credit risk, outsourced essential services and IT security areas they cover the major part of banking activity (see Fig.4).

Fig.4: Permanent Control Hierarchical Sceme

Source: Permanent control function, Calyon, http://www.ca-cib.com

However they can be further expand in the same/different, directions if it deems necessary. Predominantly, they are quarterly, semi-annually and annually exercised in respect of the controlled transactions/ processes frequency. In contrast to audit controls, they are performed in distance from the appointed persons/ controllers (in a/m area) but anyway in sample basis. All the controls conducted must be trialled in order to give to the validator (head of permanent control) the possibility to recheck the databases build from the controllers before giving the final consent according to the calculation of KPIs rating. Nevertheless the experience accumulated on the controls typology provides changes on the KPIs rating. Thus, their evaluation limits on low (green), medium (orange) and high risk (red) may change on behalf of banking areas procedures/policies as well as business environment and expectations. In any case these results carry information above anomalies in the controlled areas by indicating the necessity of investigations in place (verifications), which may further lead in measures on the transaction/process procedure review or establishment of additional 2.2C level of controls regarding the mentioned process.
7. Follow-up the permanent control results

To follow the permanent control results means:

- to identify (the reasons that generate anomalies);
- monitor the correction of anomalies that lead to potential operational risk events.

Obviously special attention is paid to the medium and high risk rated areas, and the most direct way to follow-up the issues derived from a certain process is to discuss above defective chains of the process with the direct area’s responsible/ senior manager. This discussion can help the area’s controller to understand the irregularities reasons and request the appropriate adjustments. For this purpose an action plan must be designed and launched (with a timeframe) from the controller in request of the corrections conduction. The solely responsible for the initiated action plans and respective completion is against the controller. The results achieved from all the initiated action plans status are reported in Operational or Fraud Risk Committees by being subject of the decision making process regarding further measures to be undertaken under operational risk management approach. Therefore, permanent control follow-up is a mutual process between control and execution lines that monitors the last aiming to cover the irregularities by contemporary educating them. Thereby the internal communications strengthen and reduce the operational risk events non–response chances.

8. Permanent control instruments in support of Operational Risk’s Advanced Measurement Approach implementation

The underlying idea of Advanced Measurement Approach (AMA) represented from Basel II Framework is that banks use their internal models to estimate the necessary capital for operational risk management, which would align it with economical capital. By this way, using AMA instead of other much simpler alternative approaches in operational risk management such as Basic Indicator Approach (BIA) and Standardized Indicator Approach (STA) it can be allocated a lower capital charge related.

As known, the implementation of AMA requires the fulfillment of a lot of preconditions from the institutions (see Fig. 5) and the major part of the second level banks operating in Albania could not be expected to meet them for years especially when regulatory requirements regarding operational risk management are basic.

Fig. 5. Typical approach to build an LDA model, Source: Alexander, C.(2003).Operational Risk: RAM. PHFT.

But it should be also considered that, generally the operational risk quantification as per AMA’s requirements is still a difficult task for the time being due to: data shortages, the nature of operational risk and lack of a strongly risk-sensitive exposure measure in operational risk modelling. Anyway the major part of the banks in the albanian banking system are trying to make a step ahead regarding the own operational risk management as per respective group requirements.

8.1 Internal Data Collection Process

For the first time Albanian banking system started to collect and report the respective loss events data for Bank of Albania (BoA) on July 2011, even the loss data collection process had already started as a necessity of international banking groups operating in Albania through respective affiliates (but none of them has actually more than 3 years of loss
historical data as revealed from the questionnaire results). The internal loss data collection process assumes that historical losses are a good indicator for predicting future losses, meaning that the risk management process keeps them equally, and in fact this is difficult to be guaranteed. In any case is necessary a large set of data with a certain number of losses for a consistent measurement, but more losses can be revealed through a sound exercise of permanent control.

8.2 External Data Collection Process

From the other side is quite impossible to exchange the loss data in the Albanian banking system without having a loss data pool (it should be the regulator’s responsibility to collect and make available these data to the entire system) but it remains still a prospective.

It should keep in mind the problematic of external data usage as argued from Allen and Bali (2004), that operational risk datasets tend to suffer from under representation of low frequency, high severity events and from the respective confidentiality, even are mandatory to be reported. Under this context the problem can be solved by using a common data pool as previously mentioned (which should be developed and managed from the regulator based on loss data collected from the banks aiming to share the same risk factors such as: business activity, size, business and control environment, etc.) which will be useful to the system itself.

Despite this fact the risk data gathered during an economic expansion can’t be used in a recession period. But anyway, it should be underlined that the establishment of a data pool is an emergency for the regulator in order to support and manage not only the loss data collection process but also to make aware the Albanian banking system for the respective operational risk size. However it doesn’t represent consistency with each bank operational risk’s profile as mainly operational risk events are considered uncorrelated. In fact, mainly AMA is a loss distribution approach (LDA) which depends on internal and perhaps on external loss data, whereas the other techniques are used to supplement the historical loss data they are also required to be implemented.

Furthermore the view held by Haubenstock and Hardin (2003), argue that the LDA utilizes internal and external data but it involves additional steps, including the development of scenarios for stress testing and incorporating scorecards and risk indicators.

Later on, regarding the LDA, Hausebenstock and Hause (2006) suggested that it may be used for the whole firm, whereas scorecards can be used for business lines (which they call a hybrid approach) and the issue here refers to the loss allocation in the business line’s in case of multiple losses and in this respect permanent control plays a very special role.

8.3 Scenario Analysis

The scenario component of an operational risk model is predominantly determined by two steps: the definition of scenarios and their calibration. For both of these tasks, an integration of expert judgment for tailoring the scenarios to the bank’s operational risk profile is a common approach. However, expert judgment should only complement industry information instead of totally replacing it. In particular, industry information on tail distribution characteristics of common scenarios contains significantly more robust information than an often arbitrary expert calibration at high severity quintiles.

The definition of scenarios should cover all potential high severity risks (assessed during monitoring) and result in a longer term-invariant of the model. The tail calibration of scenarios is pre-dominantly a mid-term invariant “worse cases assessments should no change frequently”, however it requires at least a yearly review based on the current business environment and on the information collected. Problems are also associated to the scenarios analysis, the scenario elaboration process requires significant resources including the direct participation of a broad range of senior managers to understand the scenarios that could impact the business. The scenarios almost are built by using empirical expert’s knowledge of different banking areas.

At the current stage for the Albanian banking system the scenario development perception is a very complicated process which represents just a potential loss initiating from the fact that operational risk losses are considered uncorrelated and there is no memory related due to a proactive operational risk management. It is considered a novelty for the Albanian banking system which remains still on theoretical terms of scenario development, therefore somehow questionable but specifically the matter can be further explored and managed from a pervasive permanent control context.
8.4 Business Environment

Business environment and internal control mechanism should be defined by Top Management with a list of Key Risk Indicators (KRI’s) and Key Performance Indicators (KPIs). Both are classified considering their impact on operational risk by using scorecard. The scorecards usage for AMA implementation is subjective as they are typically mapped in a subjective manner to monetary loss amounts, particularly in case of human risks (inadequate or failed people or management processes). The KRIs and KPIs identification requires an intensive dedication to the business lines through proactive control mechanisms aiming to capture the gaps in order to establish the most important representatives that should be analyzed for operational risk events mitigation purposes.

That’s another complex approach considering the typology of operational risk events in different business lines. On the other hand there isn’t any benchmark in place in the system regarding KRI’s and KPIs typology even for the eleven KRIs established to be reported and monitored from our regulator and that’s why the integration of the KRIs and KPIs data in the bank’s operational risk management process is difficult concerning to the external data comparison and usage. In any case, it should be admitted that the data collected from the permanent control function in our banking environment can enhance the benchmarking through the implementation of standardized controls strategy by considering also the operational risk data pool establishment and usage.

9. Conclusive remarks

As observed, permanent control function affects every cell of the operational risk management process by simultaneously increasing the communication, given that it penetrates to the heart of the matters.

In fact, permanent control becomes integrative part of operational risk management as:

- Increases operational risk events identification chances;
- Examines the overall banking activity independently from its segment’s risk profile;
- Implements horizontal and vertical monitoring schemes;
- Proactively prevents by establishing specific standards on risk awareness culture;
- Follows-up the defective areas by implementing Corrective Action Plans, by substituting the last three steps of Operational Risk Management Cycle as argued from Hussain (2000) and consisting in the reduction of operational risk events probability and severity.

Obligatory, it constitutes a dynamic and complex function since involves people, processes, targets, etc against a certain expenditure depending on the bank’s size (as it can be traditionally exercised or managed through particular systems) and represents the management weapon and senior management task.

It gives the right indications for risk transfer mechanism implementation (insurance), processes, procedures, and strategy redesign if they reveal defective.

Moreover the permanent control series makes available important elements of the Operational risk Advanced Measurement Approach such as: KRI’s, KPI’s, scenario analysis, internal loss data benchmarked with the external loss data, etc.

By this way, it promotes the banks to spontaneously explore the internal modelling independently from the regulator’s standards set with lower costs primarily in view of respective needs and goals...

And finally attempting the gradually switch in the Operational risk Advanced Measurement Approach, of course if it deems convenient for the banks itself. In principle, permanent control is a good portent for operational risk management as it will reduce the cost of doing business in the second level banks pertaining to the Albanian banking system considering the actual circumstances.

References

Statistical Detection of Vote Count Fraud:  
2009 Albanian Parliamentary Election and Benford’s Law  

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Abstract

Election fraud is difficult to be detected especially in developing countries undergoing multiple dimensional transitions. The Albanian political actors’ mistrust leads to a fraudulent environment for all elections held since 1991 (post-communist regime) being disputed for potential fraud. This paper applies the first digit Benford’s Law to the 2009 parliamentary elections results for each of the 12 districts as a way of mapping the disputes for the fraud level during elections. The results and graphs show that there has been an obvious election fraud; there is no correlation between the votes and Benford’s rate in almost all the districts. The analysis performed evidences the shift of votes from smaller parties towards the major ones especially towards the Democratic Party and Socialist Integration Movement (2009-13 governmental coalition) and also the swung of votes from the losing coalition (including the Socialist Party as leading party of the governmental opposition) to the winning one. There is evidenced also a shift of votes from the main parties to the smaller ones, probably within the same coalition. The fraud evidenced from Benford’s Law (as per figures presented) illustrates that the incurred level has resulted in the alteration of political representative number currently in the Parliament, both at party and coalition level.

Keywords: Election Fraud, Benford’s Law, parliamentary election results, distribution, correlation;

1. Introduction

How do we know that the official winner of the election really won the actual declared vote numbers? Are we fully certain that the result wasn’t manipulated? The central and local elections are often characterized from a constant debate on manipulation from one party or the other deriving from vote stealing, uncounted votes, disrupting the will of the voters or of the vote counters, purchase of votes etc. The main concern relates to detect and prevent manipulation in advance and take the proper steps to prevent it. The actual practice is place by only looking at electoral results and assume of manipulation based on one side statements is not that trustworthy. The main question that arises in this matter is logical: “Is there a way of measuring if there have been or have been not electoral fraud?”

Free and fair elections are the cornerstone of every democratic society (Diamond LJ, Plattne MF, 2006). Throughout the world, in old and new democracies alike, allegations of vote fraud frequently occur (Lehoucq 2003) (Mebane Jr Walter R., July 17, 2006, pg 1). Accusations of fraud and electoral skulduggery seem an ever-present component of democratic process. Although things may have not changed much historically the winners rejoice, whereas the losers claim foul (Joseph Deckert, Mikhail Myagkov, and Peter C. Ordeshook, 2011, pg. 245). Almost each one of the election results held in Albania (local or parliamentary) have been contested and made doubtfulness of the respective legitimacy. The same has happened in the 2009 parliamentary election: the Union for Change Coalition with its main party, the Socialist Party, claimed fraud of votes. Third part international observers have assessed the vote count negatively in 22 of the 66 Ballot Counting Centers (OSCE/ODIHR, 2009, pg. 24). Moreover, many smaller parties claimed that their votes had been shifted towards the two main parties Democratic or Socialist Party (OSCE/ODIHR, 2009, pg. 26).

Although elections are one of the central pillars of a functioning democracy, little is known how to measure electoral fraud. The issue in this case is that the output is only derived from observing or detecting singular manipulation but it can not be proven or analyzed in a large scale. It would be very appreciable the development of an objective method (statistical) that could measure the election manipulation based on the election official results. This statistical tool would serve as an indicator, which applied on the election returns, would investigate the election’s legitimacy. Some practices of manipulating voting results leave traces, which may be detected by statistical methods. Recently, Benford’s law (Benford F, 1938, Proc Am Philos Soc 78:551–572) experienced recognition as a potential election fraud detection...
tool (Mebane Jr., W. R, 2006).

In this paper I apply first digit Benford’s Law on the 2009 parliamentary results on the 12 electoral district of
Albania and then analyze the results and changes between the real data distribution outcome and Benford’s Law first digit
distribution. The difference of counted votes real data and the statistical distribution based on this Law is created to show
if there has been, and if so, at what level.

1.1 Benford’s Law

Benford’s Law is a mathematical distribution statistical theory based on the first leading digit of the numbers presented in
a large data set. It states that the probability of the frequency occurrence of the leading digits of a large data set of
numbers is not uniformly distributed. The law explains how this could arise if the frequency of first digits themselves were
not uniform in real world observations but rather followed the rule (Malcolm Sambridge, Hrvoje Tkal’cić and Pierre
Arroucau, 2011, pg 1). In a simpler way by illustration, it defines a way that if we randomly select a number from a
physical or statistical large data set, the probability that this number leading digit would be 1 is about 30.1 % and
attributes a specific percentage weight to each of the first 9 natural number. The other remained numbers starting with
others digits come in descending order, such as first digit 2 comes out 17.6% of the times, and so on by the latest one
being the first digit 9 coming out about 4.6% of the times.

Formally, Benford’s Law can be expressed: A set of numbers is said to satisfy Benford’s law if the leading
digit \(d\) \((d \in \{1, ..., 9\})\) occurs with probability:

\[
P(d) = \log_{10}(d + 1) - \log_{10}(d) = \log_{10} \left(1 + \frac{1}{d}\right).
\]

In the table below are shown the nine first digit numbers and their frequency of occurrence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Benford Law predicted frequencies (1BL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First digit</td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.301</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Benford’s Law application in Vote Counts

Studies on voting behavior have built models on the base that each individual’s choice is essentially a coin flip, and the
election results being only the artificial sum of this coin flips taken together. The probability of different voters’ outcome is
different, meaning that the election coin may have more than two sides. As Mebane argues: “Taking voter turnout
decisions into account does not essentially change the basic coin flip idea”. In this case, to produce the coin flips
probabilities, the probability of each person’s vote is multiplied by the conditional probability that the person makes a
particular choice among the candidates or ballot initiative options. (Walter R. Mebane, Jr., 2006, pg 4)

The approach of this paper is to apply this statistical theory of the first digit frequency distribution to the electoral
election of Albanian 2009 parliamentary counted official vote results.

During the last years, Benford’s law has been used on the election data set in the fraud evidencing. An example is
its use to evidence manipulation in the 2009 Iranian elections (Stephen Battersby, 2009). This method is based on tests
of the distribution of the digits in vote counts, so all that is needed are the counted vote counts themselves. (Mebane Jr
Walter R., July 17, 2006, pg 1). As “fraud” I assume every kind of manipulation that could have been done during the vote
counting process of the Albanian Central Electoral Commission official report results, such as steal of vote, uncounted
vote, disrupt the counters will, shifted votes, etc.

I applied this theory on the 2009 Albanian Parliamentary electoral results for each of the 12 electoral districts since
based on the Electoral Code of Albania each district functions as an independent electoral zone, and serves as an
Votes, in 2009, were counted manually from the Local Electoral Commissioners for each of the 12 district. Counting
teams were composed of four members nominated by the parliamentary majority and by the opposition, Democratic Party
and Socialist Party of Albania.

Thus if 1BL will show vote manipulation, most probably this manipulation has been done from these counting
commissioners since no one else was allowed to enter the counting zone. In terms of Albanian vote counts, Benford’s
Law distribution depends on the frequency occurrence size of each political party support treated as a data set for statistical purposes.

My interest in this paper is to confront the real data of official counted vote’s distribution of Albanian 2009 election to the 1BL (first digit Benford’s Law Distribution), in order to observe if these two distributions do match, or if there have been fraud in the election results. Although, based on the claims of particularly the losing political parties of the Albania 2009 Election and on the not so positive report of OSCE/ODIHR for the 2009 election results, (OSCE/ODIHR, 2009), I do not expect the two forms of distributions to match. Those who are not aware of this theory and intentionally manipulate numbers (for example vote count fraud) are susceptible to get caught by the application of Benford’s Law.

Benford’s, somewhat surprising law, with its monotonic decreasing first digit distribution, has been demonstrated to hold with a large number of data sets that include the populations of towns, budgetary data of corporations, the number of citations received by papers, and the half-lives of radioactive atoms. (George Judge, Laura Schechter, 2007, pg. 3).

Benford’s Law can recognize the probabilities of frequencies of first digit numbers, based on mathematical logarithms of the occurrence of first digits in randomly generated numbers in large data sets. The numbers of the data set taken into consideration from the law are randomly generated. In this case, the number of voters in each district selects a particular number of respective parliamentary representatives can be applied the law.

3. Benford’s Law Application to the Albanian 2009 Parliamentary Vote Counts

1BL predictions are going to be tested as above mentioned, against the official parliamentary 2009 election data in the attempt to ascertain whether fraud has or has not occurred. As an Albanian district functions as an electoral zone unit, I will analyze them separately.

Important to be mentioned before beginning to analyze the two forms of vote counts distribution, is that the main actors in the Albanian Political arena are the Democratic Party of Albania “PD” (main party of the Changing Alliance Coalition), the Socialist Party of Albania “PS” (main party of the Union for Change Coalition) and the third from the importance is the Socialist Movement for Integration Party “LSI” (main party of the Socialist Movement for Integration Coalition).

3.1 Berat district 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Real Data Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>-0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>-6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>-7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>-6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 1. Berat’s district 2009 Parliamentary Result
Table 3. Berat’s district 2009 Electoral result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (AD, PAA, AMIE, ADS, PFA, LZHK, PBD, PDK, PRDSH, PMDE, PTR, PBDNJ, PLIDR) 6.3%</td>
<td>4 (PDRESH, PLL) -6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (BLD, PD, POSH, PRRL, PGJ, PSV 91) 0.6%</td>
<td>5 (empty set of data) -7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 (LDLNJ, LSI, PDS) 4%</td>
<td>6 (empty set of data) -6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 (LDK, PBK, PDI, PKONS, PSD) 10.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the 1BL of vote for the Berat district, from graph 1, it can be seen that there has been fraud; none of the two combined forms of distribution columns correlates to each other. Interesting is the fact that the first digit groups beginning with 5 and 6 are empty data set of votes, which means that there have been full manipulation. Probably, these votes are shifted to other parties (in the left column of table 3). The other group of parties (starting with first digits 4 of votes) that have missing in their counted votes are composed from two political parties that were in coalition with the PD (Changing Alliance). Probably this -6.7% have passed to the PD party of group with 2 as first digit vote number group as well as to the other parties that were in this coalition of first digit group 1 and 9 (AD, PAA, AMIE, ADS, PFA, PRDSH, LDK, PBK, PDI) as it can be seen from table 3. The greatest adding of vote percentage over the 1BL distribution relates group 1 while PD is the leading party of the coalition of PDRESH and PLL.

In the left table column, 12 parties of the Changing Alliance Coalition make 44% of the total of parties that had an increase in counted votes. It means that this coalition based on 1BL made the most manipulation in its benefit. For itself the PD party is in group 2, with two other parties of its coalition and also three other parties of Socialist Movement for Integration coalition and one of the Freedom Pole Coalition. Their percentage is not too high, only +0.6%, not to significant compared with the other analyzed above and also not too statistically significant in this case. Instead the LSI party and two parties of the Socialist Party of Albania Coalition, belonging to group 8, had an increase of +4% in the normal distribution of votes as per Benford’s Law.

Interesting is to analyze the fact that the PS is not present in table 3. Based on 1BL, this party in Berat district has not suffered or performed directly fraud, but indirectly from its coalition member parties LDLNJ, PDS, PBDNJ, and PSD.

As, a conclusion, the distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law doesn’t correspond to the normal distribution of the Berat real election data. In this matter of facts, based on 1BL distribution, predominantly the highest manipulation has been done from the Changing Alliance Coalition smaller members compared to the leading PD party, followed by LSI party.

The parties which suffered the loss of votes are difficult to be determined due to the groups of 5 and 6 first digit of vote number being empty data sets.

3.2 Dibër district 2009 Parliamentary Results 1BL Analyze

Table 4. Dibër district 2009 Parliamentary Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Real Data Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>-11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>-0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>-4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>-0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>-2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>-5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 2. Dibër district 2009 Parliamentary Result

Table 5. Dibër district 2009 Electoral 1BL Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 (AD, LDK, PFA, PLL, POSH, PMDE, PBDNJ, PDS, PS)</td>
<td>1 (PBKD, PR, LZH, PDK, PRR, PGJ, PSV 91) -11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>4 (PDM e Re, PKONS, LDLNJ) -0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (PAA, ADS, PD, PDI, LSI, G 99) 5.7%</td>
<td>5 (PRDSH) -4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 (PBK, BLD, AMIE, PDRESH, PBD) 10.6%</td>
<td>6 (PSD, PLIDR) -0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 parties of the Changing Alliance Coalition make 65% of the total number of parties that have experienced an increase in counted votes. This coalition based on 1BL, has performed the most manipulation in its interest. The other parties that have an increase are from the Socialist Movement for Integration Coalition, LSI and PMDE.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The group of parties which have less than they should have as per 1BL distribution is group 1 (with -11.9%) part of which are PGJ, PSV 91 (part of the same coalition of the largest parties with vote increase, the Socialist Movement for Integration Alliance), LZH, PDK, PRR (Freedom Pole Alliance) and PBKD, PR, (Changing Alliance Coalition). The parties of the Union for Change don’t appear in this group except PSD (party of group 6) with not significant change in vote count (-0.6%).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different from other groups, 5 and 7 are formed by only one party. As per 1BL in this district, PRDSH lost 4.9% of its votes and PBK lost 2.8% of it votes. If these parties hadn't lost this percentage of votes in Dibër district, they could have had the possibility, based on the Albanian electoral code (Electoral Code of Albania, 2008) to win parliamentary mandate (1-2 mandates). However, it didn't happen; the real counted votes were low, respectively 0.14% and 0.01% (table 28).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is also a very suspicious group of -5.1% (group 8), an empty data set of counted vote which is translated in a full fraud of votes. It can not be said anything more in this case because it is an empty set and it is impossible to suppose which were the parties that these votes have been shifted.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a conclusion, the distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law doesn’t correspond to the normal distribution of the Dibër real election data. Smaller parties of the Changing Alliance Coalition were the most beneficiary of the counted votes increase. Also PD, LSI and PS were part of the “has done manipulation” groups. In the right table column presenting parties with a decrease percentage of counted votes is worth to mention that in this case the Freedom Pole Alliance Parties are the most damaged ones.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Durrës district 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

Table 6. Durrës district 2009 Parliamentary Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>-8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 3. Durrës district 2009 Parliamentary Result

Table 7. Durrës 2009 Electoral 1BL Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 (BLD, AMIE, PDRESH, PR, PRDSH, PKONS, PMDE) 3.6%</td>
<td>1 (PDM e Re, POSH, PDI, PDK, PRRL, LDLNJ, PTR, PSD) -8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (AD, PBK, PBKD, PFA, PBD, PGJ, PBDN J) 11.7%</td>
<td>4 (PAA, PS) -3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (LZHK, PSV 91, PDS) 1.2%</td>
<td>6 (PD, PLL) -0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 (LDK, ADS, LSI) 4.5%</td>
<td>7 (G 99) -2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 (empty set of data) -5.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be noticed from graph 3, there is no correlation between the two combined forms of distributions columns as also Table 6 confirms it.

In Durrës district, it is worth mentioning that the two largest parties PD and PS result with a decrease of counted votes. PD is in group with first digit vote number starting with 6 with a smaller party of its coalition with a decrease of 0.6%, not as a significant loss as the group in which is PS with -3.6% (group 4) is present. Instead the third major party, LSI, belongs to the group 9 as well as other parties of the Alliance of Change with an increase of +4.5%. Socialist Movement for Integration coalition has also smaller parties in group 2, 3 and 5 which probably have benefited from vote counting. However, 10/20 ⇒ 50% of the parties which based on 1BL have obtained an increase in votes from manipulation are part of the Changing Alliance Coalition. There are also present small parties of the Freedom Pole Alliance with vote gaining, but the most probable to have done manipulation (increase of votes) are firstly the members of the Changing Alliance Coalition and secondly LSI. The Union of Change Coalition, from the data seems to have suffered more from the decreasing counted votes since parties of this coalition appear with loss votes, as also its main party.

A very important data to analyze is the -2.8% of vote loss of the G 99 party (group 7). This increase in vote percentage could have given this party 1 mandate in Durrës district; instead this party got no mandate as the real data percentage was only 0.49%. Interesting to be mentioned in this district is the first digit 8 group with a -5% in votes. As in some of the other district as well, also this one is an empty data set suffering a total manipulation and thus it is impossible to suppose to which party this votes based on 1BL have been shifted.

It can be concluded that the distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law doesn’t correspond to the normal distribution of the Durrës real election data. The Changing Alliance Coalition and LSI seem the most probable candidates to have benefited or done manipulation in contrary to PS and its coalition members.
3.4 Elbasan district 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

Table 8. Elbasan district 2009 Parliamentary Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>-11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>-0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>-5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>-1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 4. Elbasan district 2009 Parliamentary Result

Table 9. Elbasan 2009 Electoral 1BL Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 (PAA, ADS, PDRESH, PFA, PDK, PRDSH, PSD, PLIDR) 6.6%</td>
<td>1 (BLD, PBK, PBKD, PDM e Re, LDLNJ, PBDNJ, G 99) -11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (PRRL, PGJ, PMDE, PSV 91) 2.4%</td>
<td>8 (empty set of data) -5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (AD, PD, PBD) 1.2%</td>
<td>9 (PDI) -1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (PS) 2.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 (LDK, PLL, POSH, LSI) 6.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Elbasan district the counted votes as per 1BL were manipulated as well since the Benford distributions curve doesn’t match the real data one (graph 4). The only point where they have an almost perfect match is 1BL 12% (group 3, PR, LZH, PKONS and PTR). It can be said that these parties did not commit or suffer manipulation. A total shift of votes instead has happened in group 8 (-5.1%) being disrupted and distributed to other parties as per 1BL. As per the presented situation, there are chances that the Changing Alliance Coalition (PAA, ADS, PDRESH, PFA, AD, PD, LDK, PLL, POSH) is the largest beneficiary of the votes shift since 45% of the parties with increase of votes belong to it, group 2 with an increase of +6.6% (4/8) and group 7 with +6.3% (3/4).

LSI group is the second most present with an increase percentage of votes present in group 4 with +2.4% increase (PG, PMDE, PSV 91) and its main party LSI present in the group 7 of an +6.3% increase together with small parties of the Changing Alliance Coalition. There are also parties from the Freedom Pole coalition and Independent parties experiencing an increase: PLIDR, PDK, PRDSH, and PBD.

The clearest fraud in this district is the one of the PS party (group 6, component only by this party) of +2.4% increase. This result probably gave this party one more parliamentary mandate which as per 1BL could not have been happened. Instead the G 99 and PBDNJ, parties of Union of Change coalition, had loss percentage of votes (part of group 1, of -11.9%). The group of 1 also contains 4 small parties of the Changing Alliance Coalition (BLD, PBK, PBKD, PDM e Re), and LDLNJ. Moreover another party with a decrease of votes is PDI party with a decrease of 1.5%. Such a result might have negatively affected this party which had the possibility for a gaining potential candidate in this district if
all the other data had been the same.

Although group 3 distribution match to the 1BL, it can be said that the distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law doesn’t correspond to the normal distribution of the Elbasan real election data. All the three main parties, PS, PD, and LSI had an increase of votes. The most probable situation is that from these three main parties, PS was the most advantageous in vote increasing percentage. The empty set of -5.1% for the 8 group of first digit number of votes which most probably have been shifted to the other parties might also had a considerable effect on the district mandate results.

3.5 Fier district 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

Table 10. Fier district 2009 Parliamentary Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>3.23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.18%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>0.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.18%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>5.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.06%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>-3.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.09%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>1.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.06%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>-0.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-5.8%</td>
<td>-5.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.06%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>0.95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.03%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>-1.55%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 5. Fier district 2009 Parliamentary Result

Table 11. Fier 2009 Electoral 1BL Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an decrease of vote</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 ( PAA, ADS, PBKD, PDRESH, PDM e Re, PRDSH, PKONS, LDLNJ, LSI, PTR, PDS, G 99) 3.23%</td>
<td>4 ( AD, PDI) -3.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 ( AMIE, PLL, LZHK, PRRL, PMDE, PLIDR) 0.57%</td>
<td>6 (PBDNJ, PBK, PDK) -0.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (PFA, PR, PB, PGJ, PSV 91, PSD) 5.69%</td>
<td>7 (empty set of data) -5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (LDK, PD, PBDNJ) 1.17%</td>
<td>9 (POSH) -1.55%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Fier district, as it can be seen from the table 10 and graph 5, different from the other distribution analyzed above and the ones below, the margin of electoral fraud based on the 1BL, is the smallest of the 12 Albanian Electoral District. Fier is the second largest district in Albania, following Tirana, with 16/140 parliamentary deputy mandates. It is interesting to mention that the two main Political Parties, PD and PS, as shown in table 6, result to be in group 5 and 8, with only a small percentage increase in votes. As per the same analysis based on the 1BL, if these two parties have done manipulation, it probably is done through their smaller coalition’s members to increase the coalition number of votes in total and enforce the coalition position against the Union for Change Coalition. LSI and its coalition parties are also important to be mentioned here because also these parties are part of the ones that had an increase in votes.
(LDLNJ, LSI, PTR, PGJ, PSV 91, PMDE, PBDNJ), but also they do not have an increase that could bring a negative impact to the other two main Parties, PD and PS. The highest group with vote gaining in this district as per 1BL is the group 3 with +5.69% composed from parties of all 2009 coalitions. It looks like all the three of them and their smaller parties in coalition are balanced with each-other fraud of votes, it’s like a balance sheet of losing-winning of counted votes.

However, suspicious and hard to be explained remains group 7 with -5.8%, since it is an empty data set of parties, a total shift of votes towards other parties probably towards parties who have resulted with vote increase.

In this case it can be said that except group 7 and 3 and 4, the other normal distribution of votes are almost equal to the 1BL, which means that in the Fier district distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law correspond partially to the normal distribution that its real election data. In this case “partially” means that “most of the differences of margin between the two statistical distributions are almost at a low level, but not totally match”. Anyway the PD party and its coalition, the Changing Alliance Coalition, although not in a high percentage, remains the probable most beneficiary of the increasing of counted vote, although with not such an impact differences from the other parties and coalitions, such as the Socialist Movement for Integration, The Freedom Pole and Union of Change.

3.6 Gjirokastra district 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

**Table 12 Gjirokastra district 2009 Parliamentary Result**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate %</th>
<th>Benford Rate %</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>-5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>-6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>-2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Graph 6 Gjirokastra district 2009 Parliamentary Result**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 ( PAA, PBKD, PD, PFA, LzHK, PBD, PDK, PKONS, LDLNJ, LSI, PGJ, PMDE, PTR) 6%</td>
<td>2 ( AD, ADS, PBDNJ, PS) -5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (AMIE, PRRL, G 99, PLIDR) 5%</td>
<td>4 (BLD) -7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 (POS, PR, PSD) 5%</td>
<td>5 (PBK, PSV 91) -2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 (PDS) -2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Gjirokastra district, based on graph 6 and table 12, it can be seen that parties of group 3 (LDK, PDM e Re, PLL, PDI) and 7 (PDRESH, PRDSH, PDS) have an almost perfect match to the 1BL. It can be said here that in groups 3 and 7 were not committed or suffered electoral fraud. The distribution of increased votes in this district (table 13) is more balanced between the parties of the Coalitions (except for the Union of Change with only two parties).
LSI and PD are both in group 1. The Changing Alliance Coalition remains the most probable coalition to have the major increase of its percentage of votes since its parties are distributed in all of the three beneficiary groups.

The most loss of percentage votes in this district pertains to the Union of Change Coalition. Its parties are 4/8 of those experiencing a decrease in votes, apart of which is also the PS party belonging to group 2 with -5% in counted votes.

From the analysis of this district, it can be concluded that based on the 1BL, the Changing Alliance Coalition and the LSI Coalition had the most increase in vote percentage. The Freedom of Pole also is part of the vote increase, but taking into consideration that these parties coalition are not too powerful in the electoral game of Albania, they have less chance to be equal beneficiary as the two other mentioned above. On the other hand, the major decrease of vote numbers was suffered from the Union of Change. It is obvious that also PDS experienced -2% vote percentage shift as per 1BL. This percentage could have helped this party to win a parliamentary mandate (instead they got no mandate because they had only 1.84% of votes in the real data). It can be said that most of the statistical vote counts distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law doesn't correspond to the normal distribution that is in the Gjirokastra real election data which partially matches the Benford’s Law.

Also important is to mention, that in the Gjirokastra district there are no groups with empty data sets and is the only district in Albania with all groups being present. Despite oscillations of the sample rate and of the Benford rate, the non existence of an empty set supports idea that the vote results in these districts are balanced and the shift of votes is more easily noticed.

3.7 Korca District 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

Table 14. Korca’s City 2009 Parliamentary Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>-24.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>-5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>-1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 7. Korca City 2009 Parliamentary Result

Table 15. Korça 2009 Electoral 1BL Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 (AD, LDK, PDRESH, PDM e Re, PFA, PR, PBD, PRRL, PSV 91, PTR, PBDNJ) 15.7%</td>
<td>1 (PBKD, PRDSH, PSD) -24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (PLL, POSH, LZHK, PDK, PGJ) 2.7%</td>
<td>8 (empty set of data) -5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (PBK, PDI, LSI, PMDE) 2.4%</td>
<td>9 (G 99) -1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Korca district counted vote present in the group 7 has an almost perfect match to the 1BL of 6%, but on the other hand this district has the highest margin of differences between the highest increase of 15.7%, and the highest decrease in votes of 24%. This means that manipulation could be easily have been done in this district rather than in the other 11 electoral district of Albania. In group 2 of the +15.7 percent the Changing Alliance Coalition parties are 6/11 of the present parties in this group, meaning the party of this coalition are highly probable to be the most beneficiary of the increased votes. This argument is supported also by the fact that the Changing Alliance Coalition Parties make 50% (AD, LDK, PDRESH, PDM e Re, PFA, PR, PLL, POSH, PKD, PDI, PD, PAA, AMIE, ADS) of the total beneficiary parties in the left column of table 15, and in the decreased column this coalition is present with only one party (PBKD).

Highly suspicious is the group 1. It is composed by only three parties (PBKD, PRDSH, PSD) which has the highest vote fraud of -24%. This means that if this percentage was not incurred from these parties votes, very much probably all three of them could have the possibility to be a potentially winner of a minimum one mandate for the 2009 legislature. The G 99 party (of the Union of Change Coalition) has -1.5%, meaning that this party have lost the probability to win an electoral mandate. Upon this reasoning, I can suppose that the Union of Change Coalition (mostly present in the parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes) is the coalition that lost the most percentage of votes. This argument is also supported by the fact that the PS is present in group of 5 of only 1.2% increase of vote, not to significant. In this matter of facts, for group 8 (an empty data set) I can only suppose that the highest probability is that votes from the Union of Change formed this group of first digit data.

It can be said that the statistical counted votes distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law doesn’t correspond to the normal distribution of the Korca real election data. The margin of differences between normal and 1BL distribution varies a lot from one group of parties to another. The most beneficiary parties in count votes based on 1BL probable are the Changing Alliance Coalition, then the Socialist Movement Coalition. Instead the probability that the Union of Change had vote loss is high.

3.8 Kukës District 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

Table 18. Kukës’s District 2009 Parliamentary Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>-4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>-2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>-4.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 8. Kukës District 2009 Parliamentary Result
Table 19. Kukës 2009 Electoral 1BL Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (LDK, PAA, PDRESH, POSH, PDI, PR, LZHK, PRDSH, PKONS, LSI, PBDSJN, G 99) 6.3%</td>
<td>5 (PLL) -4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (BLD, PD, PBD, PGJ, PDS, PLIDR) 0.6%</td>
<td>6 (empty set of data) -6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (AD, AMIE, PDM e Re, LDLNJ, PTR) 2.7%</td>
<td>7 (PBKD) -2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (ADS, PBK, PDK, PRRL, PSV 91, PSD) 8.5%</td>
<td>9 (empty set of data) -4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 (PFA, PS) 0.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kukës is not different from the other districts as the results are suspicious based on 1BL. Parties from all coalitions have made fraud since the most large data set of decreased percentage in votes are empty, group 6 (-6.7%) and 9 (-4.6%). The remaining two groups that have data in them are from the Changing Alliance, PLL (-4.9% of it votes) and PBKD (-2.8% of its votes). It is clear that if these parties haven’t lost votes, could have been strong candidates for winning minimum one mandate for the 2009 parliamentary election.

Groups 2 and 8 have the lowest difference between the real distribution and Benfords’ one at the 0.6% and 0.9% (part of this group is also PS) meaning that there has been not too much fraud from the parties in these groups because they have only 0.6% of votes over the 1BL distribution. Groups 1, 3 and 4 have more votes as per the 1BL data set, meaning that presumably they have done vote manipulation. 44% of the present parties in the column of increased vote percentage are from the Changing Alliance Coalition (LDK, PAA, PDRESH, POSH, PDI, PR, BLD, PD, AD, AMIE, PDM e Re, ADS, PBK and PFA). These parties have the most probability to have done manipulation, although the main party of this coalition is in group 2 with an insignificant increase in votes (+0.6%) compared to LSI, which is in the +6.3% increase of votes. Also PS is in group 8, which can be also considered as insignificant fraud, but parties of Union for Change Coalition PBDSJN, G 99, PDS, PSD, belong to the groups that had a significant increase in votes (1 and 4).

The above analysis takes into the conclusion that the two main parties of Albania PD and PS have not done vote manipulation directly, but in an indirect way, of making manipulation in increasing the percentage of their coalition’s small parties, so on to increase the coalition percentage in their benefit. In contrary as mentioned above it can not be said the same for the third main party of Albania LSI, because this party and its coalition parties PGJ, LDLNJ, PTR, PSV 91, belong to groups that had a considerable increase in votes.

Important as the one mentioned above are the Freedom of Pole Coalition parties (LZHK, PRDSH, PKONS, PBD, PDK, PRRL), which also have the probability to have done manipulation of votes. Although these are smaller and weaker parties compared to PS, PD and LSI and their respective coalitions (smaller parties are helped from the main parties).

As in Korca, for Kukës district it can be seen the margin of differences between normal and 1BL distribution varies a lot from one group to another, as for this, it can be said that the statistical vote counts distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law doesn’t correspond to the normal distribution that is in the Korca real election data, as the presence of the Changing Alliance Coalition is 14/32, 44% of the total number of parties that probable had an increase. Probable to have done manipulation is also the Socialist movement for Integration Coalition and less party from the Union for Change.

3.9 Lezha District 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

Table 20. Lezha’s District 2009 Parliamentary Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>-3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>-0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>-7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>-3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>-2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>-1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 21. Lezha 2009 Electoral 1BL Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (LDK, PAA, AMIE, ADS, PDRESH, PFA, PLL, POSH, PR, LZHK, PDK, PGJ, PMDE, PSV 91, PTR, PLIDR) 15%</td>
<td>3 (AD, PD, G 99) -3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (PDM e Re, PDI, LSI, PBDNJ, PDS, PSD, PS) 4%</td>
<td>4 (BLD, PKONS, PRRL) -1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (AD, PD, G 99) -3%</td>
<td>5 (empty set of data) -8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (BLD, PKONS, PRRL) -1%</td>
<td>6 (PBKD) -4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (empty set of data) -8%</td>
<td>7 (PBK) -2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (PBKD) -4%</td>
<td>8 (PBK) -2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 (PBK) -2%</td>
<td>9 (PBD) -2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lezha district is also another example of none uniformly of 1BL vote distribution, although the margins of oscillation are not to large, as it can be seen from graph 9, the real data set distribution follows a softer trend line, as the 1BL, although column one and five has no match at all between the two distributions.

More specifically it can be analyzed the data from table 21, where it can be seen that the 7 first digit groups (PRDSH, LDLNJ) has a match between the normal and 1BL statistical distribution at 6%. But contrary to this, the other first digit groups does not match, which means that based on 1BL there have been fraud. The highest first digit parties groups of normal distribution having more then 1BL is 1 (+15%) 9/16 => 56.2% of which are from the Changing Alliance Coalition (LDK, PAA, AMIE, ADS, PDRESH, PFA, PLL, POSH, PR) and the rest from the LSI Coalition (PGJ, PMDE, PSV 91, PTR,) and an independent party PLIDR, and LZHK, PDK. In group 2 (+4%) there are also 2 more parties of the Changing Alliance Coalition (PDM e Re, PDI), the LSI party and PBDNJ, PDS, PSD, PS (Union of Change Coalition parties).

It is clear that the Changing Alliance Coalition parties are present in the most increased percentage of votes groups, followed from the Socialist Movement for Integration Coalition. It is interesting in this district as in the Kukës analyzed above that the main parties of the Coalitions, PS and LSI belong both to the low increased percentage of the counted votes. Instead the other main party, PD at contrary of its coalition smaller parties is in group 3 that had a lost of 3% in votes. Group 8 have had a total fraud of votes, which probably have been distributed in the other groups that have more votes than the 1BL.

Based on 1BL there are three parties PBKD, PBK, PBD as it is clearly shown that they lost votes respectively 4% the first and 2% the other two. These parties could have won a parliamentary mandate, and the most probable of them is the PBKD party of the Changing Alliance Coalition.

3.10 Shkodra District 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

Table 22. Shkodra’s District 2009 Parliamentary Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>-15.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>-0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>-5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>-5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>-4.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 10. Shkodra’s District 2009 Parliamentary Result

Table 23. Shkodra district 2009 Electoral 1BL Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 (LDK, PAA, AMIE, PBKD, PLL, POSH, PR, PRRL, LSI, PMDE, PDS, PSD) 18.8%</td>
<td>1 (BLD, PDRESH, PFA, PGJ, PTR, PBDNJ) -15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (LŽHK, PRDSH, PSV 91, PLIDR) 2.4%</td>
<td>7 (empty set of data) -5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (PD, PDI, PBD, G 99) 4.2%</td>
<td>8 (empty set of data) -5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (PBK, PDM e Re, PKONS, LDLNJ) 5.4%</td>
<td>9 (empty set of data) -4.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Shkodra district is among the 12 districts the second one to have the highest oscillation between the two distributions. As it can be seen from graph 10, there are 7, 8, 9 first digit votes number groups that have missing votes (empty data sets of votes), meaning they suffered a full fraud of votes.

In this group of shifted votes, I can also put the 1 digit group of parties because it has a great missing of votes with -15%. These votes, probably, have been distributed to the 2 group (showing the highest increase of votes over the 1BL of +18.8%), 5, and 6 first digit votes groups. It is noticeable from table 10, there has been loss of votes from the Socialist Movement for Integration Coalition (PGJ, PTR), the Union for Change (PBDNJ) and Changing Alliance Coalition (BLD, PDRESH, PFA).

Although, the empty data set doesn’t at this point allow analyzing in more details the shifted data. All these uncounted votes from the right column are distributed to the parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes. Group 2 has the largest increase of counted votes, 7/12 parties of this group belong to the Changing Alliance Coalition. Parties of this coalition are present also in group 5 and 6. In summary, parties of the Changing Alliance Coalition from most of the number of parties belong to the increased groups with increase of counted vote.

Also LSI (PMDE, PSV 91, LDLNJ) and parties of its coalition are present in this group. They take a much smaller part compared to the Changing Alliance Coalition. The smaller portion of the increased votes belong to the Union of Change Coalition can be interpreted as this coalition and the Socialist Movement for Integration Coalition, had a smaller probability compared to the Changing Coalition Party in doing vote count fraud in Shkodra District.

It can be concluded that the statistical vote counts distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law doesn’t at all correspond to the normal distribution present in the Shkodra real election data results.

3.11 Vlora District 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

Table 24. Vlora District 2009 Parliamentary Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>-11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>-0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>-1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>-5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>-2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 11. Vlora district 2009 Parliamentary Result

Table 25. Vlora district 2009 Electoral 1BL Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had an increase in votes</th>
<th>Group of parties based on 1BL had a decrease of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 (AD, ADS, PFA, PLL, PBD, PRDSH, PGJ, PSD) 6.6%</td>
<td>1 (AMIE, PR, PDK, PKONS, PSV 91, PDS, PLIDR) -11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (LDK, PBKD, PD, LZHK, LDLNJ, LSI, PTR) 8.7%</td>
<td>4 (POSH, PDI, PS) -0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (BLD, PDM e Re, PBDNJ) 2.4%</td>
<td>5 (PRRL, PMDE) -1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 (PAA, PDRESH, G 99) 4.5%</td>
<td>7 (empty set of data) -5.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 11 and table 24 show that none of the real data distribution matches the 1BL data distribution. Although Vlora district, like a very few districts analyzed in this paper (Fier,) has comparatively lower oscillation margins between these two types of distribution.

It is worth mentioning that as per data presented and taken into analysis in this district, PBK party has experienced a -2.1% decrease in vote percentage which if not occurred could result in this party to have obtained a mandate in Vlora district. 11 parties of this coalition (Changing Alliance) on the other hand are 11/20 => 55% of the total present parties result in an increase of votes (table 25). All the other parties that have an increasing percentage of votes are the ones belonging to the Changing Alliance Coalition, in which also its leading political party, PD, is present (group 3) with +9% of increase. Also 5 parties of the LSI Coalition had an increased in counted votes, three of which are present in the +9% percent of vote (LDLNJ, LSI, PTR). The probability to have had an increase of votes is also present in the LDLNJ and PTR from the Freedom Pole Alliance. They are smaller and less influential parties within the PD and LSI coalitions and their probability to have done manipulation is smaller compared to other the largest parties within the same or other coalitions. The PS as leader of the largest coalition in this district is on the right column of table 25 with decreasing percentage of votes at -0.6%. The Union of Change Coalition as per 1BL distribution of votes most probably is part of the group of parties suffering from votes manipulation, although two of its parties in coalition are present to the 2 and 9 groups of respectively with +6.6% and +4.5% of vote increase.

Other parties most likely to have lost votes are AMIE, PR, POSH, PDI (Changing Alliance Coalition), PDK, PKONS, and PRRL (Freedom Pole Coalition) PSV 91, PMDE (Socialist Movement for Integration) and PLIDR (independent party).

As per above, in Vlora district, vote counts is another confirmation of vote fraud. None of the nine first digits normal distribution of vote numbers correlates to 1BL distribution. Only group 4 real data is almost matching with 1BL distribution. Most probably, based on 1BL, parties which have made fraud in their interest is firstly the Changing Alliance Coalition and secondly the Socialist Movement for integration Coalition. On the other hand, it is worth mentioning that the 7 first digit number group is an empty data set at a rate of -5.8% resulting in these votes to have been shifted to other political parties.

3.12 Tirana District 2009 Electoral Results 1BL Analyze

Table 26. Tirana District 2009 Parliamentary Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1BL</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sample Rate</th>
<th>Benford Rate</th>
<th>Fraud Measure Δ%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>44.1%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>-8.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tirana is the district with the largest number of parliamentary mandates (32/140) (Electoral Code of Albania, 2008), double of the second largest one Fier with 16/140 legislature mandates. This means that this district has the greatest importance in the parliamentary election process because it has more than ¼ of the Albanian parliamentary legislature seats. This is the reason why the political parties do focus a lot of energies in this district. For as, Tirana is the main district observed experiencing vote manipulation, as confirmed from the 1BL vote distribution control measurement. It is on the top of the district list with the greatest oscillations of differences between the normal distribution and 1 digit Benford’s Law.

Table 26 shows that all first digit number groups of parties in the Tirana district normal distribution does not correlate to the 1BL distribution. Moreover, they have a huge difference between them except first digit 6 (two small parties of the Changing Alliance Coalition) and 9 (two smaller Socialist for Integration Alliance parties) which altogether have an increase of about 1% in vote number. This is not statistically significant as the other first digit number groups with a very large shift in votes.

The highest differences are in first digit group 1 (+14%), 2 (-8.8%), 3 (-6.6%) and the five 5 digit group (empty set of votes -7.9%), 7 (-2.9%) and 8 (+9.6%). As it can be seen in table 14, the group that had the largest loss of counted votes is the 2 group which is formed from a small Changing Alliance coalition party (PDM e Re) and from two Union for Change parties (PBDNJ and G 99).

Interesting is in this case, the G 99 party (a former civil society organization centered in Tirana City) which in this city had a large number of supporters, as part of the in 2 digit group, could be the party that had the largest percentage of votes shift. G 99 party and the others in this group (PBDNJ, PDM e Re) had loss of -8.8% of votes, as minimum, one of them could had high potential for getting a parliamentary mandate.

The other two important percentages to analyze are parties that belong to group 3 and 5. The first is formed from the Albanian Democratic Union Party (Freedom Pole Alliance) and Social Democratic Party of Albania (in coalition with the Socialist Party of Albania in Union for Change Coalition), which have experienced also a loss of votes. The lost votes of this coalition are repeated in group 7 (PTR). The Changing Alliance coalition smaller parties are present in the column of lost counted votes (PFA, PR, BLD, and LDK) but they belong to small loss of votes percentage. Group 5 is an empty...
data set of votes, what means that this group votes had a total shift of votes towards the parties that based on 1BL had an increase in votes.

The most increase of votes had group 1, which is formed mostly from Democratic Party of Albania and its coalition parties (AD, PAA, AMIE, ADS, PBK, PD, PLL, POSH). Interesting in this group is that also the two other largest parties in Albania, Socialist Movement for Integration and Socialist Party belong to the group. This means that all these three main political parties could have done votes manipulation, although the Changing Alliance coalition parties, if we translate their presence in percentage, are more present in the increased number of votes with 44.8%; most probable to have done fraud than the others. However, also the Socialist Movement for Integration small parties in group 8 (PTR) had an increase in votes as well as other smaller parties of the Democratic Alliance are present in this category.

It can be said that the vote counts distribution of first digits of Benford’s Law in Tirana district, doesn’t correspond at all to the normal distribution in Tirana real election data. From the above analysis is clear that all the three main parties of Albania, PD, PS and LSI, had a probable significant increase in votes, presenting the opportunity to performed fraud in their interest. Although it can be clearly seen that the Changing Alliance Coalition and its main party PD\(^1\), probably had the most increase in counted votes.

4. Conclusions

First digit Benford’s Law has been applied to the 2009 Albanian election official results vote counting, as a way of mapping the disputes for the fraud level during this election count of votes. This form of distribution was applied to each party votes’ results for each of the 12 districts for the 2009 parliamentary elections. The results and graphs show that there has been an obvious election fraud because almost in all districts there is no correlation between the real data of counted votes distribution and Benford’s distribution rate. There are also a number of district that the 1BL showed the minimum counted vote fraud, partially confirmed in Fier and Gjirokastra districts.

As a conclusion, the analyses performed evidence of shifted votes in Albanian 2009 counted votes. Predominantly the highest to have done manipulation, translated in the most beneficiary of the counted votes increase are the Changing Alliance Coalition, followed from the LSI (both of them are the lead parties of the 2009-13 governmental coalition). Instead the Socialist Party, its coalition of Union for Change, and parties of the Freedom Pole Coalition seem more likely to be on the losing side of votes percentage due to counting manipulations, although the PS and the parties its Union for Change Coalition are also present in some districts as beneficiary of vote numbers.

The vote count fraud based on 1BL has been done in the interest of the main parties (PD, PS, LSI) as an increase in their rate. In some districts, it appear as a vote manipulation directly in the main parties vote percentage increase while in some other districts it appears as an indirectly increase through the percentage increase of the respectively coalitions smaller parties.

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Stephen Battersby, Statistics hint at fraud in Iranian election, New Scientist, 24 June 2009

\(^1\) Need to be mentioned that the PD was at that time the Government Party from 2005.
Annex

**Table 28. 12 Albanian District Final Electoral Results percentage**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Electional Subject</th>
<th>ALB</th>
<th>BDI</th>
<th>DNI</th>
<th>Elbasan</th>
<th>Fier</th>
<th>Gjirokastër</th>
<th>Kukës</th>
<th>Ksamil</th>
<th>Lushnje</th>
<th>Vlora</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Democratic Alliance</td>
<td>50.4%</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Popular Democratic Union</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Union for the Republic of Albania</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Democratic and Social Albanian Party</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Democratic National Front Party</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Albanian Republican Party</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Legend:**
- **ALB:** Liberal Democratic Union
- **BDI:** Popular Democratic Union
- **DNI:** Union for the Republic of Albania
- **Elbasan:** Democratic and Social Albanian Party
- **Fier:** Albanian Republican Party
- **Gjirokastër:** Democratic National Front Party
- **Kukës:** Albanian Republican Party
- **Ksamil:** Democratic and Social Albanian Party
- **Lushnje:** Albanian Republican Party
- **Vlora:** Democratic National Front Party

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**Note:** The table above presents the final electoral results for the 12 Albanian districts, with percentages indicating the distribution of votes for various political parties. The table includes columns for electoral subject, district, and percentage of votes for each political party. The total column represents the percentage of votes for each political subject across all districts.
Representations of Woman's Body in Prose by Latvian Women Writers

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Abstract

Feminism has been deeply concerned with female body either as something to be rejected in the pursuit of intellectual equality or as something to be reclaimed as the very essence of women. Another alternative, associated with feminist postmodernism, seeks to emphasize the importance and inescapability of embodiment rather than as a differential and fluid construct than as a fixed given. Different female body representations are inscribed in Latvian women’s prose from 1960s to 2010. As it was common for Soviet literature, also in prose of Latvian women writers of the period body and sexuality, especially the female one, was left beyond the discussion, mostly figuring as the unspoken. If woman’s body was inscribed in texts by Latvian women writers of the Soviet period, then either as an object of man’s desire or in connection with woman’s reproductive function as mother’s body. However, in the end of 1980s with the disappearance of the censorship and the changes in the general cultural atmosphere, in prose of Latvian women writers previously repressed issues of women’s lives started to appear and woman’s body was recovered; a different women’s history was told through inscriptions on female bodies. In contemporary Latvian women’s prose woman’s body appears as essential part of female identity, emphasizing inseparability of body and mind and acknowledging that woman experiences the world also with her body.

Keywords: Latvian women’s prose, woman’s body, mother’s body, women’s history

1. Introduction

Feminist scholar Elizabeth Grosz in her work Volatile Bodies demonstrates that sexually specific body is socially constructed and somehow in Western culture women have always been perceived as “more biological, more corporeal, and more natural than men” (Grosz 1994, 14). Feminist theories have searched for new ways of talking and writing about woman’s body. Considering that in dominant Western cultural tradition body has been perceived as material and constant given, fixed biological unity that has to be transcended in order to free the mind, it is essential to look at body avoiding biological, essential and universal presumptions and to emphasize the importance and inescapability of body as different and fluid rather than as a fixed given, meaning, that there are many different bodies that are not only marked by sex, but also by race, class, sexuality, age, etc. and none of those factors is more important then the others. Recognizing that there are several and fluid embodiment possibilities, body becomes a place for seeking. The aim of the paper is to analyze what female body representations can be found and what changes concerning those representations can be observed in the prose by Latvian women writers during the time period from 1960s to 2010.

2. Female body in Prose of Soviet period

As it was common for Soviet literature, also in prose by Latvian women writers of the period body and sexuality, especially the female one, was excluded from texts. Blame and shame was placed on the body in the attitudes that dominated in the society and culture of the time. As women writer Rudite Kalpiņa in her novel Man for Lies, Flattery and Pleasures (1993) writes: “(…) human figures in the school anatomy book convincingly confirmed that for a Soviet person sexual differentiation did not exist, because both for men and women in the according places there was – nothing. One big nothing for all.” (Kalpiņa 1993) And if woman’s body was inscribed in texts by women writers of the Soviet period, then either as an object of man’s desire or in connection with woman’s reproductive function as mother’s body.

Writer Ilze Indrāne’s novel Watercarrier (1977) is a story about woman named Klinta. Indrāne also inscribes

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Klinta’s body in the text both as an object of her husband’s desire and in connection with her reproductive function as mother’s body. Indrāne describes the first sexual intercourse between Klinta and her husband as seen from Klinta’s point of view:

*Somewhere far, far in the corner of the living room sprawls rust colored sofa. There are no blankets, no sheets. Doesn’t matter. Doesn’t matter! Let it be over with faster. Then she could close her eyes and forget about her terrible, powerless nakedness in the middle of an unknown room.* (Indrāne 1977, 31)

The shame about her nakedness that Klinta feels can be associated with the fact that a woman looks at her body through the eyes of a man. A similar situation is described in Andra Neiburga’s 2 story *Stuffed Birds and Birds in Cages* (1987) when a woman is overwhelmed with shame about her body after a sexual intercourse: “In this room there are so many things that don’t belong to either Dainis or me that I am seized with shame about my nakedness and about what we both just did a minute ago. In front of everyone.” (Neiburga 1987, 164) ‘Everyone’ in this case means things belonging to roommates in the dormitory room that Dainis shares with some other young men. Feminist philosopher Sandra Lee Bartky had pointed out that woman lives her body enveloped by gaze of anonymous patriarchal Other (Bartky 2001, 129). Woman’s body in prose by Latvian women writers during Soviet era is also inscribed through the gaze of man. Feminist scholar Sandra Gubar writes that women “are products of the male imagination, objects created for the use of men.” (Gubar 1985, 293) In Regina Ezera’s 3 story *Reflection of the Sun* (1969) Elza’s body is inscribed in the text as it is seen from her husband Žanis point of view and that is also how Elza looks at her body, as if through her husband’s eyes:

*Was it a pity and despise that she earlier caught in Žani’s gaze at the door? It hurts; however, she must look the truth in the eye. Slowly but at the same time unavoidably she has changed and not for the good, she has gained weight (and Žanis had never liked fat women!), her hair is like flax – neither light, nor dark (maybe colour the hair?), and double chin has appeared.* (Ezera 1969, 120)

Elza criticizes her body because she wants to be desirable in her husband’s eyes. Thus the texts by Latvian women writers of the Soviet period reflect the traditional order where woman, associated with the body that is subordinated to the mind, is situated in the prison of her own body and man’s desire. Both Klinta in Indrāne’s novel and Elza in Ezera’s novel represent Nature to their husbands. Although Klinta is a talanted pianist and Elza had aspired to become an artist, for their husbands they are pure bodies. When Elza’s husband watches her making little meat pies in kitchen, he wonders to himself: “Is she still fooling around with clay in secret, or has she got over it for good?” (Ezera 1969, 186) Although he doesn’t say it out loud, his attitude is negative, while Elza’s older woman friend Guņa insists that Elza should keep up with her art, encouraging her not to cut all ties with her earlier aspirations. When Elza replays: “That’s not art. Anybody can do it,” Guņa asks: “And what kind of arts are you busy with now? In the kitchen? Or in bed?” (Ezera 1969, 186)

Simone de Beauvoir in her work *The Second Sex* focuses on the way women have been made into man’s other, describing how “one is not born but becomes a woman” through changes in women’s bodies that prepare them for maternity (De Beauvoir 1969). De Beauvoir also calls upon literary work by men in order to show that for men woman represents Nature and either assures through opposition or threats by temptation his intellectual activity; using examples of works by women writers de Beauvoir shows that such women’s experience of their bodies as the pain and disgust makes them regard their bodies as alienating, “something other than herself” (De Beauvoir, 1969). Woman’s body in Latvian women’s prose is also conceptualized as maternal – feminine. In Indrāne’s novel *Watercarrier*, Klinta’s feeling of shame about her naked body after the first sexual intercourse with her husband is followed by happiness that now she will be able to become a mother. Indrāne describes it as a bodily feeling:

*Still a happy heaviness didn’t allow Klinta to move even her eyelids. In silence without a breath wishing to melt in sounds and colors belonging to her that she had never felt before. As if that child already alive and warm and heavy slept in her body. As if little lips already sucked at her breast.* (Indrāne 1977)

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2 Andra Neiburga’s (1957) prose has been published since 1985, and critics and also wider readership consider her to be one of most gifted representatives of Latvian contemporary literature. Neiburga has received the Annual Prize for Culture awarded by the leading Latvian newspaper “Diena” for her latest book “Push, push” (2004).

3 Regina Ezera (1930–2002) was one of the most outstanding Latvian prose writers of the 20th century. The author of more than twenty books, she wrote both novels and stories to equally high acclaim. Ezera earned the title of Distinguished Culture Worker of the Latvian Socialist Republic in 1974 and she became Latvia’s People’s Writer in 1981.
Although it is too early to feel any signs of pregnancy in her body, Klinta's bodily experience in the text is concentrated on woman’s experience of her body as maternal body.

Also Ezera in her prose inscribes woman’s bodily experience in connection to mother’s body. However, in the story Reflection of the Sun even pregnancy in connection to woman’s body is shown as a subject that is silenced in the culture of the time. When Elza’s older friend Gunja asks her if she is pregnant: “Elza notices that she blushes. Heat flows over her face and neck, her ears are on fire. She bows her head. The kitchen table is covered with blue oilcloth – yellow dots on blue background that is worn out along the folding lines. – No, aunt Gunja.” (Ezera 1969, 158) Although two women in the story share a close friendship, talking about their bodies in this aspect is a taboo as defined by the culture.

The main protagonist Laura’s feelings in Ezera’s novel The Well (1972) that are connected to childbirth are compared to “moments of white enlightenment” and signals a new awareness of her own body:

Maybe Laura’s share of happiness was modest if looking back at her life as the highest points she saw the days that her children were born? Those were the moments of great, white enlightenment that nature has given only to women as a reward for all that only she must suffer. She lay there heavy as earth after the thunderstorm and couldn’t move her limbs, every muscle ached in her overstressed body, but in her ears as a miracle the sound of child’s feeble, dim voice filled up her whole world. (Ezera 1972)

In this quotation Ezera expresses positive attitude towards woman’s experience of becoming a mother. This attitude repeatedly appears in her work celebrating motherhood. However in Ezera’s prose woman’s bodily experience of pregnancy, childbirth, lactation is connected to her psyche, and while for one woman giving birth is the most fulfilling and happiest moment of her life, in the story collection By Quiet Waters (1987), Ezera inscribes different attitudes where women are thinking about their pregnant bodies as reproduction machines. Zita, one of the protagonists thinks: “And wasn’t my body now only a vessel for another life that resided in me?” (Ezera 1987) Dace, another woman protagonist, in a different story by Ezera shares similar feelings. When she becomes pregnant her lover leaves her and because of that she decides to give her child to her sister who can’t have children of her own:

(...) I had become used to the thought that I will give birth to Livija's child. That I am a machine, a device that has to perform a prescribed function. (...) I stayed in Smiltene until the end of my maternity leave. When I went back to Riga by bus, milk strongly leaked from me. Good it was winter. I wrapped in coat. And suddenly I bursted in tears. (Ezera 1987, 174)

There are two possible explanations for the changes in representation of mother’s body in the cited examples. First, Ezera’s story collection By Quiet Waters is published in 1987 when the general cultural atmosphere in Latvia was changing allowing writers to explore previously tabooed themes; and second, women’s bodily experiences are shown as closely connected with women’s psyches, and thus woman’s body and mind appears as inseparable.

3. Woman’s Body and Woman’s Desire

In the end of the 1980s, with the disappearance of the censorship and the changes in the general cultural atmosphere, in prose of Latvian women writers previously repressed issues of woman’s lives started to appear and also woman’s body was recovered. In the 1980s also a new generation of Latvian women writers - Andra Neiburga, Gundega Repše, Rudlīte Kalpiņa, Aija Vālodze, Eva Rubene and others - started to publish. Despite their differences, they were grouped under a name ‘new wave’ or ‘young angry girls’ because they turned against obligatory optimism and didactics that dominated in prose of the time. Instead in their texts they draw attention to such themes as loneliness, absurdity of life, also sex, etc., themes that previously were excluded from Soviet literature. Silenced aspects of women’s experiences started to appear in prose by Latvian women writers and woman’s body obtained new representations in text. The myth about ‘bright future’ or obligatory optimism that functioned in literature of the Soviet period completely excluded from literature a wide area of themes, including erotic depictions of the body (Berelis 1999). Neiburga in the short story Stuffed Birds and Birds in Cages (1987) besides describing young woman’s feelings of shame about her naked body in her boyfriends dormitory room (mentioned earlier as an example of woman living her body enevoped by the male gaze) also allows different representation of woman’s body inscribing woman’s physical sensations that express woman’s sexual pleasure:

And I answer to his kisses and forget about everything else in the world. There is only Dainis, his arms, mouth, his teeth against my teeth, his arms on my breasts, his arms on my belly, taste of blood, his arms – everywhere; the weight of his body that presses me and – strangely – carries me, and light, there is so much light, all my life from now on will be
in the circle of this light, and I scream from happiness together with my body... (Neiburga 1987, 163)

In this passage Neiburga inscribes woman’s bodily experience in connection with woman’s desire that French feminists, a group of women who promoted a new approach to thinking about women, their bodies and their desires in 1970s write, emphasizing desire and the body, women’s erogenous zones and the possibilities of unleashing their libidinal force in writing (Weil 2006). For French feminists women’s desire is what is most repressed and oppressed in the society and because of that – woman’s desire is what most needs to find the expression.

French feminist, philosopher and linguist Luce Irigaray and French feminist writer Helene Cixous emphasize that women, historically limited to being sexual objects for men (virgins or prostitutes, wives or mothers), have been prevented from expressing their sexuality in itself or for themselves. Talking about their bodies and sexual pleasure that have been so absent or so misrepresented in male discourse, could be the starting point for women to know and represent themselves (Jones 1985). Irigaray writes that if women are to discover and express who they are, they must begin with their sexuality, and their sexuality begins with their bodies, with their genital and libidinal difference from men (Jones 1985). Beginning with the 1980s Latvian women writers started seeking new ways of exploring women’s bodily experiences in their texts, including woman’s desire and woman’s sexuality as expressed by women themselves for themselves.

Inga Ābele4 in her story Truths of the Bath-house (2004) describes women’s naked bodies in the bath-house - adolescent girls, young and old women. Women’s bath-house is a place where shame about nakedness doesn’t appear and writer shows women’s bodies the way they are, accepting and valorizing their physical differences. Story’s protagonist, a young woman named Ilze reveals that the public bath-house for her as an adolescent girl was a place where to find out things about woman’s body. Ilze’s experience emphasizes cultural situation growing up in Soviet Latvia with female body excluded from both public and private discussion - in school anatomy books human figures are drawn without any indications of their sex and also in Ilze’s conversations with her mother body and its functions is a taboo theme, thus the bath – house becomes the only place where Ilze can learn something about her own body. When Ilze tries to ask questions to her mother concerning her first menstruation, the mother avoids talking about the subject: “Why we, women, have it and how to use tampons, she couldn’t tell that. That’s why in the bath-house I kept my eyes and ears open. I was looking at breasts, hips, girls, adolescents, women, old women. Like at encyclopedia.” (Ābele 2004, 270)

Thus Ābele in her story reveals the attitudes about female body that dominated in the society, but simultaneously she also offers the silenced story, Ilze’s lived experience in her body.

Ābele also inscribes woman’s body in connection with her desire in the story, first, by describing erogenous zones of woman’s body as naturally beautiful: “They had beautiful, dark vaginas with accurately folded lips like volcanos or dark blue plums. And their pussy hair glowed like silk, fawn-colored and thick.” (Ābele 2004, 271) Second, Ābele in her story inscribes female body in the connection with female desire and pleasure. Ilze admires three middle-aged women that she sees in the bath-house every Friday. Ilze characterizes those women as sensually and sexually liberated, those are the women that in her eyes symbolize the plentifulness and completeness based on what she had observed looking at their bodies and overhearing their conversations when the three women share with one another their experiences of orgasms:

But no one knows that with nobody else in the bed I had felt as good as with him. (...) I can’t describe it to you in words, how it is, but there is the feeling - like I was a goldfish that has been caught on the hook and could die from pleasure. (...) How could one refuse such a pleasure being in their right mind? (Ābele 2004, 172)

Ilze knows nothing more about the women whose conversations she absorbs in the bath-house every friday, the only and the most important thing that stands out to her is the way those women feel about their bodies – embracing their bodily experiences and celebrating them.

Also Nora Iškstena5 in her prose seeks the language for women’s corporeal experiences, which have been silenced

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4 Inga Ābele (1972) writer of prose, drama and poetry. Ābele has received a number of literary awards: the story collection “Observations in the Time of Snow” was awarded the Annual Prize for Literature in 2004, her novel “High Tide” received two prizes, the Annual Literature Prize and the Baltic Assembly Prize for Literature in 2008.

5 Nora Iškstena (1969) is the author of biographies, novels, collections of short stories and essays. The novel “The Education of the Virgin” (2001) was awarded with the Latvian Annual Prize for Literature in 2001. In co-operation with poet Imants Ziedonis, she published a biographical work of fiction “The Indefinite Was” (2006), an attempt at reconstructing his childhood memories. For The Indefinite Was Iškstena received the most prestigious literary award of the Baltic states – the Baltic Assembly Prize, the Latvian Annual Prize for Literature, and the Annual Prize for Culture of daily newspaper Diena.
by the culture of the past. In her novel *Amour Fou* (2009) she re-imagines and re-articulates female body in order to enable women to both feel and think differently about their embodied form: “When God created the first female and didn’t know after what likeness to form her down, in the woods, parting the grass he noticed the lace of delicate cantarellas. And he succeeded.” (Ikstena 2009, 162) Ikstena poetically describes woman’s erogenous zones as naturally beautiful.

‘Joissance,’ the French word for orgasm or for pleasure so intense that it is once of the body and outside it – describes woman’s pleasure which is outside language:

*By raising issues of desire and body, French feminism finds deception at the base of the great, Western intellectual traditions which presume to derive truth from the mind as separate from the body. In fact, the body must be seen as contributing the very condition for thought.* (Weil 2006, 154)

Ikstena in the novel *Amour Fou* creates an imaginary place - fields of ‘orgaismas’ (the word Ikstena has created is made up from two words: orgasm+light) where orgasms that humans experience in their bodies are grown and harvested as fruit, thus speaking about bodily experience that simultaneously is of the body and outside of it. Fields of ‘orgaismas’ is a place outside the body, a place that resembles paradise and that humans can access only for seconds – the duration of an orgasm:

*Ada doesn’t believe her vagina, because in Amo’s arms the whole night all around her breaks, brawls and glows galactics of ‘orgaismas’. (..) first they come in little waves, climbing from ankles to her ear lobes, then lightly shivering slide back. Then they start rising in waves – melt, flow, disappear, make Ada into fluttering substance.* (Ikstena 2009, 110)

Ada’s relationship with Amo is relationship based on bodily pleasure; it is a bodily encounter that helps her to forget love, betrayal and pain of her previous relationship. Ikstena inscribes woman’s desire and sexuality showing how Ada yearns for bodily pleasure with another man inspite of the pain that she feels about the lost relationship. However, at the same time Ikstena also inscribes the inseparability of physical and psychological experience:

*This is the cradle of her ‘orgaismas’. When it is stirred, the stars, galactics and planets move with it. The soul is silent, but everything else is put in motion. (..) Is it possible that her body and spirit are separated in this bed? Ivs lives in her soul, she lives everything else excluding her soul. She can touch everything else, she can bring everything else close to her, very close to the bliss. Except the soul.* (Ikstena 2009, 134)

Woman’s sexual pleasure and desire is very important in the novel, however, Ikstena inscribes it as incomplete without the emotional tie. What is important about Ikstena’s novel *Amour fou* is that she voices not only woman’s sexuality as an organic part of woman’s identity but also inscribes in the texts woman’s desire for relationship with a man where emotional and physical aspects are equally important.

4. Woman’s Body and Women’s History

Nora Ikstena in her prose creates a female world. Concerned with the journey towards the meaning of life she searches for it in her short stories, biographies and novels. In novels *A Celebration of Life* (1998) and *The Education of the Virgin* (2001) Ikstena focuses on women’s experiences also telling women’s history through women’s bodily experiences – abortions, rape, pregnancy, post-partum depression, suicide. In the novel *A Celebration of Life* Ikstena inscribes women in Latvian history of the 20th century through woman’s body: women have to sell their bodies in order to liveduring the wartime and in deportation in Siberia, they get pregnant and undergo abortions, they intoxicate in order to forget the absurdity of life. Eleonora is a deportee in Siberia where body has no value and “with unceasing feeling of hunger she had inherited some terrifying feeling of freedom – that everything is allowed if only one gets food for it.” (Ikstena 2001, 88) In the novel *The Education of the Virgin* Ārija, as a new wife in Latvia in the 1930s, experiences seven abortions in her body because her husband decides that: “Children don’t suit to young, wealthy Latvians (..) but with preservatives he always messes up something.” (Ikstena 2001, 67) The painful experience of many abortions invades both her body and her soul: “Illegal doctor gives small, white pills to Jukija, waits for ten minutes and starts working. Jukija bites her lips to blood–unbearable, insane pain. The fruit is scratched out from the alive body as seeds from a cucamber.” (Ikstena 2001, 78) Life from woman’s body is brutally removed with “hell’s instrument” and afterwords she experiences unbearable pain and guilt that tears both her body and her soul.

Ikstena in the novel also inscribes woman’s experience giving birth during the wartime: “Happily Jukija gives birth to daughter in the cold war hospital where glass from the windows had been broken after bombing. Happily she lies in her
dried up blood. (…) Happily from her breasts will flow lots of milk.” (Ikstena 2001, 106) Årja/Jukija in the war hospital gives birth to her daughter Austrīda who later becomes a ‘women’s doctor’, and a vast squadron of rural women sits patiently in a row by the door of her cubbyhole, quietly waiting their turn to tell the lady doctor the tales of woe of their bodies and their souls. … legal, backstreet, spontaneous abortions, premature births, ectopic pregnancies, ovarian infection, slipped wombs, coit interruptus, trichomonosis, cysts, irregular menstrual cycles, ovarian cancer, climaxis hystericalis, cervical cancer, induced labour, healthy pregnancy, Caesarean section, difficult pregnancy, forceps, pre-partum depression, post-partum depression, hysterical womb, frigidity, onset of ovulation, absence of ovulation, painful menses, trash...
(Ikstena 2002, 15 - 16)

Again, body and soul tell the shared story, because in Ikstena’s prose stories of body and soul are inseparable.

Gundega Repše in novel Thumbelina (2001) also writes women’s history, Latvian history of the 20th century that women have experienced in their bodies. In the story of Amelia Repše inscribes women’s experience in deportation in Siberia – hunger, cold, hard work, but also pregnancy and childbirth:

How was Jukums born? Māks was holding petroleum lamp so that the midwife could see him in the darkness of the night. It was an old wise woman, midwife couldn’t help me much. I was in labour for two days, so worn out that in the end Māks run to get a different wise woman – a wiser one. From a higher category. She then chanted in Russian something about gates of heaven or paradise that has to open, pushed and soon afterwards Jukums was there. (Repše 2001, 120)

Thus different experiences of female bodies are inscribed in connection to lived women’s history in Latvian woman’s prose. One part of the story is told through violence, rape, abortion, and disease, however, there is also a more positive side of women’s history as experienced in their bodies, that in the prose of women writers is told through the childbirth.

5. Woman Writer: Her Body and Her Text

Inga Åbele writes: “I know only that what I feel. (…) So I have come to the conclusion that, in my case, woman in the beginning had dwelled in the text, then this text had re-created the world around her, and in this world now lives the woman and the texts lives in her.” (Åbele 2003, 11) Åbele has also written a work of documentary prose To the East of the Sun, to the North of the Earth (2006) in the form of diary entries that speaks about her living in her text. In this work she is so honest and so open that she becomes vulnerable, not being afraid of revealing an image that would not correspond to the one of an acknowledged writer. Later in an interview Åbele about this work would admit that there it is impossible to talk about a literary ‘I’ in this text, because it is herself and her lived experience (Repše 2012, 101). Susan Gubar had written: “For the artist, the sense that she is herself the text means that there is little distance between her life and her art, and “the attraction of women writers to personal forms of expression like letters, autobiographies, confessional poetry, diaries, and journals points up the effect of a life experienced as an art or an art experienced as a kind of life (…)” (Gubar 1985, 299). Helene Cixous emphasizing the connection between woman’s body and women’s writing had written: „Woman must write her self: must write about women and bring women to writing, from which they have been dried up blood. (…) Happily from her breasts will flow lots of milk.” (Istena 2001, 106) Årja/Jukija in the war hospital gives birth to her daughter Austrīda who later becomes a ‘women’s doctor’, and a vast squadron of rural women sits patiently in a row by the door of her cubbyhole, quietly waiting their turn to tell the lady doctor the tales of woe of their bodies and their souls. … legal, backstreet, spontaneous abortions, premature births, ectopic pregnancies, ovarian infection, slipped wombs, coit interruptus, trichomonosis, cysts, irregular menstrual cycles, ovarian cancer, climaxis hystericalis, cervical cancer, induced labour, healthy pregnancy, Caesarean section, difficult pregnancy, forceps, pre-partum depression, post-partum depression, hysterical womb, frigidity, onset of ovulation, absence of ovulation, painful menses, trash…
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Nora Ikstena has said that actually all the literature is about our experience connected to the three most important concepts: life, death and love. Ikstena’s story Still Life with Death (2004) is a story about mother - daughter relationship written from daughter’s perspective whose mentally ill mother chokes on a piece of bread and almost dies on her arms. Ikstena in the letter to her friend and literary mentor, writer Dzintars Sodums tells about a similar incident in her own experience: „My mother almost smothered in the arms of my father and I, but in some miraculous way we were able to respire her. Now she partly lives at home and partly in TVaika Street, that’s how mad house is called here.” (Ceplis 2007, 31) Ikstena in the story Still Life with Death has recreated her own experience into prose, and in another letter to Sodums she writes: „You are right – if one writes what one knows, has experienced, then there is no need to hide behind invented

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6 Gundega Repše (1960), writer and art scholar, publishes prose since 1979. Repše writes novels, short stories, and essays and is also a literary critic, an art critic and a columnist. In the nineties she became one of the most brilliant writers of contemporary Latvian prose. Received the Annual Award for Literature, Latvia’s most prestigious literary award in 2000.
corners. Although I must say that I had more joyful heart when I was writing my „plūktvaserus“ (light water), not the “groundwaters.”) (Ceplis 2007, 31)

In Regina Ezera’s novels Smouldering Fire (1977), Violence (1982), and Betrayal (1984) dominate such forms of writing as forewords, notes, letters, diaries, reflections, and fragments. The novel Betrayal is comprised of the Author’s letters to Irēna, a young aspiring woman author, and excerpts from the Author’s diaries. Ezera in the novel has included prototypes and themes from her own experience including painful events in her life, but the main theme of the novel is the struggle to find a balance between motherhood and artistry: “Must I be deeply ashamed that I am not an ideal wife because for the ideal wife children come first, while for me, I’m afraid (why do I write “I’m afraid”?), in the first place is my “work” (why do I put it in quotation marks?)” (Ezera 1984, 223) This confession corresponds to Ezera’s own experience as Ikstena in her biographical work about writer Ezera Being with Regina (2007) writes:

Thirty eight years young Regina during the day had finished her duties at home (...) in the evening she closes the cell door behind her. Here everything belongs only to her – her notes, the book shelf, typewriter (...) so young she already has had so much – two husbands, three children. Full – time writer’s life – publications, books, gatherings, meetings with readers.

Full – time family life – she is the main earner. Full – time home life – cleaning, cooking, ironing, washing, sewing, taking care of, weeding, preserving etc. (Ikstena 2007, 40)

Thus the Author’s voice in Ezera’s novel Betrayal conveys her lived experience. However, Ezera doesn’t give the Author a name in that way also generalizing woman writer’s experience.

Woman’s attitude towards her body is influenced by historical, social and cultural contexts, and also in literary representations woman’s body appears as changing. During the Soviet era in prose by Latvian women writer’s woman’s body mostly figures as the unspoken or is inscribed as the object of man’s desire and maternal body. Because of this perception woman’s body is mostly regarded as inherent limitation on women’s capacity for equality and woman is situated in the prison of her own body and man’s desire. However, the situation changes in the 1980s, when the new generation of women writers started to publish. Until 1989 in Latvia (as in the entire Soviet Union) censorship was imposed influencing both the subject matter and the means of representation. With the disappearance of the censorship and the changes in the general cultural atmosphere, it became important to reveal in writing that which was left unspoken, to represent “the dark sides” of the life. In the prose of Latvian women writers previously repressed issues of women’s lives appeared and woman’s body was recovered. Female suffering as inscribed on their bodies: violence, rape, abortion, and disease – was revealed in prose and women’s history was told through those inscription on female bodies. In contemporary Latvian women’s prose woman’s body is inscribed as essential part of female identity. Body and mind are not separated, admitting that woman perceives the world also with her body. There is also a connection between woman’s body and woman’s creativity as Latvian women writers sometimes experience their bodies and their lived experiences as available medium for their art and in those cases the distance between the woman writer and her text is often radically diminished.

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References


Cause and Condition in Time Clauses

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Abstract

Time clauses can express a wide range of semantic relations other than time. This is due to the fact that the conjunctions alone are not responsible for the temporal meaning of the complex sentence with time clauses, on the contrary; other factors such as the extralinguistic context, the internal dynamics of the actions in the main and subordinate clause, and the meanings of predicates also influence the overall interpretation of the sentence. Because of the overlapping of temporal meaning with other shades of meaning, time clauses can present semantic implications of cause, condition, result, purpose, concession, reason, contrast, etc. These shades of meaning sometimes add up to the temporal meaning, coexisting with it, and sometimes they totally rule out temporal meaning, altering the semantic content of the conjunction itself. This paper aims at pointing out the variety of semantic relations expressed by time clauses in English and Albanian, as well as identifying the mechanisms responsible for the complete or partial overshadowing of temporal meaning in these clauses.

Keywords: semantic relations, shades of meaning, time clause, complex sentence

1. Introduction

Complex sentences with time clauses may imply other semantic relationships both in English and Albanian. However, it’s important to note that the temporal meaning of the dependent clause is somehow eclipsed by the coexistence or overlapping of other shades of meaning that are created as a result of the semantic-structural interaction between the main clause and the dependent clause, as well as the context. The extent of the domination of these different semantic roles in the time conjunctions may vary, often leading to ambiguous interpretations of the clauses presented by these subordinators. For example, the turkey-cooking activities of her and her mother in (1e) below could be interpreted as taking place in the same time, temporal interpretation, or in the same way, comparative interpretation.

Thus, English grammarians Quirk et al. (1985), Huddleston et al. (2003), Puscasu et al. (2006) give a number of situations in which time clauses, in addition to temporal meaning, may introduce different meanings such as: cause, result, condition, concession, comparison, contrast, etc. Let’s see these situations illustrated below:

(1)

a. I went to the bank, as I had run out of cash. (cause)
Shkova në bankë, pasi më kishin mbaruar paratë. (shkak)
b. Larry polished the table until you could see his face in it. (result)
Larri e pastroi tavolinën derisa mund të shihje fytyrën e tij në të. (rrjedhim)
c. I don’t mind which of them wins it so long as Ferrari wins. (condition)
S’prish punë se kush do ta fitojë sa kohë që fiton Ferrari. (kushkat)
d. She paid when she could have entered free. (concession)
Ajo pagoi kur mund të kishte hyrë falas. (lejim)
e. She cooks a turkey as her mother does. (comparison)
Ajo e gatuan gjelin e detit si e ëma. (krahassim)

Similarly, Albanian grammarians Totoni (2000), Akademia e Shkencave (2002), Çeliku et al. (2007), Totoni (2012) point out the fact that time clauses can be intertwined with other shades of meaning including: cause, condition, result, purpose, concession. According to Totoni (2000), “the main factor influencing the appearance of these meanings is the lexical completeness of the clauses and the meaning of predicates in the main clause, but there is also an influence from the outer context of the complex sentence. The overlapping meanings may take over and change the meaning of the conjunction itself, when characteristic elements of the sentence structure are altered”. The following examples from the Albanian language present these meanings very clearly:
a. Skënderbeu s’mund të bënte dasmë pasi humbi Sfetigradin me Beratin. (shkak)

b. Pasi të derdhësh fjalët, nuk i mbledh dot. (kusht)

c. Dhanë e morën një copë herë, gjersa u bënjë ujë në djëmbë. (rrjedhim)

d. Do t’u jap fitore të lehta, derisa t’i mashtroj e t’i shkëput nga prje tjetër e brigadës. (qëllim)

e. Zagari, edhe kur e ka thëllëzën ndër dhëmbë, shkon e ia dorëzon të zotit. (lejim)

Even though complex sentences with time clauses in English and Albanian represent a wide range of semantic nuances, below I will elaborate on time clauses indicating cause and condition, which are introduced by a variety of conjunctions, and briefly go through other shades of meaning encountered in time clauses.

2. Causal implications

Temporal location adjuncts are often accompanied by an implication of causation (Huddleston et al. 2003). In the English language, causal relations may be indicated in the time clauses with the subordinators when, after, once, as, since:

(3)

a. When John attacked Bill the police arrested him.
   (Kur Xhoni e sulmoi Billin policia e arrestoi.)

b. He felt better after he had a short nap.
   (Ai u ndie më mirë pasi dremiti pak.)

c. He took his coat, since it was raining.
   (Ai e mori pallton, që kur po binte shi.)

d. My family, once they saw the mood I was in, left me completely alone.
   (Familja ime, sapo pa se në ç’gjendje isha, më la plotësisht të qetë.)

e. The little boy was crying, as he had lost the key.
   (Djali i vogël po qante, tek kishte humbur çelësin.)

When-clauses can be used to encode both temporal and causal relations simultaneously. The dependent clause in (3a) seems to have a considerable causal sense, providing the reason why John was arrested. The semantic interpretation becomes clear if we replace the time conjunction with the specialized conjunction of cause because. So, this example can be interpreted in this way: The police arrested John because he attacked Bill.

Schilder (1999) claims that “the after sentence may exhibit in addition to the temporal relation a causal relation between the situations described by the main and the temporal clause.” Indeed, the after-clause in (3b) exhibits a causal relation between the filling-better situation and the having-a-nap situation.

The meaning of the subordinator since in (3c) proves to be ambiguous between the categories of time and cause because the action of taking the coat can be interpreted as starting at the moment when it was raining, or it can have a cause-effect relationship, with the rain causing the person to take the coat. Hamm (2001) points out that “many of the classical examples of ambiguity are really ambiguous only in context-free sentences, and (...) in most cases, our real-world knowledge and the discourse context situation offer, if not the interpretation, at least strong discursive orientations or clues”. However, despite the lack of context, the causal interpretation is prevalent in (3c), as the meaning of the predicate and the past tense used in the main clause, as well as the presence of a comma separating the dependent clause from the matrix clause are not typical characteristics of temporal since-clauses.

The same interpretation applies for (3d,e), where the conjunctions once and as are interchangeable with the specialized conjunction of cause because. This way, the causal interpretation of these examples would be: “Because they saw the mood I was in, they left me completely alone”; and “The little boy was crying, because he had lost the key.”

On the other hand, Çeliku et al. (2007) claims that causal relations in the Albanian language are expressed by clauses with time conjunctions such as kur, pasi, derisa, etc:

(4)

a. Nuk do ta kisha përmendur, pasi është një këngë jashtë shijes muzikore të kohës.

b. Por zgjedhja e vendit të betejës nuk varej nga Skënderbeu, derisa Ali Pasha mund të ndiqte edhe një rugë tjetër për të hyrë në Shqipëri.

c. Na bëhet zemra mal, kur shohim rugën e drejtë të Shqipërisë.

But we can also imply cause in clauses with the conjunctions si, tek, që kur, sapo (Akademia e Shkencave, 2002):

(5)

a. Më pas, si e shikonte udhën të gjatë fort e pa mbarim, kthehej prapë me hap.
b. Dhe befas, sapo ra qetësia e plotë mbi fs hat, u ndie rjedha e lumi t.
c. Që kur mori këtë u dhé, vajza fatin e vet e siguroi.

According to Totoni (2012), the conjunctions pasi, and sapo, which usually occur with time clauses in postposition, present either an argument for the consequence expressed in the main clause (4a), or a signal for the change of the situations (5b). In both cases, the semantic change is conditioned by the lexical content of the clauses, and the interaction between them.

The temporal meaning in (4b) is almost completely lost since the conjunction derisa is used with a correlation of tenses that is not typical of time clauses. Thus, causal implications dominate, offering an explanation for the fact mentioned in the main clause.

With the conjunction kur, as in (4c), the causal meaning overlaps when the main clause describes an emotional state or reaction; in this case, the content of the subordinate clause is, in the same time, an argument for the consequence described in the main clause.

In addition, the conjunction tek indicates cause in complex sentences, the main clause of which contains a state of the subject, and the dependent clause does not only give a temporal orientation, but also a reason for the state of the subject in the main clause:

(6) Vesa ndriçonte mbi barin e gjelbër dhe atij i vinte keq tek shkelte mbi ato mijëra bula të vogla, si mijëra perla të shndritshme.

3. Conditional implications

Clauses with the conjunctions when, whenever, as/so long as, once, before can combine time with condition (Quirk et al., 1985). Let’s study the following examples:

(7)  
a. My heart leaps whenever I see you.
(Zoom ra më rreh fort sa herë të shoh.)
b. Go before I call the police!
(Largohu para se të telefonoi policinë!)  
c. I’m happy as long as my children are.
(Jam i lumtur derisa fëmijët e mi janë të lumtur.)
d. Once I make up my mind to do something, I do it immediately.
(Sapo më mbushet mendja për të bërë dëcka, e bëj menjëherë.)

In when-clauses, there is often a fusion of temporal notion with condition. Nevertheless, according to Declerck (1988), when and if are not necessarily equivalent, since there are hypothetical or counterfactual restrictive if-clauses, but no such when-clauses. When is always factual in meaning (i.e., it expresses realis). Compare:

(8)  
a. People are happy if/when they have blue eyes.
(Njerëzit janë të lumtur nëse/kur kanë sy blu.)
b. People would be happier if/when they had purple eyes.
(Njerëzit do të ishin më të lumtur nëse/kur do të kishin sy vjollcë.)

Indeed, the use of when in (8b), which gives a hypothetical situation, makes the sentence ungrammatical, and the only possible conjunction here is if.

Quirk et al. (1985) highlights that “when the matrix clause is imperative, the sentence with a before-clause may imply a conditional relationship, as well as time”. (7b) above can be interpreted as: If you don’t go, I will call the police.

In order to better understand conditional relations in sentences (7c,d), the typical conjunctions of condition can come in handy. Thus, in (7c) the condition for his happiness is his children’s happiness; and in (7d) the speaker means that he does something immediately if he makes up his mind.

In the Albanian language, the conditional meaning is added in time clauses with the conjunctions: kur, si, sapo, derisa and their synonymous conjunctions (Totoni, 2000):

(9)  
a. Kur thahet përroi, gurët e nënushëm dalin në diell.
b. Sapo të njihesh me të, bëhesh pjesë e mekanizmit të saj.
c. Nuk do t’ia japim dorën derisa të mos pranojë se ka qenë ai.

Conditional meaning is most common in cases like (9a) above, where the presence of the present simple
predicates in both clauses denotes a situation that is always true. However, in less frequent cases, conditional meaning is also added when the subordinate clause contains a hypothetical situation (Totoni, 2012):

(10) Kur nuk e kam këtu mbi këkë unë, zëre se nuk jeton fare.

The conjunction sapo is also used with conditional meaning, especially when the predicate of the dependent clause is in the subjunctive mood and denotes a speculation or assumption. See (9b) above.

Despite the presence of temporal relations existing between the main clause and the dependent clause, the conditional meaning sharply overlaps in (9c). At this point, the dependent clause with the conjunction derisa presents a hypothetical situation as a condition for the realization of the situation in the main clause.

4. Other semantic relations

In addition to cause and condition, complex sentences with time clauses may trigger other shades of meaning which, despite being less frequent, make up an interesting phenomenon giving way to a variety of semantic interpretations of time clauses.

4.1 Result

According to Quirk et al. (1985), before-clauses and until-clauses may imply result as well as time. The until-clause expresses the result of the activity described in the matrix clause:

(11) a. I had to put my complaint in writing before they would take any action.
    (Mu desh ta dorëzoja ankesën me shkrim para se të vepronin.)

b. She massaged her leg until it stopped hurting.
    (Ajo i bëri masazh këmbës derisa i pushoi dhimbja.)

If we make a practical interpretation of the above cases, we can agree that the before-clause in (11a) contains a result situation (they took action) caused by my writing the complaint. In (11b), her pain stopped as a result of massaging her leg.

In Albanian, (Akademia e Shkencave, 2002) argues that the postposed dependent clause with the conjunctions gjersa, derisa, sa and with the predicate in the koha e kryer e thjeshtë (simple perfect tense) describes an action that is the result of the action in the matrix clause, and not really the time when the action in the matrix clause took place; the temporal relation is blended with implications of result:

(12) a. Atje tej të thirurrat e Qamilit u rralluan, u bënë të thella e të pafuqishme, derisa në bodrum u bè heshi tja e zakonshme.

b. Vazhdova t‘i tregoja plakut edhe disa dokrra të tjera, gjersa u bè limon në fytire.

c. Ajo lëvizi herë dhjetras, herë majtas, sa u rrëzua.

In all these examples, the temporal relations are diminished somehow. So the meaning of result has taken over, and the action described in the dependent clause is the result of the action described in the main clause.

4.2 Contrast

Another semantic relation implied by time clauses is the contrastive relation, usually expressed by the connective while. In the contrastive interpretation of while, the notion “at the same time” is interpreted as at the same time of evaluation. Another feature that will effect the interpretation of a while-clause is a semantic one, viz. the presence of a contrast between the content of the two clauses in the sentence (Caenepeel, 1997):

(13) Gold mining issues were finally up just 0.1 per cent on the group index, while the oil sector ended down 0.35 per cent.
    (Rezultatet e minierave të floririt u rritën me 0.1% në indeksin e grupit, ndërësa sektori i naftës u mbyll me uljen 0.35%.)

Indeed, in addition to the meaning of the conjunction, the contrastive relation is enabled by the interaction of the information presented in both clauses.

On the other hand, in Albanian contrast is expressed by the conjunction ndërësa, which presents two situations confronting each-other in the semantic point of view. The dependent clause is usually postposed:
Ajo rrinte gjithnjë mbylur në kullë ndërsa shoqet e saj gëzonin të rëtë e tyre.

4.3 Concession

According to Hwang (2000), it is not common to find examples in which temporal and concessive meanings are conflated. Often the concessive part is not very obvious but detectable on close inspection. Concession can be expressed by the conjunctions when and while:

(15) a. He won the race when all odds were against him.
   (Ai e fitoi garën kur të gjitha shanset ishin kundër tij.)
   b. While I don’t want to make a fuss, I feel I must protest at your interference.
   (Ndërkohë që nuk dua ta ekzagjeroj, e ndjej se duhet ta kundërshtoj ndërhyrjen tuaj.)

Interpreting these cases, we can say that although all odds were against him, he managed to win; and despite the fact that I don’t want to make a fuss, I still feel I must protest at your interference.

In Albanian, concession is expressed by the conjunction kur if it is preceded by the particle edhe (Totoni, 2000):

(16) Zagari, edhe kur e ka thëllëzën ndër dhëmbë, shkon e ia dorëzon të zotit.

5. Conclusions

As a result of the interaction of the semantic contents of the main clause and the dependent clause, the temporal meaning in complex sentences with time clauses is combined with other shades of meaning, which in some cases give way to the appearance of different syntactic functions in these clauses. The main semantic implications triggered by such internal interactions include cause, condition, result, contrast, and concession.

Causal implications in English and Albanian are expressed respectively by the conjunctions when/ kur, after/ pasi, once/ sapo, as/ si (or tek), since/ që kur. Clauses introduced by these subordinators generally give an argument for the consequence described in the main clause. In many cases, the coexistence of temporal and causal meanings in these complex sentences enables an ambiguous interpretation which, however, can be decipherable due to the context, the lexical meaning of the predicates, the tense correlations, as well as the presence of a comma between the matrix clause and the dependent clause.

Furthermore, the conjunctions expressing conditional relations in English and Albanian time clauses include: when/ kur, as/ so long as/ derisa, once/ sapo. These conditional relations combine with temporal relations especially when the dependent clause describes a hypothetical situation.

In addition to causal and conditional implications, which are more common, time conjunctions can be used to denote other semantic relations such as result, contrast, concession, etc. Thus, the meaning of result in English is rendered by before and until while the Albanian corresponding conjunctions are gjersa, derisa, and sa. Contrast is expressed by while, in English, and ndërsa, in Albanian. When-clauses and while-clauses, on the other hand, can also merge time with concession, whereas in Albanian the conjunction kur may add concessive meaning to the complex sentence if it is preceded by the particle edhe.

Of course, the main question that was addressed in this paper is how to disambiguate the content of such structures. One of the characteristics that is very useful in identifying and interpreting these semantic implications in the context is the interchangeability of these typical time conjunctions with specialized conjunctions of cause, condition, result, contrast and concession. This shows that the semantic content of the time conjunctions in these sentences is not only devalued but also altered into denoting a completely new shade of meaning and, in certain cases, the temporal meaning of these conjunctions may be stretched so far that the clauses introduced by them can no longer be classified as time clauses.

References

The Differences of the Personality Features and of the Emotional Empathy for Volunteering

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Abstract

The article presents personality features of volunteers as relatively permanent psychological characteristics. It summarizes motives for volunteering discussed in the current concepts of volunteering and it introduces the Functional approach to volunteer motivation. Some results of the research supported by the Grant Agency of the Czech Republic No 407/11/0380, Prosocial behaviour and its personality aspects in the context of volunteering are presented. Research subjects were 240 volunteers, members of Czech Civic Associations of volunteers. Two questionnaires were used. Questionnaire NEO (authors P. T. Costa and R. R. McCraee) is based on the five-factor personality model (Big Five). They are: Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness towards experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. The emotional empathy of volunteers was assessed by Multi-dimensional Scale of Emotional Empathy for Adolescents and Adults - MEE (by D. R. Caruso and J. D. Mayer). In six subscales measuring the following factors: Suffering, Positive Sharing, Responsive Crying, Emotional Attention, Feel for Others, Emotional Contagion. Scores were compared with sample of the Czech population. Volunteers showed significantly higher score of the personality feature of Agreeableness, Extraversion and Conscientiousness. In the structure of emotional empathy of volunteers dominated Positive Sharing, Emotional Contagion and Feel for Others.

1. Introduction

The readiness to engage in prosocial activities in longer perspective finds its expression in volunteerism. Volunteerism is understood as unpaid service provided at no cost to a non-profit organization delivering directly or indirectly goods and services to individuals, groups of individuals or a thing (Wilson, 2000).

Volunteerism in the Czech Republic is regulated by legislation and defines volunteer activity as follows:

- help to unemployed, socially weak persons, handicapped persons, seniors, members of national minorities, immigrants, persons after sentence of confinement, drug addicted persons, persons suffering from domestic violence, as well as help with care for children, youth and families in their leisure time,
- help at natural, ecological or humanitarian disasters, at protection and improvement of environment, at care for preservation of cultural heritage, at organizing cultural or fund-raising charity actions for persons stated under letter a), or
- help at implementing development programs and within operations, projects and programs of international organizations and institutions, including international non-governmental organizations (by Act No 198/2002 Coll., on volunteer service).

Volunteer activity is mostly organized by volunteer centres and non-governmental non-profit organizations, so that the help recipient can completely rely on it in the agreed scope, time and place. The best known non-profit organizations in the Czech Republic are the Výbor dobré vůle - Nadace Olgy Havlové (Committee of Good Will – Olga Havlová Foundation), Český Červený kříž (Czech Red Cross), Fond ohrožených dětí (Fund of endangered children), Nadace člověk v tísni (Foundation human in strait). Further, they include civic associations including societies and clubs, purpose
2. Characteristics of volunteers

Volunteerism constitutes the basic building element of civic society, it helps preserving and strengthening such human values as sociability, interest in others and service to others. One of civic virtues, charity, as help to socially weak individuals is considered a significant part. Volunteerism is implemented in two forms:

a. Voluntary civic assistance, oriented predominantly on broader family and neighbours, in form of reciprocal services, but also help to other persons in a community (daily centre for seniors etc.).

b. Mutually beneficial volunteerism – takes place within the community, e.g. in a sports club or amateur gardener association established in the community.

The borders between the two above mentioned types of volunteerism are not accurate, voluntary help often penetrates both forms. It is based on the readiness of the volunteer offering his time and energy for the benefit of others, without expecting secondary advantages or profit.

The broadly adopted opinion on volunteers accepts the importance of the role of both demographic and personality factors and of social structure, e.g. family and culture. The demographic factors influence rather the human’s attitude, his or her devotion to ideals and richness of his or her social networks leading directly to volunteerism. L. A. Penner and M. A. Finkelstein (1998) and others try to find explanation of the circumstances initiating the start of volunteer activities and staying in them in spite of considerable costs and effort that must be invested during a longer period. They seek substantiation in personality and demographic characteristics, in interpersonal relationships and situational factors and suggests that there are also non-social stimuli that can activate the wish to act as a volunteer. They can include personal circumstances in the individual's life (e.g. loss of a beloved person due to a disease) but also a specific feeling or idea that gets importance for the potential volunteer. For a lot of individuals, volunteer activity has its importance particularly in the fact that they can self-fulfil in it, strengthening their own self-confidence. For example persons unemployed in the long term can feel useful to others in volunteerism.

The motives of individual volunteers are not necessarily unambiguously positive and they do not necessarily prefer the benefit of others. The negative ones include e.g.: rise of feeling of own importance, deficit of self-respect together with the wish to meet even more miserable people, domineeringness, effort to dominate and control others. Helping behaviour can also serve to steady the disturbed mental balance in consequence of an unsolved or unsolvable personal problem. In this connection the “helper’s syndrome” (Matoušek et al., 2003) must be mentioned – its background consists in a specific narcissistic disorder. The volunteer solves, mostly unknowingly, his or her early traumas of refused child, unsatisfied desire for recognition, gratefulness and admiration through helping. In all these cases, helping covers the actual motivation.

Certain set of personality dispositions including empathy play significant role in the decision to become a volunteer. For example M. Davis et al. (1999) found connection between disposition empathy and the readiness to engage in certain types of volunteer activities. Similarly L.A. Penner and coworkers (Penner, 2002; Penner, Dovidio, Schroeder, Piliavin, 2005) proved increased level of features of “prosocial personality”, i.e. empathy, altruism and moral justification in volunteers.

3. Emotional empathy

The conceptualization of empathy in contemporary psychology does not present satisfactory results in terms of presenting a unified definition, however reference to the concept in terms of a psychological attribute, or a psychological condition can be traced in a number of studies. The majority of empathy aimed research projects accentuate either the notion’s cognitive or emotional aspects, or their mutual integration. (Kunyk, Olson, 2001; Mlčák, 2004; Wiesman, 1996)

According to the theory of A. Mehrabin and N. Epstein (1972), emotional empathy represents the ability of an individual to experience through observation emotions felt by others. Within this situational framework, C. D. Batson (1987) presented his central empathy-altruism hypothesis, which asserts that empathy is the decisive motive of an altruistic behaviour, as it produces interest in the well-being of others. Empirical evidence further suggests that altruism and empathy relate in a positive correlation. (Mlčák, Záškodná, 2009) According to this theory, the presence of another individual in a state of distress can produce a broad range of emotional experiences in the observer, ranging from sadness and stress, which may in turn result in an egoistic attempt to escape the situation in order to avoid the displeasure. On the other hand, an individual that experiences an empathic interest will not seek to avoid the circumstances, but rather allow the stress to motivate him/her toward acting altruistically. Thus whereas distress can
result in selfish motivations to help, empathic interest would generate an altruistic motivation with a ultimate goal of helping to benefit others, while the ratio of the two motives would determine the final behavioural response.

4. Research Objectives, Methods, Sample

The goal of research consisted in ascertaining the level of selected personality characteristics in volunteers. Goal consist identification of the level and structure of Big Five personality features, components of emotional empathy in volunteers.

4.1 Methods

The data collection was performed in two questionnaire methods based on the technique of introspective statements. The first questionnaire NEO (by authors P. T. Costa and R. R. McCraee is based on the five-factor personality model, Big Five. That model of personality in current psychology represents a significant integration theoretical and research platform used in different psychological subdisciplines. It measures personality features as relatively permanent characteristics shown in the way of thinking, experiencing and performing activities by which people mutually differ. They are: neuroticism, extraversion, openness towards experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness. The questionnaire included 60 items in which the respondents performed self-evaluation on Likert’s scale from 0 to 4 points.

Also the Multi-dimensional Scale of Emotional Empathy for Adolescents and Adults (MEE), by D. R. Caruso and J. D. Mayer (1998), consists of 30 items in six subscales measuring the following factors:
1. Suffering – S, in the sense of sadness, worry at seeing pain of others, both people and animals. 2. Positive Sharing – PS, pleasing experiencing of joy and other positive emotions of other people. 3. Responsive Crying – RC, tendency to emotional response to negative conditions of other people. 4. Emotional Attention – EA, level of focusing attention on emotional manifestations of others. 5. Feel for Others – FO, emotional harmony in the sense of letting impress oneself by emotions of others. 6. Emotional contagion – EC, sensitivity to emotions of others in the sense of emotional induction.

The respondents express their agreement, disagreement or neutral position to individual items through the five-point Likert’s scale using the zone of numbers from 1 to 5.

Additionally to the above stated six factors, the multidimensional scale measures total Emotional Empathy given by the sum of partial scores.

4.2 Research sample

The study was implemented on a set of 240 respondents, members of Czech Civic Associations of volunteers, from Charity, ADRA. With regard to gender, the set included 194 women and 46 men in an age range from 20 to 43 years. Average age corresponded to 24.6 years. The volunteers were informed by a unified general instruction about the purpose of the study and the way of work with the questionnaires; the questioning was anonymous. The comparative set consisted of university students of helping professions of the following disciplines: psychology, social work, education, school teaching, general medicine (240 respondents, 194 women and 46 men, average age corresponded to 22.3 years).

5. Results

5.1 Personality features of volunteers according to Five – factor model

As expected, the factor of volunteerism constitutes distinctive source of variability for Big Five features. More exactly: 1. volunteers are more extraverted (differences in relation to comparative set); 2. more agreeable, and also 3. conscientious. Differences can be seen also in combined effect and interaction of both factors (gender – volunteerism). Female volunteers are more extraverted and more agreeable than male volunteers. (The differences are significant at 1% and 5% level of significance).
Table 1: Difference in Big Five features between volunteers and comparative set and interaction of volunteerism and gender factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variability</th>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Volunteerism</strong></td>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>.219n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>6.15*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>.082n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>4.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>8.24**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender x volunteerism</strong></td>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>1.05n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>3.98*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>.516n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>4.21*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>.117n</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F = calculation of resulting proportion of dispersions; (**) significance at 1% level; (*) = significance at 5% level; n = insignificant result.

In compliance with the results of studies implemented in volunteers (e.g. Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Bekkers., 2005; Záškodná, M lions, 2008), we expected higher level of *Extraversion* from volunteers of our study. The motive consists in the fact that extraverted, more affiliative individuals incline more to social situations and focus more frequently to other people. Their sociability and activity leads them to different social events and membership in groups. Statistic calculation specified the interpretation of the data acquired by us in the sense of significantly more marked feature of *Extraversion* in female volunteers, but not in male volunteers whose level of *Extraversion* corresponds to the population average. General conclusions on *Extraversion* of volunteers are not essentially changed by that because overwhelming majority of them consists of women. Men are represented only by a quarter of the total number of volunteers in the set researched by us. But the differences of man must be of course taken into consideration. Extraverted individuals probably seek warm and positive social interactions and such efforts of them can facilitate volunteer behaviour.

*Extraversion* can provide affiliative disposition needed for volunteerism. But the way to volunteerism does not lead only through personality features; the decision to become volunteer is co-determined by whether there is a link between the personality features related to volunteerism and prosocial motives. In other words, extraverted individuals may be more ready to volunteer work than introverts, but only when they are highly motivated by prosocial values. Extraversion by itself may not predispose the individual to volunteer behaviour, unless such individual does not appreciate helping others. The study has confirmed other personality features described in volunteers (Bierhoff, 2002) like *Agreeableness* in both genders, particularly in female volunteers.

*Agreeableness* together with *Conscientiousness* co-creates the personality base of selfless helping. *Agreeableness* constitutes a dimension that includes a lot of socially positively appreciated personality aspects like altruism and sympathy. Marked positive qualities of students-volunteers proving successful in interpersonal context include warmth, communicativeness, cooperativeness, adaptability, readiness to help and kindness. From moral perspective, honest and unselfish humanists, sincere individuals full of emphatic understanding and respect to feelings of others prevail among volunteers. The third striking feature found in volunteers – *Conscientiousness* – includes a number of detailed descriptions concerning the approach to work and achieving of performance and results.

Individuals scoring high in *Conscientiousness* work independently, efficiently and in a disciplined way. They approach tasks systematically, solve problems logically, give clear answers to questions. They work reliably and try to meet their duties, are responsible in their approach to other people.

From the perspective of such characteristics, the personality profile of volunteers resembles the description of “productive orientation” by E. Fromm, embedded in the framework of assimilation and socialization, i.e. adaptation to the world of things and people. The productive orientation is characterized by the ability to give love (in the sense of care, responsibility, respect) and to work with effort for authentic life, when the person’s activities are aimed at the good and can be seen particularly in contacts with other people and in relations of affection.

5.2 Emotional empathy

The distribution of the scores shows considerable variability of levels of individual components within the empathy structure and, as expected, also evident difference between genders. The highest score was recorded in the Positive
Sharing subscale, in the sense of co-experience of positive emotions with others; further in the Suffering subscale, in the sense of sorrow, grief at seeing pain of others, people and animals, and finally in the Emotional Attention subscale, in the sense of attention paid to experience of others. The lowest levels were detected in the Reactive Crying subscale (particularly in men), as well as in Feel for Others.

Table 2: Subscales, average scores, standard deviations, statistical significance of emotional empathy in MEE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Men SD Men Score n=46</th>
<th>Women SD Women Score n=194</th>
<th>F Men x Women Sign.</th>
<th>F Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suffering</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.82*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Sharing</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>0.12n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsive Crying</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>0.12n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Attention</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>8.49**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel for Others</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>5.79**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Contagion</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.17n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>5.46**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F = calculation of resulting proportion of dispersions; (**) significance at 1% level; (*) = significance at 5% level; n = insignificant result. Empathy = the total score.

The results of research show some main findings.

1. The first of them consists in the markedly higher level of empathy in women as compared to men. Lower level of empathy in men constitutes a phenomenon verified by research and described in literature. For example the author of the multidimensional construct of empathy, including of the method (IRI) for its measurement, M. Davis (1983), states statistically significant difference of level of empathy between men and women, in the sense of higher empathy of women in its partial components.

2. The key component of the structure of emotional empathy in volunteers consists in Positive Sharing in the sense of emotional experiencing of positive feelings of others, co-experiencing of happiness and joy. The respondents have achieved the highest score in this partial component of empathy; it is at the same time the only sphere of emotional empathy where both men and women score the same. Men are able to rejoice, joy and be happy about happiness of others similarly to women, but they are not able to sympathize with or share negative emotions, pain and suffering of people and animals so much as their female counterparts; they have weaker feel for others as compared to women. This special phenomenon of higher emotional empathy of men for positive rather than for negative emotions of others can be related with higher feature anxiety of women, which is contained in higher neuroticism of women in general as compared to men.

3. Volunteers differ from non-volunteers by higher level of three out of six empathy components. They are: positive emotional response to positive emotional manifestations of others emotional “contagion” and feel for others. This finding is compatible with the above described extraversion of volunteers, with their positive emotional “tuning” towards emotional experiences of others.

6. Conclusion

1. The personality structure of volunteers is dominated by the factors of Extraversion, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. The highest level of socially positive, other-oriented features of Extraversion and Agreeableness can be seen in female volunteers, within the whole set. Their interpersonal orientation is typically characterized by altruism. They feel understanding and comprehension towards others, express favour to them, behave kindly and affably to them. They have confidence in others and prefer cooperation to competition. Characteristics like e.g. cruelty, suspiciousness, rejection of cooperation, vindictiveness and heartlessness can be seen only rarely in them.

2. The volunteers dispose of above-average level of empathy. Increased level of empathy ranks undoubtedly among positive and expected results. The inquiry performed by Z. Mičák et al. (2005) showed that, besides the result of interaction with the social service worker, also the way of interaction and also the related personality characteristics of the social worker perceived by the client, e.g. kindness, openness, conscientiousness and
emotional stability are very important for the clients. The significance of volunteers as workers providing services, who do not build on manager procedures, fulfill the legacy of C. R. Rotgers in empathic, kind approach to the client, accentuating the central role of the client.

This study brings only a part of the results of an extensive research focused on volunteering. Prospectively, other personality characteristics will be compared in order to understand more deeply the empathy and other prosocial characteristics in volunteering.

7. Acknowledgement

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References

Role of the European Union in Applying the Principles of Subsidiarity and Proportionality

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Abstract

The principle of subsidiarity has always been the subject of many studies for the fact that the center of gravity moves gradually from the criteria of attribution to those relating to the exercise of powers. The principle of subsidiarity involves only European Union’s competitive or collaborative competences when the action cannot be accomplished in member states level. While the principle of proportionality is a principle which obliges EU institutions to control the exercise of powers so that the measures taken do not exceed what is necessary to achieve the objectives that the institution or the institution must comply. The European Union institutions operate through political mechanisms (ex ante) and law mechanisms (ex post) control of the two principles. Legal control represents the fact that the Court of Justice has been cautioned in its control activities. The political control, in this paper, serves to present an overview of what led the recent treaties. In particular, we will analyze a new mechanism of preventive control, which aims to strengthen the control of the principles by the state parliaments (early warning system) on the basis of subsidiarity, which is a direct instrument to influence the legislative process. States are informed of any initiative of the Commission, who is forced to reconsider his proposal if one third of national parliaments consider incompatible with the principle of subsidiarity.

Keywords: Unione europea, il principio di sussidiarietà, proporzionalità, visite ispettive, il controllo di diritto politico.

1. Introduction

European Union institutions have been given a precise role for the compliance and implementation of the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality, which are defined in the Article 3B of the Treaty of Maastricht [1]. The competences of European Union are determined in terms that need to be achieved rather than in fields that need to be disciplined. Related to this there is not a catalog of the sectors assigned to the responsibility of European Union.

The principle of subsidiarity in a progressive manner is determined from the juridical science as a social and lawful, according to which the intervention of public authorities, towards the citizens or authorities, must be applied only as a help in cases when a the citizen or the primal subject is incapable to act itself [2]. Subsidiarity involves only European Union’s competitive or collaborative competences with member states. All the functions which are not expressly attributed, from Treaties, to European Union or member states are competitive. The principle of Subsidarity is called for action in case these two criteria are met [3]:

1. The action of European Union results more efficient than that undertaken in member states level and this seen in terms of dimensions and effects.
2. The objectives cannot be accomplished only by actions of member states.

The principle of proportionality is presented as a flexible concept, which is established on a ratio determined by the elements that it is composed. A concept and a legal standard known and applied, which was released by the Court Justice and rose to the rank of a primary principle. Proportionality principle is reconstructed as a tool that allows verification of the legitimacy of the relationship between the means used and the objectives to be achieved by the EU. The content and form of the action does not exceed what is necessary to achieve the objectives set by the Treaties.

This principle requires that the measures imposed by the states and the EU institutions are adequate in achieving the objectives to be pursued and not to exceed the limits more than what is necessary. The citizens, on the basis of this principle, are required to be imposed only obligations strictly necessary to achieve the public interest by authorizing a supreme control over operating autoritéit discretion. The exact definition of public interest pursued as a counterpart of private interest may be sacrificed in order to legitimate only if there is a proportional relation between the vehicle and the goal is defined as a thing “in which the public, the community at large, has some interest by wich their legal rights or liabilities are affected. It does not mean by matters in questions. The term private interest describes a legal concern of an
individual, or the position of being affected by something or a title or a right (in property) or an individual pecuniary stake.”[4]

There is an evident interconnection between the two principles although they are applied to meet different functions. The function of subsidiarity principle the legitimacy, under certain conditions, in the areas of competitive competences, of European activity instead of the governmental. As to the principle of proportionality, the objective is to measure the intensity of the action itself on the basis of means used towards the objective to be achieved, referring to all the competences that are attributed, either exclusive or competitive.

In this article, we try to will analyze and evaluate the role of the European Union in applying the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality European institutions will examine the application of the principles that discipline. Council and the European Parliament respect the principles and practice of justifying respect to attributes that are accorded [5]. Control is carried out respecting the principles fixed by normal procedures for review of the Commission's proposals.

To achieve this goal, detailed research will be presented about the preconditions that allowed involving europian institutions in the EU activities and historical background of the rights that europian institutions had before the Lisbon Treaty came into force.

In order to achieve this objective, historical, logical, analytical and comparative methods are used.

2. The role and the self-discipline of the EU institutions towards compliance of principle of subsidiarity

Being in possession of the right of normative acts proposal, the Commission has been the first European institution has argued the necessity of actions at European level, in addition to those at member states level. To ensure a correct appliance of the principle of subsidiarity, the Commission, since November 1993, has really taken the task to motivate all legislative proposals and also to review the in use legislation. [6]

Mechanisms to monitor the principle of subsidiarity provided for compliance with certain obligations during the actual drafting of legislation. Thus, before proposing legislative acts, the Commission must prepare a Green Paper. Green Papers consist of wide-ranging consultations. They enable the Commission to collect opinions from national and local institutions and from civil society on the desirability of a legislative proposal, in particular in respect of the principle of subsidiarity. The Commission presents to the European Council and the Parliament an annual report on the implementation of the principle of subsidiarity. The Council and the European Parliament must respect and comply with the principle of subsidiarity, and to justify the compliance through the exercise of the attributes accorded to them [7]. The control of the compliance of such a principle is done under fixed procedures for the review of the Commission's proposals. In fact, the British request to establish a preventive control to respect the principle of subsidiarity is not accepted.

Any Member State may request to include the review of a following proposal in the Council section temporary agenda. [8] The Parliament and The Council must justify the conformity with the principle of subsidiarity of any modification done in text proposed by the Commission.

The Treaty of Lisbon innovates by associating national Parliaments closely with the monitoring of the principle of subsidiarity. National Parliaments now exercise twofold monitoring:
• they have a right to object when legislation is drafted.
• through their Member State, they may contest a legislative act before the Court of Justice of the EU if they consider that the principle of subsidiarity has not been observed.[9]

Under the Lisbon Treaty, the ex ante monitoring role of the national parliaments has been strengthened as regards control over the subsidiarity principle (but not the proportionality principle, which monitors that the draft legislative act does not go beyond what is necessary).

The European Parliament, the Council and the Commission, and, where appropriate, the group of Member States, the Court of Justice, the European Central Bank or the European Investment Bank, if the draft legislative act originates from them, shall take account of the reasoned opinions issued by national parliaments or by a Chamber of a national parliament. Each national parliament shall have two votes, shared out on the basis of the national parliamentary system. In the case of a bicameral Parliamentary system, each of the two Chambers shall have one vote [10]

The first round takes place exclusively between the Commission and the chambers of nation parliaments. It is only after that reading that the Commission submits the possibly revised proposal to the ordinary legislative process. Those parliaments which have drafted a negative position have the possibility to take legal action against the Commission on the grounds of an infringement of the subsidiarity principle. The legal process takes place in the European Court of
3. The role of institutions for the principle of proportionality control.

The principle of proportionality has a dual function: protects national interests against EU intervention limiting it in the actions that are necessary achieve the objectives assigned to it, and as a general principle of law regulates the interference of political institutions in the sphere of individual autonomy. The application of the principle of proportionality operates in order to the principle of legality throughout the European system. For this we must emphasize that this principle of respect put exact proportion between the goals to be achieved and the means used by the European institutions and Member States: sanctions in the right proportion between the violation of the law and punishment is the realization of authority. This brings the obligation to give priority to the vehicle that delivers the least possible infringement of the liberties guaranteed by the Treaties.

The achievement of the objectives followed by the principle of proportionality is performed due to internal self-regulating mechanisms and there are applied the same procedures and measures used for the principle of subsidiarity. To ensure the observance of the principle of proportionality the control of each of the national parliaments serves. Influence over Executive on the decision-making process is not assigned only to European member states and even these often limit theirselves from providing advisory opinions. Member States are limited in the process from the composition and the role of the Council in the decision-making process. Also, there is a low transparency in the work of the Council and in the role of working groups composed of ministerial officials. The separation on national basis of Parliament sessions and the consultation of the Committee of Regions are another reason for not guaranteeing in the interests of national normative authority.

The adjustment the interests of national normative authorities for a European action in accordance with the principle of proportionality cannot be entrusted to the intervention of the Committee of the Regions or to the European Parliament. Consultation of the first, is not binding while the influence of the European Parliament exercises over the determination of an action is mandatory, in areas subject to the consultation procedure, of cooperation and codecision. Even the interest of individuals to avoid interference of the institutions in the sphere of individual autonomy does not find, in political decision-making process of the EU, no tutelim.
4. The control for the observance of the principle of subsidiarity.

The inability of European normative process to ensure due to internal self-regulating mechanisms, the spontaneity of observation of the principle of subsidiarity, imposes to entrust the task of controlling the observance of this principle to the European jurisprudence. What remains "to be discussed" is this level of this control. There are different attitudes from the Doctrine but it is generally accepted that this cannot be a partial judgment. In support of such a conclusion the principle of subsidiarity is called. Because of the flexible nature and its formulation, this principle would refer to European political institutions a wider discretionary in the intervention decision of EU in the sector of competitive competences.

This control is an ex post judicial control and a violation of this principle can be put under any recourse to the Court of Justice: recourse in the absence, trial delay, and recourse for cancellation or excess of power. But not all of these procedural instruments are presented in the same manner for use. In fact, it seems unthinkable that the Court sentences the Commission or the Council, by the recourse in the absence, for not issuing a specific act. However, in all the cases into consideration the control of the Court of Justice should definitely be marginal. It is expressed, in the field of subsidiarity, that it will restrict its task of detecting manifested error cases and of deviation of power, copying the behavior of the German Constitutional Court over the control of this principle.

Luxembourg judges take measures for the attenuation of the proportionality control that they exercise themselves on national legislations in the field of manufacturing and trading of goods. National dispositions which explain the most important effects on imported European products to be acceptable only if it is necessary to satisfy the imperative needs and proportionate closely with such a purpose. The Court goes on the line by doing so, on questions ask for the principle of proportionality. [12]

Legitimate entities to set up a canceling recourse because of the violation of the principle of subsidiarity are the Member States, the Council and the Commission, and under certain circumstances the European Parliament and the European Central Bank [13]. The problem of legitimacy to act towards violations of the principle in question belongs essentially to small territorial entities and, in particular, to the Committee of the Regions. The latter has been denied of procedural legitimacy from the Court on the basis of the Treaty KEKC, since it has to do with unincorporated entities, in its judgment, on the list of the legitimates to run, contained in the Treaty. Analogous problems do not arise in the EC Treaty, which explicitly recognizes the active procedural legitimacy to "any natural or legal person against decisions taken towards them". Regions as much as the Committee may demonstrate 'their interest to act', assuming a less favorable procedural role against the one which is provided to the previous mentioned entities.

5. The control for the observance of the principle of proportionality.

The assurance of the control of the principle of proportionality, since there is a lack of internal self-regulating mechanisms in political decision-making process, there remains only to rely on the Court of Justice as task to ensure its adherence.

Control over the application of the principle of proportionality in the European system intends to correct the results of a not conceived decision-making process, in structure and content. EU performs an intervention limited to what is necessary to achieve the goals predicted by the Treaty, as a general principle of the right and of interest to stop the interference of the institutions in the sphere of individual autonomy.

The Court of Justice is being engaged, since the 60s, to fight against the paralysis of European decision-making process. By the mid-80s the jurisprudence of the Court entered a stage of evolution, relieving the pressure on national governments through an expansive interpretation. [14] This court requires deceleration of the control over observance of proportionality especially on national legislation in the field of the trading of goods. Although the State dispositions are applicable without exception, they specify the most significant effects on imported products, continue to be declared acceptable only if it is absolutely necessary to satisfy imperative interests and strictly proportionate to such a purpose.

The slowdown in the jurisprudence ever the free movement of goods in control of proportionality influences in the free movement of services. With the difference that in this sector the application of a minimum standard of proportionality belongs to the national discriminatory or not applicable rules.

As we have repeatedly affirmed the EU's powers are described in terms of objectives to be achieved and of necessary means, opportunistic, imposing to the EU the not exceeding in choosing of the measures to be adopted, as necessary for achievement of the objectives set. In another sense of the direct norm for the regulation of the individual autonomy against weakening of the interventions by the institutions, the principle of proportionality determination becomes part of the determination of the jurisprudence of the Court of Justice, of the basic unwritten principles of European rank. From the essential role played by the above mentioned principle, in the scene of judgment on the respecting of human rights as much as the fundamental freedoms of the unique market, we have seen significant
footprints in European jurisprudence. The Court of Justice sets to a similar principle, among the restrictions of exercising the human rights set by political institutions in general interest, those limitations that, considering the objective to achieve, are interpreted into a disproportionate and unacceptable intervention, damaging the essence of those rights.

The control over appropriateness of measures towards their assigned objective occupies a very important place. First of all, the legitimacy of the measures is not subject to the story, based on an ex post evaluation, their specific effectiveness: it is sufficient, that based on an ex ante control, aligned with the actual situation at the time of its declaration, the act cannot be called inadequate to achieve the goal that is set. But neither action is required in order for the mass to achieve the intended purpose: it is satisfactory that it contributes in any way to follow the objective. Finally, in many sectors that are European competence, such as agricultural policy, transport, harmonization of national legislation and social policy, Court of Justice and the Court of the First Instance, recognized to the European institutions an exercise side field, for the content of the measures that it will adopt, limiting only in sanctioning of evidently incapable measures to achieve the needed objectives.

Just like the control over the appropriateness of the act with the purpose, the control over the necessity of the measures taken to achieve the objective is developed in the European Union level too. In fact, there are no exceptions missing to the rule, which are present especially in the sector of sanctions and European dispositions for the unfavorable legal effects for the economic operators and for non-compliance the obligations settled by them.

Only manifested disproportion from the act towards the goal to achieve may contest the validity of the measures adopted by it. It results difficult to criticize the care for the verification procedure of suitability, the necessity and equality of the adopted measures by the European legislator. Numerous factors contribute justification to the slowdown of the degree of judgment that is recorded in the control of jurisprudence from political institutions, from each component of the principle of proportionality.

Thus, the application of a suitability test based on an ex ante evaluation of the efficiency of measures in relation to the aim pursued responds to the need to be recognized by the European legislator, the margin of error, despite when it comes to to predict the future effects and the uncertain interventions.

6. Conclusions

Despite their different functions, both principles subsidiarity and proportionality, from the jurisprudence of the European is deduced that the disrespect for the first one can automatically lead to an impairment of the other one. It appears evident, the attribution of the obligations and disproportionate benefits in a category of individuals, putting in a right and more a privileged position or not eligible entities included by it.

Application of the principle of subsidiarity provides a wide margin discretionarily. Evaluations brought for the application show that this principle has a political sense, acting as a guide for institutions and states, in determining the level most appropriate action to achieve the objectives set. Adjustments made note that probably the interpretative difficulties request perseveringly the need of interpretation of the Court of Justice for the clarification of the respective areas of exclusive competences and competitiveness.

The criteria for determining the competent level to act are not competing with each other. In fact, the European Union called upon to act in a Subsidiary way in the case of the insufficient action of the state or, though being able, the European action results to be greater in efficiency, giving to European institutions a wide margin discretionarily. For this reason there are well defined conditions of application of the principle of subsidiarity.

The system of the separation of powers should find a balance and guarantee point in the political control of the Council and in the jurisdictional control of the Court of Justice. Jurisdictional control mechanisms have not produced the results that were expected, even judges, because of their institutional role, are concerned to favor European integration process, strengthening the prerogatives of the EU and the effectiveness of their legal system.

In this context, the Court’s jurisprudence is oriented to interpret broadly the attributes of EU, rather than being limited to the custody of national competence. Until the entry into force of the Treaty of Maastricht there have not been decisions which would notice as illegitimate the acts of the European Union because of violations of competences that to the latter were granted. We have to accept that the rules in the area under consideration are subject to a more political control than a jurisdictional control.

The political control, through a completely new mechanism” Early Warning system” allows national parliaments (or one of the rooms in that case they would be bicameral), to give the motivated opinion on the subject under consideration. The involvement of national parliaments responds to the constitutional need and one of the main indications of the Declaration of Leaken. Moreover, by introducing a valuable tool for control the observance for the principles is significantly strengthened. The motivated thinking of the national parliaments should be taken in consideration in case of
a negative opinion of one third of them (for some decisions ¼), in such a case the Commission should reconsider the proposal.

However, the Commission is free to confirm its proposal and in this case it would return to a legislative proposal, and national parliaments would not have an autonomous title to contest the legitimacy in front of the Court of Justice. If the critics of national parliaments are not welcomed by the Commission, they may request that their opinions produce effects if critics are given by the respective Governments, through the Commission or through the jurisdictional recourse ex post. This innovation can be considered a step forward, because it guarantees the specific efficiency of the preliminary review of the national parliaments and strengthens the custody of the principles. But this is not enough.

The Commission must attach to their proposal a file where evaluations should be contained for the principle of subsidiarity and proportionality. Such a file would provide elements that would allow evaluating the financial impact and the respective consequences.

For the implications of the principle of subsidiarity and proportionality, and the ability to forecast a better jurisdictional control (not just political), dispositions are predicted over their application related to the recourse at the Court of Justice.

But, procedural instruments that derive for the institutions do not seem sufficiently precise to accept a sharp intervention from the Court. For the same reason there would be little chances of completing recourse in the absence.

The possibility to propose recourses is spread to the Committee of the Regions, but it is conditioned only to certain conditions and not completely regarding the limitation of legislative acts for which it should be consulted. Regions, especially those equipped with legislative power are not recognized their preliminary control mechanism. They can act only through the Committee of Regions.

Notes:

1. Article 3B of the Treaty of Maastricht says “The Community shall act within the limits of the powers conferred upon it by this Treaty and of the objectives assigned to it therein. In areas which do not fall within its exclusive competence, the Community shall take action, in accordance with the principle of subsidiary, only if and in so far as the objectives of the proposed action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States and can therefore, by reason of the scale or effects of the proposed action, be better achieved by the Community. Any action by the Community shall not go beyond what is necessary to achieve the objectives of this Treaty.”
2. EUROFOCUS, Il Principio di sussidiarietà nell’evoluzione giuridica europea.
5. Competences defined by Article 138B and 152 CE.
7. Competences defined by Article 138B and 152 CE
8. Article 2 of the Internal Regulation of the European Council.
10. Article 7 of Protocol No 2 Treaty of Lisbon.
13. Interpretation traditionally used by Cassis de Dijon decision of the 80s.
14. Article 173 CE.

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Consumption Pattern on Fruits and Vegetables among Adults: A Case of Malaysia

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Abstract
The increasing growth of expenditure on fruits and vegetables in Malaysia is related to the consumers' health awareness and increasing spending power. However, the consumption pattern on fruits and vegetables in Malaysia is still very low in comparison with other countries. Hence, this study aims to explore fruits and vegetables purchasing behavior and its consumption pattern in Malaysia. The research was conducted among adults by using quantitative approach. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed among 1200 respondents in seven selected cities around Malaysia. Eventually, the outcomes indicated that fruits like apple, orange, banana, watermelon and papaya were the most preferred fruits; meanwhile vegetables such as chili, cabbage, cucumber, leaf mustard, tomatoes and water convolulus were most favorable to consume by adults. Moreover, quality and nutritional contents in the fruits and vegetables set as priority factors for respondents when they were shopping for it at the markets. In conclusion, the findings will beneficially provide information for marketers to plan better promotional strategies to increase fruits and vegetables consumption among adults in Malaysia.

Keywords: Fruits, Vegetables, Purchasing behavior, Consumption pattern, Malaysia

1. Introduction
Fruits and vegetables provide vitamins, mineral and good source of dietary fiber for human body. It was proved by an adequate consumptions of fruits and vegetables may reduce the risk of 31% of ischemic heart disease, 20% of esophageal cancer 19% of ischemic stroke 19% gastric cancer and 12% of lung cancer (Lock, Pomerleau, Causer, Altman, McKee, 2005). However, results from Malaysian Adult Nutrition Survey, 2003 revealed that fruits and vegetables is still low among Malaysian (Norimah et al., 2008). There is also limited data regarding to the fruits and vegetables consumption in past few years. Additionally, in the study by Justin, Spencer, Sam, and John (2009) claimed that many developing nations lack of this data in their population. Therefore, in order to address fruits and vegetables consumption, purchasing behavior and consumption pattern needs to be identified concurrently. By assessing food purchasing behavior and consumption pattern may help describe the dietary practices (Dillon, 2011) hence increase the
consumption of fruits and vegetables. It is also important to examining and understanding food consumption pattern to promote fruits and vegetables selections among adults in Malaysia. Previous research also supported that food shopping behaviors leads to food consumption where the general consumption is that individual consume most of they purchased and the importance for consumption at home (Hersey et al., 2001).

Data from Federal Agriculture Marketing Authority of Malaysia (FAMA) demonstrated the increasing per capita consumption for fruits from 80.4kg in 2006 to 93kg in 2010 (Ministry of Agriculture, Malaysia, 2012). Meanwhile, for vegetables commodities, per capita consumption per person shows slightly declined from 58kg in 2006 to 54.7 in 2010. In line with the data from Justin et al. (2009), reported the fruits and vegetables consumption worldwide among adults from the 52 countries mainly low including Malaysia. According to the report, 78 percent of total respondents consumed less than the minimum recommended of five daily servings of fruits and vegetables. Largely, 77.6 percent of men and 78.4 percent of women consumed fewer than the minimum recommended level. Similar findings have been obtained from high income countries during the same time frame. As evidenced in studies by Blanck, Gillespie, Kimmons, Seymour, and Serdula (2008), 75.3 percent which encompasses 81.1 percent of men and 71.1 percent of women in United State citizen consumed less than five serving of fruits and vegetables.

Study by Subaratty and Jowaheer (2001), examined the consumption pattern of fruits in Mauritius which obtained factors such as age, sex and income were the important determinant for the consumption of fruits in Mauritius. Furthermore, fruits like apple, pears, oranges, bananas, grapes, kiwi and papaya mostly consumed by respondents in Mauritius. It was interesting to note that, quality and availability exerted an important influence as a reason for high consumption of fruits and vegetables. In contrast, Nurul Izzah et al. (2012) found that the most preferred fruits in Selangor state in Malaysia were banana, apple and watermelon while for vegetables commodities, vegetables like celery, spinach, water spinach, long beans, french beans, carrot, potato and chinese mustard were the most frequent consumed vegetables. Respondents prepared vegetables in their ingredients in foods such as soup, rice dishes, varieties of noodles and in traditional snacks. On the contrary, findings from Yen, Tan and Feisul (2012) attempted to profile respondent in a daily consumption which higher educated person, high income level, female, non-smoker, longer work hours and lived in East Peninsular Malaysia were likelihood to consume fruits and vegetables daily.

Several studies (Blitstein, Snider, Evans, 2012; Brunt et al, 2007; Baranowski et al., 2006; Winkler et al., 2005) shows that fruits and vegetables purchases of an individual are influenced from variety of factors such as prices, family influences, accessibilitiy and availability, income level, and social support, attitude, habit, knowledge and practices. Some qualitative research highlighted the major influences on food purchased were taste, preferences, habit and nutritional concern (Henry et al., 2003; Reicks et al., 2003). Leibtag and Kaufman (2003) suggested lower-income families economizes on their food expenditure by purchasing foods on sale, store brand, less expensive meat, fruits and vegetables. In the line with Palwasha, Ali, Khan, Andaleeb and Khan (2011), demonstrated that food consumption pattern is changed by different variables such as price of food item, income of individual, high population and preferences of consumers. In addition, they stated that, when people are more educated or with the advancement in the education, in general especially in health education people are trying to shift from less nutrient diet to more nutrient diet. Previous research regarding to the purchasing behavior and consumption pattern were explored from abroad based on gender and living arrangement (Morse & Driskel, 2009; Brunt & Rhee 2008; Wardle et al., 2004). Besides the personal factors, the previous study (Blanchette, & Brug, 2005) showed that environmental attributes as the contributing factors for fruits and vegetables consumption. Availability and accessibility, social condition, as well as cultural condition including financial situation are the determinants for fruits and vegetables consumption (Carljin et al., 2006). Some researchers found that a person who consumes Mediterranean diet such as those coming from countries like Spain, Italy, Turkey, Egypt, Syria and Croatia consumes more fruits and vegetables than those who consume conventional Western diet (Cordain et al., 2005).

2. Research Methods

The study by using self-administered questionnaire was distributed in selected cities in Malaysia. The cities were chose as the sampling frame for the reasons of residents who lives in cities claimed to have strong purchasing power and largely responsible for the rise of consumerism (Zheng, 2008). Furthermore, according to Department of Statistics of Malaysia, 2010, the proportion of urban population increased to 71.0 percent compared to 62.0 percent in 2000. Seven selected cities were chose which were Subang Jaya (Selangor), Johor Bahru (Johor), Kota Kinabalu (Sabah), Kuching (Sarawak), Ipoh (Perak), Alor Star (Kedah), and Kota Bahru (Kelantan). Those cities were the most populated cities in Malaysia. Based on a purposive sampling technique, the most crowded and the most visited shopping centre of each city was chosen. Frank Small and Association found that Malaysian adults (above eighteen years old) spent most of their leisure time in shopping centres or mall (Zafar, 2007). The study states that a shopping centre is also a community centre.
for social and recreational activity among Malaysian adults. Therefore, the main reason for choosing the shopping mall was to obtain an adequate number of respondents. The sampling method used for this study was non-probability sampling (convenience sampling method). Even though this method would hardly lead to representative samples, it may be the best method available due to the unavailability of an accurate sampling frame for total adults visiting shopping mall (Trochim, 2006). Multiple choice questions which asked the respondents regarding to the consumer behaviour of fruits and vegetables such as frequency of buying, place for buying, total expenditure in a week, and the person who responsible to buy fruits and vegetables. In addition fruits and vegetables frequency questionnaire section also included. A final section was the socio-demographic profile of respondents. All of the questions were adopted from previous researches (Ahlstrom, 2009; Engelhaupt, 2006; Richards, 2007; Richards, 2004; Stables, 2001). The sample size of this research was 1,200 respondents.

3. Results and Discussion

Only 1049 surveys were useable for data analysis. A total of 151 questionnaires were excluded from the final analysis because some of them were incomplete and too many missing values and unreliable answer given by respondents. The data analyzed by using frequency, chi-square and cross-tabulation. Respondents participated in this study, 638 (60.8%) were female and 408 (38.9%) male adults. Most of the respondents were Malay 777 (74.1%), followed by other ethnic, 125 (11.9%) (Bumiputera from Sabah: Kadazan, Dusun, Bajau, Suluk, Murut, Bisayah. Bumiputera from Sarawak: Iban, Bidayuh, Orang Ulu/ Dayak, Melanau and Penan). Based on Malaysia statistics population 2010 (Department of Statistics, 2010), majority of Malaysian (67.4%) were Malay and this respondents profile were merely followed the statistics. Others’ ethnic become the second largest respondents because most of voluntarily person in Sabah and Sarawak were from others group. 95 of total respondents were Chinese (9.1%), and 47 were Indian (4.5%). From the results, 617 (58.8%) were single while 419 (39.9%) were married and 10 (1%) were divorced. Respondents were asked about their educational background and the results shows the highest participants were from the secondary school level (35.2%). Besides, most of the participants’ household income (38.9%) was in the range of RM1001 to RM3000.

Respondents were asked about their frequent buying fruits and vegetables. Figure 1 show that 10 percent of respondents bought fruits everyday and 15 percent bought 4 to 6 times a week. It comprises 25 percent respondents bought fruits weekly. Meanwhile, 38 percent respondents bought 2 to 3 times a week which considered as moderate buyers. 37 percent of respondent were found bought less frequent fruits in a week which constitute 29 and 8 percent bought fruits once a week and fewer than once a week respectively. 33 percent of respondent bought vegetables everyday and 18 percent of respondent bought 4 to 6 times a week. It constitutes of 51 respondent frequently bought fruits weekly. 25 percent of Malaysian adults moderately (2 to 3 times) purchased vegetables in a week. It was found that 24 percent of respondents less frequently purchase vegetables which constitute 17 percent bought vegetables in a week and 7 percent fewer than once a week. Briefly, Malaysian adults bought fruits 2 to 3 times a week. Meanwhile, 33 percent bought vegetables on a daily basis. This is due to the fact that vegetables are more perishable, cheaper and accessible than fruits. Furthermore, vegetables were consumed as regular part of a daily meal. On the contrary, Malaysian adults consumed fruit as pleasurable snack (Yen, 2012).

![Figure 1. Frequency on Consumer Buying Fruits & Vegetables](image)

Demographic factors were used to identify the purchasing behavior among Malaysian adults by using cross-tabulation analysis. Chi-square test for age ($\chi^2 = 18.49, \text{sig-} \chi^2 = 0.018$), ethnics ($\chi^2 = 18.48, \text{sig-} \chi^2 = 0.005$) and educational level ($\chi^2$...
= 20.02, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.029$) were significant and indicating these variables associated with the frequently purchase fruits. Respondents who purchased less frequent were from age group of 27 to 35 (38.30%) and 36 to 43 (46.40%). Half of the Chinese respondents (52.60%) purchased less frequent fruits. Those who have higher university degree holder comprises of degree (43.40%) and postgraduate (50.00%) purchased less frequent fruits. This is due to higher educational level have a time constraints due to their job career to purchase frequently. Chi-square test for marital status ($\chi^2 = 9.894$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.042$), ethnics ($\chi^2 = 35.51$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.000$), educational level ($\chi^2 = 29.47$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.001$) and household income ($\chi^2 = 14.18$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.028$) indicating these variables were significantly associated with the frequently of purchasing vegetables. The pattern can be observed among ethnics group where Chinese (44.20%) less frequently purchased vegetables while Malay (51.00%) and others ethnics (51.10%) purchased more frequent. Echoing results of fruits frequently purchased, the similar findings found that respondents with higher educational level purchased vegetables less frequent.

In the same vein, figure 2 shows the expenditure of fruits and vegetables in a week.

![Figure 2: Consumer Weekly Expenditure on Fruits and Vegetables](image)

The highest expenditure for fruits was from RM11 to RM20, whereas for vegetables the range was from RM1 to RM10 weekly. This is due to the fact that vegetables are cheaper than fruits.

Similar analyses by using cross tabulation were conducted for understanding the purchasing behavior among adults between demographic factors and consumer expenditure. The chi-square test for gender ($\chi^2 = 14.7$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.001$), marital status ($\chi^2 = 17.58$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.001$), and household income ($\chi^2 = 0.186$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.000$) were significantly effects towards estimated expenditure of fruits. Obvious pattern of higher percentage was seen for higher income level (More than RM5000) tend to spent for fruits in a week RM31 to RM50 while lower income group (41.7% of income less than RM1000) buy fruits RM1 to RM10. The chi-square test for age ($\chi^2 = 33.87$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.000$), gender ($\chi^2 = 17.12$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.000$), marital status ($\chi^2 = 18.9$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.001$), ethnics ($\chi^2 = 23.28$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.001$), and household income ($\chi^2 = 49.96$, sig- $\chi^2 = 0.000$) towards estimated expenditure of vegetables. Findings shows that 25.9 percent of Chinese and 29.8 percent among Indian spent RM21-RM30 vegetables in a week while 37.7 percent of Malay and 36.8 percent of other races spent RM1 to RM10 for vegetables. Based on the results, Malay and others ethnics spent less but their frequency is higher compared with Chinese and Indian. In the other hand, Chinese and Indian spent more for purchasing fruits and vegetables but in less frequency.

![Figure 3: Responsible Person to Purchase Fruits and Vegetables](image)
Findings found that almost adults (62.2%) buy fruits and vegetables in supermarket. Supermarkets can be found everywhere in the cities and is considered more convenient and accessible. Results from cross tabulation found that, adults purchased fruits and vegetables at the supermarket regardless of age groups. However, almost adults aged 51 to 59 years purchased fruits and vegetables at the wet market whereas younger adults aged 27 to 43 years preferred the hypermarket. Figure 3 indicate that 34.7 percent of women are responsible for purchasing fruits and vegetables. It follows by men (25.8%), spouse (11.4%), siblings (7.7%), relatives (4.2%) and others (2.3%). Based on the results of this study, the main purchaser of fruits and vegetables are women and it is because of their role in providing home necessary choose and purchases food related products.

**Table 1. Factors affecting purchasing behavior among adults for fruits and vegetables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fruits</th>
<th>Vegetables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>6.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutritional Content</td>
<td>6.41</td>
<td>6.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taste</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>6.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>6.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>5.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td>5.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packaging</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>5.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>5.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>5.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 above shows the mean for factors affecting while purchasing fruits and vegetables among adults in Malaysia. Respondents could choose in seven point Likert-scale for the nine attribute above while they purchase fruits and vegetables. Results indicates that Malaysian adults seeks quality as the most important factors.

**Table 2. Total Percentage for Malaysian adults in weekly fruits consumption**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Fruits</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Apple</td>
<td>71.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Banana</td>
<td>69.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Orange</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>watermelon</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Papaya</td>
<td>51.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Mango</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Grapes</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Honeydew</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Rambutan</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Pears</td>
<td>35.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3. Total percentage for Malaysian adults in weekly vegetables consumption**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Fruits</th>
<th>Vegetables</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cucumber</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tomatoes</td>
<td>60.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lady Fingers</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Leafy Vegetables</td>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Leaf Mustard</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Water Convolvulus</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Spinach</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Stem, Stalks &amp; Flower</td>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lettuce</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mushroom</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Cauliflower</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Broccoli</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Seeds or pods | Percentage (%) |
There were 40 lists of fruits in the questionnaire and Table 2 shows the top ten of most frequently consumed fruits based on the number of respondents which were apple, banana, orange, watermelon, and papaya with 71.8 percent, 69.3 percent, 57.5 percent, and 51.9 percent, respectively. They consumed less consume on pomegranate (9.8%), Roselle (7.2%), rambai (6.2%). Meanwhile, the most frequently consumed vegetables among Malaysian adults which shows in table 3 was chilli (76.1 percent), followed by cabbage, cucumber, mustard leaf tomatoes, and water convolvulus with 68.5 percent, 66.2 percent, 62.9 percent, 60.8 percent and 59.2 percent, respectively. Chilli was categorized under herbs and spices and this herbs are commonly use in Malaysian typical dishes.

4. Conclusion and Recommendation

The research highlighted the consumption pattern and purchasing behavior among adults in selected cities in Malaysia. Currently, imported fruits like apple and orange were the most likely consumed while spices like chillies were the frequent consumption by adults. In short Malaysian adults consumed varieties of fruits and vegetables. In order to keep abreast of the fruits and vegetables consumption pattern, marketers should increase the supply of highly consumed fruits and vegetables in markets and increase the popularity of less consumed. According to the findings, supermarket was the most preferred place by Malaysian adults to purchase fruits and vegetables, thus authorities could provide the continuous supply for fruits and vegetables in supermarket and educate farmers to retain the network with supermarket chain. Besides, study have shown that Malaysian adults seek for quality and nutritional content for fruits and vegetables. Consequently, increase freshness and quality standard of fruits and vegetables in market will increase the fruits and vegetables consumption among Malaysian adults.

There were few limitations of this study. Firstly, the data only captured for the respondents of urban population in Malaysia while disregard urban population. By obtained the urban and rural population could compare the pattern between urban and rural population among Malaysian adults. It also suggested that future studies, should using different method such as in depth interview and observation to gain more knowledge on fruits and vegetables consumption pattern among Malaysian adults.

Reference


The Management of Immovable Property, Resources by the Local Government in Republic Albania

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Abstract

The focus of this presentation will be the important role that local government has in the management of immovable property. The approval of the legal framework by the central government in the last five years in Albania has been carried out taking into consideration the following objectives:

1. The transference and enhancement of the powers pertaining to central government units with the aim of managing immovable property resources by means of leasing, in which third parties are involved. These items of immovable property include forests, meadows, barren land, abandoned plots of land, etc, which have been transferred to the local government units either in use, or as property of these local government units.

2. The transference of those powers concerning the management of all legal procedures related to the settlement of the legal titles. This has been one of the pressing issues after the year 1991 in the course of the implementation of the land reform. The uncertainty over the legal titles prevents a great amount of the available land from being part of the land market. The pressure – coming from the citizens as well as from various international organizations – to reach a solution is very high.

3. Local government powers, aiming at implementing and carrying out the subsidy plan which aims to support the farmers in planting fruit trees and nut trees, in accordance with the international policies concerning the fuller management and exploitation of the arable land.

The issue I focus on in this presentation is: Are there any obstacles to the implementation of these services? Is the legal framework appropriate for their implementation? In this article I have pinpointed current problems, which require that the legislation be reviewed and modified, so as to make possible the use of those powers pertaining to the local government and the fulfillment of the tasks that the local government units need to carry out, in the framework of the decentralization process. Finding the solution to these problems would lead to a sustainable development, which is indispensable considering the globalization issues and EU integration. The decentralization process, aiming at improving the services which have a bearing on the life of the community, demands a higher level of attention.

Keywords: decentralization, leasing, property titles, legislation.

1. Importance

The focus of this paper will be the legal analysis and the identification of problems on the management of resources, real estate, namely of the agricultural land. The management remains a challenge for the local government. Policies on protection and management of land, especially agricultural land, play an important economic and environment role and affect the quality of life and biodiversity.¹

2. Participating actors

The administration of local government, local physical and legal entities, foreign ones as lessees, farmers etc.

3. Research question

To what extent are local authorities able to carry out legal obligations for the management of real estate resources and what obstacles arise?

4. Introduction

The management and the positive use of agricultural land is and will remain a very important task for state structures, as well as for private administrators (physical and legal entities, both domestic and foreign ones), all this for the values of this land.

A variety of tasks have been assigned to Local Government bodies, but management of resources remains the most important one. Management of these assets is a challenge for local governments. The obligations of these structures include leasing, protection of soil from erosion, clarification of property titles, supporting farmers and other entities with subsidy schemes for planting etc. The realization of this challenge requires a qualified, capable, and trained administration in the field of property, with specific topics in the field of property and land laws. Clarity of property titles avoids conflicts of properties, as reality shows us not a very pleasant situation regarding the number of conflicts in our internal courts, where the largest number of cases is about property issues. Likewise is the situation in the international arena, the European Court of Human Rights, where Albania is in the first place regarding property issues.

5. Development

leasing is a right transferred to local government bodies, and not only for those assets which have been transferred to the municipalities / cities as their properties or for use, but also on those assets that have been classified as abandoned, but which are private properties (received pursuant to Law 7501/1991 "On Land" and Law nr.8312/1998 "On undivided agricultural land"). This policy aims a positive use of land and the reduction of the unused areas which are included into the category VII to X of the study of fertility. It improves the management of land and creates opportunities for the expansion of planted areas and for the increase of agricultural production.

There have been approved some Laws and Decisions of the Council of Ministers for leasing undivided agricultural lands, but as an achievement will be considered Instruction No. 1, dated 18.07.2012. "Lessor authority is the mayor of the area where is the agricultural land." In this instruction have been foreseen restrictions too. According this instruction is allowed the lease of the agricultural land, unless it is used for agricultural activities (point 7). The lease of the agricultural land has been influenced by the subsidy schemes for farmers. Subsidies are applied to new plantations, for arboriculture and fruit trees, irrigation etc.

The actual problem that impedes the realization of local governmental tasks, is the ambiguity of property titles. In the absence of initial registration of real estate on a national level, the lack of a certificate of ownership, brings even the inability to benefit from the interested parties, to take advantage of the subinvention schemes. At this point, we could have an improved situation, if intervening in legislation, giving people the opportunity to benefit from subinvention schemes to the subjects that did not possess a certificate of ownership, because of the lack of updating the area, so not conducting the initial registration area, process and task of the state structures, not having any connection with the

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2 Decision nr.121, dated 17.02.2011; Law No. 10 257, dated 25.03.2010 and many DCM of other laws
3 Crosscutting Strategy Reform in the area of property rights, the official website of the Ministry of Justice (accessed date 01.12.2012)
4 World Bank, Status of Land Reform and Property Market Property in Albania, Tirana, 2006, p 30 which stipulates (.... the area is blocked and informal corrupt transactions and will continue to dominate).Reference to the analysis of questionnaires completed by farmers in the coastal area; referring to the interview with the inhabitants of the coastal zone, referred to the Council of Ministers Archives, D.M.P practices of different individuals.
5 World Bank, Status of Land Reform and Real Property Market in Albania, Tirana, 2006, pg 26-27
6 World Bank statistics (2001)
7 The report accompanying the draft guidance of the Council of Ministers "On the lease of agricultural land, undivided" approved Instruction No. 1, dated 18.07.2012
8 The official website of the Ministry of Agriculture, published legal and sub-legal acts pertaining scope of administration and land management. Legislative initiatives:
9 DCM nr.656, dated 28.07.2010 and Law No. 10 263, dated 08.04.2010 "On the use and exploitation of agricultural land for leasing undivided agricultural lands ".
10 Instruction No. 1, dated 18.07.2012, Chapter I, point 3
11 Instruction No. 1, dated 18.07.2012, Chapter I, Section 5
individual. In the National Strategy it is noted that in the coming years the agriculture sector will obtain a great support and will be one of the priorities, as the exploitation of the land according to the purpose of use, increases the economic development and regulates the country’s socio-economic rapports. The subinvention subjects not only benefited from tenants of lands that are managed or owned by municipalities / cities, but also from farmers. Albania has 695 000 hectares of land, which accounts for about 24 % of its territory. Of this area, 80% (561 000 ha) belongs to the private sector and 20 % (134 000 ha) to state sector.

Uncertainties of property titles, are an obstacle to the accomplishment of providing leased land and at the same time an obstacle to benefit from subinvention scheme. The completion of documents, and the security of ownership issues remain a challenge for governmental policies. The complex nature of the property and the problematics carried over the years, led to developments in the field of legislation, with the purpose of consolidating the documented land and approximation with EU legislation. The uncertainty of property titles, not only hinders the process of leasing agricultural land, but also increases the conflicts and issues that are oriented in domestic and international courts. The structure that holds all the weight of the realization of this process and the clarification of property titles is Property Titles Verification Commission (KVTP) at every Mayor. KVTPV is established the prefect of each county and chaired by the Director of Government Commission, under the authority and direct dependence on the mayor. When given ownership titles are found illegal they are canceled and the land after being state announced, passes onto the municipal administration which then carry the granting of their rental. So the clarification of property titles is a very important process, especially in the area of tourism development priority. Referring land defined by law no. 7665, dated 21.1.1993 On the development of areas that have tourism, as amended and regulations for its implementation.

This institution carries out its activities in cooperation with local government, municipality, region. There are adopted some legal changes, which show the growth of local governmental powers.

The Cross-section Strategy of the Ministry of Justice Reform in the area of property rights 2012-2020, defined as the obligation to improve the legal framework of the process of reviewing the legal validity of property titles on agricultural lands and the strengthening of cross-institutional coordination in this process. It is anticipated the outcome of the review of legal validity of the agricultural land ownership titles within 2013.

In exercising its powers, local government structures, face obstacles that have to do with the legal space of domestic legislation. In addition, this disorder also brings the non-fulfillment of legal obligations to entities interested in renting. The following analysis is intended to identify the obstacles and problems that exist in the legal framework, as well as the services of the administration of local government structures. In this direction more attribution is required by high education, to broadcast more knowledge to the local administration, throughout staff training courses. In all the reports of the World Bank, the European Commission Reports, Report on Albania’s progress, etc., it is noted that in the field of property attention and much work is necessitated for the accomplishment of any process. To this reality, a vision is needed.

6. Empirical Analysis

The study is based on the analysis of the findings after the completion of 200 questionnaires in the field, in the center commune of Bilišt, Devoll district and in the commune of Vaqarr in Tirana district. The purpose of completing the questionnaires, was to identify the progress, results and problems in local government (communes). The questions aimed at getting the farmers' opinion about the services provided by local government. The credibility to these structures, the access to resolve problems or complaints with these structures, the identification of outstanding issues related to

13 National Strategy for Development and Integration for the period 2013-2020 (adopted at the meeting of the Strategic Planning Committee, 20 December 2011)
14 Council of Ministers, the National Plan for the Implementation of the SAA 2012-2015 (adopted in July 2012), the Current Situation.
15 The European Court of Human Rights (case undergrowth, BESHIRI, DRIZA, and others against Albania)
16 Article 7, paragraph 1 of the same law
17 Referring land defined by law no. 7665, dated 21.1.1993 "On the development of areas that have tourism", as amended and regulations for its implementation.
18 Law No. 9948, dated 07.07.2008 "On the legal validity of the establishment of agricultural land ownership titles," Item 3, Article 8, Decree No. 7907, dated 5.06.2012
19 -Nation Strategy for High Education (Higher) - PhD Lirika Kutrolli, International Conference, referred the Topic: "Differentiated Missions in the University Education Institutions" 26-27 October, European University of Tirana
resource management (public or private) and the benefit from the subsidies.

7. Targets

farmers and entities benefiting from agricultural lands, forests, meadows and pastures. Physical persons and legal entities interested in obtaining rented land from the local government.

8. Analysis of the findings

The results are presented graphically for the 19 questions.

Tab.1. Questions on which the following analysis is based upon.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>The questions that are taken for analysis (detached from the questionnaire with 19 questions)</th>
<th>Dv</th>
<th>Dv</th>
<th>Tr</th>
<th>Tr</th>
<th>Tr</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Do you think that the officials were at the appropriate level of education and training, for the implementation of this law?</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Do you think that the institutions have responsibility for not fulfilling legal documents of agricultural land?</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Do you think that the non provision of land with documents has led to uncertainty and investment barrier</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Do you think that the non provision of land with documents has led to uncertainty and investment barrier by foreigner investments?</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Do you think that a part of the surfaces are sold in order to have the possibility of building (house)?</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Do you think that governments during the 20 years have had their attention (priority) solve the problem of property in favor of the former owners?</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Do you think that occasionally, legal changes by governments have happened to help solving the problems of property for individuals, farmers and former landowners?</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Do you think it is right that many ownership problems, which should be resolved in court, are being pursued and resolved administratively?</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Do you think that there are certain categories of ownership problems, which cannot be resolved due to the lack of sub-legal acts?</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Do you think that the Property Verification Commission is conducting the activities of the courts?</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Do you think that the conflict is less existent in northern areas where most of the agricultural lands are divided according to the old borderlines?</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Do you think that in the state’s structures can be found the willingness by the administration, for the treatment of a complaint?</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Have you encountered delays for procedures?</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Do you think that the intervention of a friend with influence has created facilities for pursuing your complaint?</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Do you think that farmers regularly pay the land tax?</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Is the surface of agricultural land preserved from alteration?</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Have you benefited from subsidies projects by the state?</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Have you registered your property in (Office for Verification and Preservation of Real Estate) (ZVRPP)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Do you overlapping of your property (two owners for the same land or area)?</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph. 1. Graphic presentation of the questionnaire data for Center Commune, Devoll district.

![Graph 1](image1.png)

(note: series 1 is YES; series 2 is NO; series 3 is no related information)

Graph. 2. Graphic presentation of the questionnaire data for Vaqarr Commune, Tirana district.

![Graph 2](image2.png)

(note: series 1 is YES; series 2 is NO; series 3 is no related information)

- **In the Center Commune, Bilisht, Devoll district,** the data show that individuals have more confidence in government policies. They appreciate the existence of institutions that provide solutions regarding the property titles, without having to follow the judicial path. The greater part have registered the properties and do not have any problems with the uncertainties of property titles. There are no problems with overlapping properties (two subjects claiming to the same property). Noted that service in administration has good quality and the procedures are not shuffled. Over 60% of respondents have benefited from the schemes of the subsidies. Good policies exist to protect the land and resource management. A very small part of the respondents claim to have sold agricultural land. This demonstrates the close connection between farmers and the land in these areas (where the price per m² of land currently is not too high).

- **In the commune of Vaqarr,** the data provide conflicting results with those of the Center Commune in Bilisht. The Trust or Confidence of individuals in the state structures is lower, they think that the administration services are missing, and they have problems with overlapping titles and a greater part has not registered the property. They haven’t benefited from the subsidies scheme (only 10% of respondents have benefited), and they do not think they have enough policies towards the protection and resource management. A great part of respondents claim to have sold agricultural lands, unlike Devoll district. Vaqarr farmers do not show interest in agricultural lands. Given the great price of land in this area, they have increased their interest in selling these lands, moving away from agriculture.

9. **Conclusion**

The comparison of both cases surveyed in this analysis, has helped this study conclude that: closer to the metropol, the price of agricultural land is higher and the interest of farmers to use land for agricultural purposes is lower.

In this regard, the central and the local government policies must guide the growth of interest in agricultural land
and limit in maximum the fragmentation in the future of this land. The sales of land for building purpose must be prevented.

Increasing fragmentation, directs the change of use of agricultural land, adversely affects the reduction of production, and prevents the development of agriculture to use mechanized tools. This research found some situations that put subjects-farmers in unfavorable conditions. These problems would be resolved with legal intervention, according to the above suggestions, set during the research.

Defining the solution says, delivers a sustainable development, a necessity in the context of globalization and EU integration. Decentralization, in terms of the functions and Local Government direct services to the community, requires attention increasingly.

10. Recommendations

- Need to increase the accountability of officials for service delivery.
- Need to conduct field verification in order to identify the various problems.
- Need to identify the reasons for the existence of the problems related to land non-enrollment, or overlapping for residents of the Vaqarr Commune
- To consider the possibility of treatment with subsidies to entities that are not equipped with ownership certificate, applying only Receipt Acts that Land Owned (AMTP)
- Institutional support is required for local government, in order for the legal obligations in relation to resource management of real estate to be carried out, until the initial registration of assets in the republic level is finished.
- The Communes should develop more policies in terms of economic growth, through the realization of planting projects Barren lands, coniferous and medicinal plants. There are a number of plants with high medicinal and economic value, as such, I would mention chestnuts (especially in the mountains).
- Local government bodies should do more in terms of increasing subside projects, but first the ownership titles must be clarified, as a guarantee that positions the individual in favorable conditions to benefit from these grants. The time for clarity of property titles should be from the beginning of 2013 to the end, (as determined by the law, should be postponed because the timeframe is too short, and the legal framework is not yet complete).
- Local government structures should also increase the responsibility for the protection of agricultural land from alteration and damages.
- To have more training for administration related to law enforcement for farmers in relation to their activities in agriculture and arboriculture.
- Local government must design projects in the framework of cooperation with the European Union and the World Bank for financial support for the development of programs with specific topics in the field of property, with the communes / municipalities administration employees, developing these training programs-courses in the 12 districts of the Republic of Albania. These projects will equip the local administration, with the necessary knowledge for the challenges.
- The culture for the environment and agriculture, should be in the focus of the curricula in primary education onwards.
- The commitment of a particular importance towards agricultural land, is presented as a necessity, as it provides valuable contributions in the conservation of biodiversity and increasing the quality of human life and the planet.
- Civil society should give its contribution to the development of environmental legislation sectors, forest lands, etc., since the development of agriculture and forestry is the basis of food quality and our lives. This battle should not be considered only of the farmers and local government but of all humanity.

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One-Way Street or Roundabout? German Migration Trajectories to and from Australia Since 1952

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Abstract

Australia has been a country of immigration since becoming an independent nation in 1901. Until the 1970s the country’s migration program was predominantly European in origin, geared towards permanent settlement of skilled and also unskilled workers. Changes to Australia’s migration program since the 1970s have seen diversification of country of origin, an increased focus on skills and economic growth, and since the mid-1990s a move towards temporary migration. Germany has been an important migrant source for Australia for more than 200 years. Large scale German immigration was part of Australia’s post-war era population policy and took place from 1952 until the late 1960s. German settler migrants in Australia, dubbed “the hidden migrants”, were largely invisible due to their rapid assimilation. Despite a considerable decline in migrant numbers, Germany is still one of the ten most common countries of birth and ancestry in Australia, and ranks in the top 10 source countries for temporary immigration. However, today as in the past outflow of long-term German residents from Australia is significant. Moreover, technological advances in transportation and communications have made circularity a common phenomenon, making the distinction between permanent and temporary migration increasingly vague. This presentation will focus on aspects, processes and determinants of German migration and return behaviour since 1952 in the context of changing macro-level socio-spatial conditions.

Keywords: Migration, temporary migration, return migration

1. Introduction

“Australia is a country of arrivals and departures (Jupp, 1996, p. 1).”

This statement by James Jupp, one of Australia’s foremost migration researchers of the last 40 years, holds as true today as it did in 1966. According to data from the 2011 Australian Census, 5.3 million or 27 per cent of the resident population were born overseas (Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), 2012). It is commonly accepted knowledge that migration—voluntary or involuntary, assisted or self-financed—has been at the core of Australia’s population and economic growth. It has been argued that Australia is the “product of conscious social engineering to create a particular kind of society” (Jupp, 2007, p. 5), “one of the few nations to have been built by planned immigration … aimed at responding to labour market and economy needs” (Markus, Jupp, McDonald, 2009, p. 152). The authors also contend that the Australian Government’s stringent control of the migration program is at the root of the public’s general acceptance of immigration in Australia.

Until the 1970s Australia’s migrant pool was overwhelmingly white, of Anglo-Saxon and, to a lesser extent, North-Western European origin. Among the North-Western European migrants, Germans have been an important group for more than 200 years. They were the first ‘non-British’ ethnic group of influence in the development of a number of Australian colonies, and despite a considerable decline in migrant numbers, Germany is still one of the ten most common countries of birth and ancestry in Australia, and ranks in the top 10 source countries for temporary immigration. However, today as in the past outflow of long-term German residents from Australia is significant.

The following section will provide a brief overview of Australia’s migration history inclusive of German migration to and from Australia. Section 2 will review statistical data relating to German migration and return to and from Australia. Section 3 will discuss issues associated with investigating and analysing return migration. Section 4 will present information on data collection and some preliminary results of the investigation into German migration to and return behaviour from Australia since 1952 in the context of changing macro-level socio-spatial conditions. Section 5 concludes.
2. Australia's immigration history – brief overview

The establishment of a British penal colony in New South Wales in 1788 laid the foundations for the development of what has been called “a white settler society, closely linked to Britain, and integrated into the economic system of the Empire” (Vasta, 2006, p. 18). The number of convicts of predominantly British and Irish origin transported to Australia between 1788 and 1868 has been estimated at approximately 160,000 persons. Free settlement, initially negligible, started to increase with the establishment of a pastoral economy in the early nineteenth century (Borrie, 1954). To encourage more settlers to Australia, assisted passage schemes subsidising the migrant's journey, were offered from 1832 (Richards, 2008). As a result approximately 61,000 again predominantly British and Irish immigrants arrived in Australia between 1836 and 1846. Among these a small number of other European immigrants of German and Italian origin were also present.

According to Tampke (2006), German history in Australia dates back as far as 1788; however, the first substantial wave of German immigration to Australia commenced in 1838 with the assisted passage and settlement in rural South Australia of a group of 180 Lutheran Germans fleeing religious persecution in their homeland (Harmstorf, 2001). Substantial German migration to other Australian colonies also took place: Approximately 4000 Germans immigrated to New South Wales between 1848 and 1857. Wilhelm Kirchner, a Sydney-based German merchant and the colony's migration agent, was instrumental in organising two successful assisted immigration campaigns in Germany (Tampke, 2001).

In Queensland German settlement commenced in 1838. As in the other colonies many settlers headed to rural areas. After the separation from New South Wales on 6 June 1859, a steady stream of assisted German immigrants flowed into Queensland. The 1891 census showed 14,910 Germans in Queensland; this number, however, had decreased to only 12,000 by 1911 (Corkhill, 2001).

Victoria also had a small assisted migration scheme, and by the end of the 1860s the number of assisted migrants who had settled in Victoria was roughly the same as for New South Wales. The overall number of German immigrants in Victoria in the 1850s and early 1860s was considerably higher than in New South Wales due to the gold rush attracting many unassisted immigrants, and settlers from the other colonies (Borrie, 1954; Tampke, 2001).

The gold rush of the 1850 changed the size and composition of Australian immigration. Population trebled in the decade from 1850-60 (Borrie, 1954; Markus, Jupp, McDonald, 2009). Australia now also hosted non-European immigrants which included South Pacific Islanders employed in the Queensland sugar cane plantation industry as cheap labour and a sizeable number of Chinese who arrived in Australia during the gold rush who, compared to the European migrants, faced considerable racism in the form of restrictions and regulations. It has been argued that these restrictions were initially also part of a class struggle that had the unions fighting against employers undercutting local wages by hiring immigrants as cheap labour; but by the end of the 19th an emerging Australian nationalism and the fear of an Asian invasion had replaced class struggle (Vasta, 2006). This is most clearly reflected in the Immigration Restriction Act of 1901, better known as the ‘White Australia Policy’, one of the first pieces of legislation enacted by the newly federated Commonwealth of Australia comprising the former self-governing British colonies of New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria and Western Australia, in 1091.

The Immigration Restriction Act 1901 enabled denial of entry or removal of unwanted persons and general restriction of migration.

The possibly most well-known component of the White Australia Policy was the so-called dictation test, set to exclude unwanted migrants. This test required a prospective migrant to pass a written dictation test. The language of the test, nominated by an immigration officer, often was one the applicant was not familiar with and had been chosen for that reason.

German migration to Australia remained strong until the end of the century. Migration networks, social unrest and poverty in Europe, Australia’s perceived opportunities and the decrease in the length of the journey with the invention of the steam ship all contributed. By century’s end, however, German expansion and the improvement in the standard of living in Germany all but ended immigration to Australia (Tampke, 2001).

The outbreak of the First World War in 1914 not only put a complete stop to German immigration, it also took a substantial toll on the existing German-Australian community. Anti-German sentiment in Australia was unexpectedly fierce (Perkins, 2001): Until the declaration of war the Germans had been seen as model immigrants creating feelings of kinship and reinforcing the acceptability of German immigrants (Jupp, 1966; Schmortte, 2005).

Legislative and administrative measures introduced to neutralise the German threat resulted in the internment of around 14 per cent of the German population of Australia. After the defeat of Germany in 1918, 696 German citizens were deported, and 4,620 volunteered for repatriation to Germany (Perkins, 2001).
As can be seen in the table below, following the First World War, a sharp decline in number of German immigrants could be observed. Factors in the dispersal of the German population other than deportation were assimilation through intermarriage, a decline in the birth rate and an aging population (Kwiet, 2001).

**Table 1: Number of Germans in Australia from 1856–1947**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colony (state)/Year</th>
<th>NSW</th>
<th>Vic</th>
<th>Qld</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>WA</th>
<th>Tas</th>
<th>Australia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1861</td>
<td>5467</td>
<td>10418</td>
<td>2124</td>
<td>8863</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>26872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>6614</td>
<td>8995</td>
<td>8317</td>
<td>8309</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>32235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1881</td>
<td>7521</td>
<td>8571</td>
<td>11638</td>
<td>8801</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>782</td>
<td>37384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1891</td>
<td>9565</td>
<td>10764</td>
<td>14910</td>
<td>8514</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>918</td>
<td>44961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>7241</td>
<td>6142</td>
<td>11979</td>
<td>4977</td>
<td>2036</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>32990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>4569</td>
<td>3693</td>
<td>9527</td>
<td>3193</td>
<td>1005</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>22396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933</td>
<td>3595</td>
<td>2855</td>
<td>6983</td>
<td>2149</td>
<td>996</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>16842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1947</td>
<td>4457</td>
<td>4307</td>
<td>3839</td>
<td>1098</td>
<td>656</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>14567</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from: Borrie (1954, p. 158)

The Second World War is considered a watershed for Australia, bringing into sharp focus fears regarding Australia’s isolation and Britain’s inability to defend the country. With it came the realisation that Australia needed a larger population for defence purposes but also for political and economic reasons: a small population meant a small economy, which would make Australia vulnerable in an unpredictable political world. Post-war planning set an annual growth target of two per cent, half of this to be achieved through migration.

The Federal Department of Immigration was established in July 1945. Arthur Calwell, the first Minister for Immigration, oversaw the commencement of the Australian post-war migration program; a program maintained and refined to take account of changing economic, social and political environments, by each succeeding Australian government. The initial program under the slogan ‘populate or perish’ offered assisted passage and work contracts to selected migrant groups (Richards, 2008). Initially, in keeping with the White Australia Policy, Australia’s post-war immigration program was geared towards British, European and later American immigration. However, in line with changing macro political and economic realities, race based migrant selection was replaced step by step with selection criteria based on Australia’s population and economic development needs.

As part of the ‘populate or perish’ initiative, the Australian government signed an agreement with the Federal Republic of German launching large-scale post war German migration in 1952. The initial agreement was valid for five years and was followed by two further agreements, finally terminated in 1981 (Buchanan, 2007).

Factors that assisted the acceptance of German mass migration only a few years after the end of the Second World War despite initial concern on the part of the Australia populace included the bi-partisan agreement on population targets (Richards, 2008), the aim of the program, creation of a desirable mix of North-Western Europeans to offset Southern European migration, the promise of security screening and migrants as labour for those sections of the economy that required it (Sauer, 1999). Sauer argues further that the Government used Australian self-interest to shape perceptions by concentrating on the economic dimension and emphasising German trade skills as an asset to Australian economy.

Other factor cited are the existence and clever exploitation of the common stereotype of Germans as industrious, loyal and skilled migrants, who assimilated well and could be instrumental in advancing Australia’s economy (Sauer, 1999; Schmortte, 2005). Kaplan’s investigation of the media’s role in reviving the stereotype of the useful German over the Nazi cliché concludes that the media was instrumental in making German migrants acceptable again. Moreover, ideological reasons, the Germans were seen as anti-communist, may also have contributed to the re-acceptance of Germans (Kaplan, 1995).

According to Khoo, Hugo and McDonald (2008), three major periods can be identified in the Australian migration policy context:

1947–1971: The substantial labour shortage in the post-war period caused unprecedented immigration levels and extension of the migration program from Britain to other European countries to satisfy Australia’s workforce needs. The labour market needs of the so-called Long Boom were predominantly for unskilled and semi-skilled labour, similar to European labour market needs. Unlike the European guest worker programs of the same period, the focus of Australia’s
migration program was on settlement migration.

1971–1996: The end of the Long Boom and the ageing of the baby boomers resulted in structural change to the economy. As part of these changes, the Immigration Restriction Act was repealed in 1973. The focus of the migration program shifted from labour shortages to skills requirements and lead to the introduction of the prototype of Australia’s current three stream—skills, family, and humanitarian stream—migration. This period also saw significant immigration from Asian countries.

1996–present (2008): The skills focus of Australian immigration policy increased. The major change to immigration policy can be found in the shift from the permanent settlement focus to temporary migration. In 1996 in response to the new global economy and business groups’ request for more flexible arrangement to facilitate employment of overseas skilled labour if unavailable in Australia, new temporary business entry visas allowing employers to sponsor workers for up to four years were introduced.

Unlike in the migration program where migrant numbers are decided in the year prior, there is no limitation on the number of temporary visas per year. Since the introduction of temporary visas, there has been a steady increase in temporary entry of skilled workers, students and working holiday makers. The first two categories are of particular interest because they allow for a direct reaction to economic developments on the one hand but have also become a pool for recruitment for employer sponsored migration. As Australia allows for onshore change in visa status, temporary entry is seen as pathways to permanent settlement.

In 2012, further refinement of the migration program resulted in a new process where potential migrants lodge an expression of interest with the Australian Government/DIAC who will assess these expressions and then invite suitable applicants to submit visa applications.

3. Some statistical data relating to German migration and return to and from Australia

As shown in the Figure 1, the number of Germans in Australia in 1947 was just 14,567, equating to 0.2 per cent of the population, the lowest percentage since 1830 (Kaplan, 2001). With the commencement of German mass migration in 1952 numbers started to increase steadily. Results were first reflected in the 1954 census figures: 65,422 Germans had immigrated. By 1961 Australia’s German migration population had reached 109,315 persons or one per cent of the population. Eighty four per cent of these arrivals were assisted passage migrants. After 1961 the German population numbers stabilised; in 1996 the number stood at 110,331 despite 30 per cent of settlers permanently leaving Australia again in the period 1947–83 (Kaplan, 2001).

From the 1970s onwards, the number of German migrants decreased considerably: from approximately 2000 annually in the 1970s to approximately 850 annually in the early 1990 (Kaplan, 2001). It has been suggested that the reasons for this decline may be found in Australian immigration policy, and German and Australian economic conditions (Buchanan, 2007; Kaplan, 2001; Münstermann, 1997).

Table 2: German migration to Australia: settler arrivals, permanent departures, departures as percentage of settler arrival:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year (financial year)</th>
<th>Settler arrivals</th>
<th>Permanent departures</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1946-1949</td>
<td>2563</td>
<td>747</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950-1959</td>
<td>69756</td>
<td>7033</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-1969</td>
<td>48952</td>
<td>23463</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972-1979</td>
<td>18752</td>
<td>13158</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-1989</td>
<td>28925</td>
<td>11359</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Muenstermann (1997, p. 63A)

Table 3: German migration to Australia: settler arrivals, permanent departures, permanent departures as percentage of settler arrivals, 1990–2001 and 2001–2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year(financial year)</th>
<th>Settler arrivals</th>
<th>Permanent departures</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990-2001</td>
<td>8637</td>
<td>2423</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2012</td>
<td>9379</td>
<td>4368</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

German interest in Australia as a migration destination has remained strong over the last 30 years (Buchanan, 2007). Kaplan (2001) states that the Australian Immigration office in West Germany received approximately 20,000 enquiries annually during the 1980s. This interest in the 1980s might have been influenced by the European socio-political situation, such as the fear of a nuclear threat in some sectors of the German population, growing unemployment, overcrowded cities, and high cost of housing among others (Harms torf & Cigler, 1985). Another factor consistently cited by those who have experienced Australia especially as a holiday destination, is the attraction of Australia’s climate and landscape in conjunction with cheap airfares, making Australia accessible (Buchanan, 2007; Harmstorf & Cigler, 1985).

The excerpt from the Current Country Rankings of the Department of Immigration and Citizenship for the period 2011–2012 below provides an overview of Germany’s position in relation to other migrant country streams.

**Table 4:** Except from DIAC’s Current Country Rankings showing Germany’s ranking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stream</th>
<th>Family Stream</th>
<th>Employer Sponsored</th>
<th>Total Skill Stream</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Business (Long Stay)</th>
<th>Visitors</th>
<th>Population in Australia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** adapted from DIAC, Current Country Rankings (2013)

This inflow, however, is accompanied by a sizeable outflow of permanent German migrants from Australia. For the financial year 2011–2012, the last year data is available, the Department of Immigration and Citizenship reports 837 settler arrivals compared to 537 permanent departures, a departure rate of 64 per cent.

**Table 5:** Permanent Departures Overseas Born by Selected Country of Birth by Length of Stay - Financial Year 2011-12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>&lt;2 years</th>
<th>2 and &lt; 3 years</th>
<th>3 and &lt; 4 years</th>
<th>4 and &lt; 5 years</th>
<th>5+ years</th>
<th>Not stated</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>537</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** DIAC (2013)

In an immigration country like Australia, departure of settler migrants is not an uncommon phenomenon—the Australian Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC) puts the percentage of overseas born residents departing permanently as a proportion of total permanent departures at approximately 50 per cent since 1998-99 (DIAC, 2011, p. 1). In 2011–12 of the 87,493 people who indicated they were departing permanently, 51.1 per cent were born overseas, a slight increase on the 2010–11 proportion of 50.2 per cent.

4. **Issues associated with investigating and analysing migration trajectories and return migration**

An investigation into return migration is faced with two significant issues: data availability and quality, and how to define return migration.

The weak statistical basis due to different data collections methods between countries, difficulties in acquiring data and data distortion issues has been identified as one of the major challenges to progress in the area (Dumont & Spielvogel, 2008; Ette & Sauer, 2010). This assessment is shared by migration scholars across the field and despite substantial improvements still persists today (Cassarino, 2004; Dumont & Spielvogel, 2008; Ette & Sauer, 2010).

In the context of statistical data collection on permanent departures from Australia, the Australian Department of Immigration and Citizenship cautions on its website that its statistics are representative of trends only as the data is based on information provided by passengers leaving the country and who may not provide correct or truthful answers on their passenger cards. (DIAC, 2013)

Similarly, historical statistical data on German immigration can only provide trends as the classification for migrants entering the country was changed a number of times leading to different definitions of who counted as German. The Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs in one of its publications provides the following advice:

"The data for Germany are inflated because data prior to 1959 are based on country of last residence, and most immigrants arriving from Germany after World War Two were displaced persons who were not born in Germany."
Settler arrivals by birthplace data not available prior to 1959. For the period July 1949 to June 1959, Permanent and Long Term Arrivals by Country of Last Residence have been included as a proxy for this data. When interpreting this data for some countries (DIMA, 2001, pp. 24-25)."

The second issue is the lack of a common definition and coherent terminology for the concept of return migration. The reason may be related to the fact that theoretical approaches to migration were have long conceptualised migration as one discrete move from country of origin to host country. The view of migration as a permanent event may have been influenced by a focus on the transatlantic mass migration of the early 20th century, however it has been shown that even then about a quarter of migrants returned. More recent approaches to migration and return migration research such as transnationalism and social network theory view return as part of the migration cycle (Dumont & Spielvogel, 2008) or as a subset of temporary migration (Dustmann & Weiss, 2007).

On the most basic level, return migration involves movement of a person through space and time. These are, of course, only points on a continuum and there other dimensions, such as the legal/administrative dimension involving the question of voluntary, assisted or forced return. The observed return may also be part of a much more complex series of movements and may include multiple exits and entries to the same or different countries.

5. Data collection and preliminary results

The approach taken in this project is qualitative because qualitative approaches recognise the importance of the subjective creation of meaning while at the same time not discarding any notion of objectivity (Hesse-Biber, 2010). The approach centres on micro-level data collected through semi-structured interviews, supplemented by secondary quantitative census and migration statistics data to situate the micro-level narratives in the macro-level dimension.

At the time of writing the data collection phase is ongoing. Interviews so far have been predominantly conducted in Australia; two interviews have been conducted via Skype with returnees in Germany.

Due to the nature of the study a non-random, non-probability sampling strategy was chosen. The method used is purposive sampling since the participants for the study needed to fulfil the following criteria:

- in Australia: be a long-term (12 months or longer) Australian resident of German citizenship/ancestry in Australia
  - who has contemplated and rejected return, or
  - intends to return, or
  - intends to return and has already made preparations
- in Germany: be a returned long-term Australian resident of German citizenship/ancestry in Germany (duration of stay in Germany at least 12 months)

To add an organisational dimension, representatives of organisations involved in cross-cultural German-Australian endeavours were also approached for interviews.

Advertisements in German language media resulted in the recruitment of a small number of interview partners. The majority of participants were recruited via the snowballing method as the originally recruited interviewees then referred other interested Germans to the project.

As mentioned above, the interview phase is yet to conclude; however, it is possible to say that considerable temporary and repeat migration can be observed. Other areas of interest not yet fully explored include assimilation, acculturation and identity and the question of language maintenance.

6. Conclusion

Migratory flows can have a significant socio-economic and political impact on sending and receiving countries. In an immigration country such as Australia with one of the most regulated migration programs in the world, return migration is an issue of importance. Apart from the fact that in the case of settler migration, return represents a loss of human capital to Australia after its investment in the recruitment and selection of migrants, there are also policy implications as return can lead to unplanned changes in the composition of the immigrant population. Thus, return migration can impact on planning and it can also have a significant social and cultural impact by affecting the composition of the net gain from migration. The characteristics of a settler departing are different to those of one arriving, resulting in different needs and contributions. Moreover, immigrant numbers are not unrestricted, a settler who departs might do so at the expense of somebody who would have staid and provided a sustained contribution to Australia.

On the other hand, return migration can establish links between countries, fostering closer relations which can
facilitate access to markets, and allow for the acquisition and circulation of knowledge and skills.

After the conclusion of the data collection, major themes will be analysed with a view to establishing trends in return behaviour and associated determinants; the processes involved and the possible effect on home and host societies.

References


The Flat Tax and Efficiency of Fiscal System

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Abstract

What has been the impact of the flat tax in the efficiency of the fiscal system? To analyze these effects we are taking into consideration fourteen ex communist countries which have performed reforms after the year 2001. These countries have supported the flat tax application and therefore have undermined the tax level. To make this comparison we have obtained from a database of the World Bank “Paying Taxes” which ranks fiscal systems for 185 different countries according to their efficiency. By order of the data in the database of places to consider for a period of 5 years (2008-2012), it has been concluded that the flat tax has not improved the efficacy of the fiscal system. Excluding some countries, the efficiency of the fiscal system after the flat tax reform, has remained the same, even in any country are feeling the negative effects of the flat tax. It is recommended that countries ex-communist renounce flat tax and fiscal legislation adopted by developed countries to apply progressive tax.

Keywords: Efficiency; fiscal system; flat tax; ex-communist countries

1. Introduction

The discussion around the flat tax is one of the most open debates among economists. The flat tax characterizes the simplicity of the fiscal system, a principle embraced by the great economist, Adam Smith. According to Smith, this fiscal system is efficient, clear and convenient. These types of flat tax concepts demonstrate the general themes of classical liberalism (Evans, Anthony J). The flat tax, later defined by Hall and Rabushka, is a cash-flow business tax rate plus wage at same rate. The flat fee is based on the principle that all income is taxed only once during single turnover and this time it is in this moment of their tenure.

Although there were early experiences of the flat tax such as Jersey in the 1940s, Hong Kong in 1947, the concept of the flat tax known today took its shape in 1994. During that the tax was adopted by the Baltic countries (Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia). Debate became even more interesting when it was adopted from Russia in 2001. After this event, several former communist countries began to apply flat tax as well.

2. Advantages of the flat tax

The flat tax progressive taxation differs from the way of taxation. Labor and capital are not taxed progressively but equal to a percentage. The higher the income from labor the capital will result to a higher tax. Also the percentage remains the same for each level of income from labor and capital gains.

One of the main advantages of the flat tax is that it brings reforms and simplification to the fiscal system. The system simplifies the deployment of an equal tax rate for all income by removing all exceptions, and also there are no brackets for calculating all the different levels of income. Actions and time spent on tax calculations are reduced to maximum. We developed countries simplified tax statements in several pages in a simple statement on the size of a postcard (Forbes 2005).

Equality from the flat tax comes from setting an equal tax rate for all. Percentages of taxes placed lower than the actual percentage despite the low level of tax, and the income level of the budget can be increased. Theoretically a low level of tax increases the desire to pay taxes (E. Hall Rabushka A 2007).

Despite what politicians decide as to who will pay more or less, or who will be penalized or favored, the flat tax has a single objective and benchmark. No matter how much income we get, what kind of business we have, percentage of tax will be the same for all.

Flat tax reduces tax avoidance and evasion. A simple tax system reduces the scope for legal tax avoidance, by
removing many deductions, thresholds and anomalies on which most loopholes are based. It also makes enforcement of taxes easier, reducing the possibility of tax evasion. In addition replacing a system of higher rate taxes with a single, low, flat tax rate reduces the motivation for avoidance.

Income tax is a great disincentive to investing, because it not only has to be profitable enough to cover the tax and also to give a return for the investor. It is also a disadvantage to business start-ups and expansions because the tax system is usually more willing to tax profits than to give relief for losses. Increase income of a country by increasing foreign and domestic investments will bring growth and social welfare.

3. Theoretical and practical criticism of the flat tax

At first sight it seems a simple fiscal system, but its implementation in practice is always complex. According to the theory of the flat tax is difficult to implement in practice, especially in developing countries because the economic system itself is complex. Simplification of the system as a whole can be achieved through various other reforms of the flat tax (Weinsbach, DA (2000). This is because of the flat tax simplification is not necessarily linked to the flat tax (Marstin, D. 2005)

Essentially flat tax is regressive. The poor pay proportionately more than the rich, and so undermine the Social Democratic Principle of Richer Helping poorer citizens for the public good. Most of the financial resources owned by the rich, and such inequity is recognized and resented.

The flat tax conducts to an unhealthy fiscal competition among different states. This phenomenon amplifies the migration of the capital and work force. This disadvantage can be eliminated by adopting some harmonization procedures which become absolutely necessary.

The transition to a new system can be complex and costly to begin with, leading to a period of confusion. The ability to discover new means of evasion will always be present, especially during the changeover. They are also inflexible, unlike income taxes where ‘fiscal drag’ and ‘fiscal boots’ act as automatic stabilizers in boom and bust periods respectively (Rose Jacqueline).

Other authors go even further, challenging the ideological basis of the flat tax. The flat tax idea was seen as damaging to the democracy. It is possible to have a flat tax, or to have democracy, but not both (Hettich and Winer 1999). Several authors have reached the conclusion that “flat tax is effectively an attack on the entire social structure in which we live” (Murphy 2006). As is seen as theoretical basis, ideological and practical are controversial. Possible reason is that the arguments for the flat tax based more on rhetoric than on analysis and evidence (M. Keen 2006). There are a lot of good reasons why the country should adopt a flat tax (A. Peichl 2006).

4. Flat tax in developing countries and former communist countries

While in Western Europe continue to debate about flat tax reform, this reform is now a a reality for most ex - communist countries and several developing countries. The first were the Baltic countries, Estonia in 1994 was followed by Lithuania in Latvia 1994 and 1995. Adoption of the flat tax was adopted by other countries after adoption by the Russian Federation in 2001. Since that year back, almost every time, ex-communist country is part of the list of the flat tax.

Exhibit 1. List of countries that have adopted flat tax to year 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Year of reform</th>
<th>Ex-communist</th>
<th>Income tax %</th>
<th>Profit tax %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Jersey</td>
<td>1940</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>1947</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Guernsey</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>1986</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tuvalu</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
First of all states that are listed in the table, two thirds of the countries that have done the flat tax reform are former communist countries and 9 small or very small islands. So with the exception of Iraq and Paraguay, the flat tax reform is carried out either in the former communist countries or micro-states. Secondly, the number of ex-communist countries that have adopted the flat tax reform before 2001 were 8, after 2001, the number of countries that have adopted flat tax almost quadrupled. It seems that the reform in Russia has been the main driver for the performance of this reform. Before we turn into democracies, these countries not had a genuine tax system and social protection (Aslund, A. 2007). This fact shows that they were in very good conditions to carry out this reform than developed countries. Consequently, these countries appear to have been perfect candidates for flat tax experiment (JM Ellis 2011).

Even within the group of former communist countries has changed. Countries that have adopted flat tax before 2001, have had a very high tax level. While countries that have performed reform after 2001 are characterized by much lower levels than before the reform levels, less than 20% (Keen, M. 2006).

There is a simple reason for the flat tax reform adopted by the former communist countries. These countries are generally much smaller than the application of progressive tax will punish you more. Also these countries have a higher administrative Takes and adoption of the flat tax effectively brings.

5. The flat tax and the effectiveness of the fiscal system

Has the system has improved the efficiency of fiscal flat tax adoption in these countries? To answer this question as the comparison base is used in an annual report listing "Paying Taxes" was published by the World Bank in collaboration with the international company PricewaterhouseCooper (PWC) as part of the "Doing Business". The following table presents the ranking by PricewaterhouseCoopers for 5 year progressed fiscal system whose states selected by comparison with other countries. Thick lettering are the years in which the respective state has the PWC climbing in the rankings.

Exhibit 2. Rankings by year of the flat tax reforms
The desire of the former communist countries to adopt flat tax seems to have more connection with the low level of tax than progressive taxation and higher taxes, having a fiscal system that countries with efficient flat taxation and lower taxes. Compared to the PWC report, flat tax countries and those with progressive taxation. There are sites that although meanwhile, a progressive taxation system can be much more efficient than flat tax system. This conclusion is clear when had put new momentum and inconsistencies between the momentum of reform and improvement of the tax system as two issues go together one with another (Marstin, D. 2005). Also the analysis of the former communist countries that specific conditions of their countries.

Which the flat tax might make sense, are states with small populations who are forced to adopt separate flat tax for the former communist countries there is little controversy, but the positive results of the adoption of the flat tax, in general, are disparities which, which provide very strong opposition and questioned the possibility for such a reform in a near future. In economic studies in developed countries show that the adoption of the flat tax creates significant efficiency. Fiscal systems of the former communist countries from 14, only 3 of them have been increasing the efficiency of the fiscal system. A small part of these countries have had very little variation from year to year, and for most of the countries analyzed, the adoption of a flat tax, does not bring improvement in the rankings.

Year after year shows the speed with which it has operated in the flat tax reform the tax system. There are five states that have applied flat tax reform after 2008. With the exception of Bosnia and Herzegovina, any other case, the period of establishing the order does not coincide with the adoption of the reform period. This discrepancy clearly indicates that not necessarily reforming the fiscal system and the adoption of a flat tax go together. In 2012, data from the table note that only Georgia has earned points in the ranking. Kazakhstan can say that I remained in the same order causes as the previous year, while Macedonia has lost points in 2012, has fallen in the rankings. Please note that the number of countries that are taken into consideration by the World Bank in 2012 has increased, 185. Other countries have decreased even more the efficiency of the tax system. Bulgaria, despite modest improvement in the rankings, remains the last country of the EU with regard to time that I needed a business to pay taxes.

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Bosnia Herzegovina</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that in 2008 only fiscal system of Macedonia and Kazakhstan rank better. Bulgarian fiscal system ranks somewhere in the middle. Other rankings of the countries is under 99 and below. Worse appear Belarus and Bosnia Herceegovina. Bad Ranking of countries according to the effectiveness of the tax system shows that these countries have had to reform the fiscal system. The second fact to note from the table is that, even after the adoption of the flat tax, fiscal systems to order many of these countries remain almost the same.

Seen from the exhibit 2, that, in 2011, the fiscal system of Kazakhstan has become even more efficient, ranking even above. Similarly we can say even for Georgia and Macedonia. Only these three countries have been increasing the efficiency in the fiscal system. In Bulgaria we can say that there are improvements, but still remains somewhere in the middle of the order. Fiscal systems of other countries continue to remain towards the end of the sequence. Extreme cases are Ukraine, Belarus and Kyrgyzstan. This fact shows that the adoption of the flat tax for fiscal system efficiency, did not give result in most of the countries. Looking at the chart performance year after year sort of fiscal systems in 14 countries taken into consideration also revealed other facts that support the idea that the flat tax as a reform to increase the efficiency of the fiscal system is not functioning. Fiscal systems of the former communist countries, from 14, only 3 of them have been increasing the efficiency of the fiscal system. A small part of these countries have had very little variation from year to year, and for most of the countries analyzed, the adoption of a flat tax, does not bring improvement in the rankings.

6. Discussions and Recommendations

Despite theoretical advantages recommended by its advocates, flat tax, reform remains the best option to reform the fiscal system. Economic studies in developed countries show that the adoption of the flat tax creates significant disparities which, which provide very strong opposition and questioned the possibility for such a reform in a near future. In former communist countries there is little controversy, but the positive results of the adoption of the flat tax, in general, are absent. Reforms have been a necessity for these countries as their fiscal systems have had a significant lack of efficiency. However the selection of flat tax should not have been the best choice. The above facts show that systems of countries that have proven to be hard for the adoption of the flat tax, remained almost at the same level even after the reform. Even in some cases where even further decrease the efficiency of the tax system. It noted that the rankings have had these countries PWC table, compared with other countries that have progressive taxation. The only countries, for which the flat tax might make sense, are states with small populations who are forced to adopt separate flat tax for the specific conditions of their countries.

Critics of the flat tax conclude that the flat tax and fiscal efficiency of the system, not necessarily are to be regarded as two issues go together one with another (Marstin, D. 2005). Also the analysis of the former communist countries that had put new momentum and inconsistencies between the momentum of reform and improvement of the tax system meanwhile, a progressive taxation system can be much more efficient than flat tax system. This conclusion is clear when compared the PWC report, flat Takes countries and those with progressive taxation. There are sites that although progressive taxation and higher taxes, have a fiscal system that countries with efficient flat taxation and lower taxes. The desire of the former communist countries at to adopt flat tax seems to have more connection with the low level of tax than
the efficiency of the fiscal system. Analysis (Voinea L. 2009) that were made in Romania, show that, a year after the flat tax reform, the poor are poorer and the rich are rich. This analysis confirms the conclusion of Murphy (2006) according to which, a flat tax for the rich so as to avoid their social responsibility by permitting little or no pay and that the state take as little income. I need a full study whether this conclusion applies true in all countries where the flat tax was adopted.

Recommendation for the former communist countries in general, seems to be lifting up from the flat tax and the adoption of a progressive tax system and a system of tax legislative west. Fit the legislature would bring a fiscal system with modern and efficient. Progressive taxation will conduct a fair redistribution of the tax burden between different social groups. State will better function would have more opportunities for social policy and management of the tax system.

References


Denial of the Author's Horizon in the Book "The Winter of Great Lonliness"

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Abstract

"The Winter ...” is a polyphonic novel. A crucial importance in the polyphonic text plays the relationship between the horizon and the character and the one of the author. According to the researcher Mikhail Bakhtin, the author as the carrier of his own idea enters as an orientation among the other orientations in the polyphonic novel. Meanwhile, according to N.F.Alapat, the characters in the novel have maximum freedom, which allows them not only to discuss with each other, but even to the author himself. This means that the author in the polyphonic novel enters with his horizon orientation among the other orientations. In this regard for it is of interest for the polyphonic text to investigate even the relationship of the author's horizon with that of the character in the book "The Winter ..." by Kadare in this regard questions which would need answer would be: 1. In the book "The Winter ..." do we have an author who enters with his orientation as a horizon among the other horizons? 2. If not, then, if the author is only attracted to his creative scheme, which is the stylistic solution of Kadare's in the relations between the author and the character's horizon. By answering these questions first of all, it would emerge the individuality of Kadare in the polyphonic text typology, and secondly, if there is something particular, where and how it is incarnated in the stylistic choices in the book "The Winter ..."

Keywords: polyphonic, author / character's horizon /, individuality, stylistic solutions

In the polyphonic novel, the author, according to Bachtin, “is not required to renounce himself and his conscience” and that “the author as the carrier of his own idea must enter as an orientation among the other orientations” (Bachtin M. 1968) Meanwhile, according to N.F.Alapat, in his paper on the Joice's polyphony, in the polyphonic novel "characters have maximum freedom, allowing them to discuss with each other and even with the author himself” (Alapatt NF 2002). Which implies the same thing, that the author in the polyphonic novel is an orientation among other orientations. In our case, the question about the book "The winter ..." is: do we have in this work the author as "an orientation among the other orientations" and, if so, do we have characters that discuss even "with the author himself”? What do we find, in the text which deals with the relationship between the author and the character's horizon? In the case of Dostoevsky, even though the author is "orientation among the other orientations", the sovereignty of the character, his autonomy, implies the violation of the author's horizon. Here's what does Bakhtin say about this: "the opportunity of the Dostoevsky's character is the opportunity to express through the words his inner self in all its purity, but to listen and show, to be involved in another person's horizon, the laws of the horizon should be violated, because a normal horizon contains the figure of another man, and not a different horizon in its completeness "(Bachtin M, 1968).

Since this is a crucial point in determining the character of polyphonic in "The Winter ...", but it is as well as in the prose of Kadare, researching further. Of course, what interest us are not the stylistic choices of Dostoevsky. Here's what for example says Bakhtin about Tolstoy's prose: "Tolstoy's world is monolithically monologelical; the character's word is closed under the strictness of the author's words. In the word wrapping of the other (the author) it is given even the last word of the character, the hero's consciousness is only one point of his punctual image , and awareness, in essence, is determined by this figure even where, from the thematic perspective, the conscience goes through a crisis and a radical inner transformation "(Bachtin M 1968).

While in Dostoevsky's book: "the author's words oppose the words of the character, which is completely valid and absolutely free of mixtures. It is precisely where the problem arises, the use of the author's word, the problem of his formal and artistic position against the character's word. This problem is deeper than the matters belonging to the author's word as a surface component element or a surface replacement with the Icherzablung form, which are carried out by the narrator's interference, by constructing scenes of the novel and by the author's word reduction in the level of a simple recorder. All these combined methods of disappearance or weakening of the author's word, taken by itself, still does not affect the essence of the problem "(Bachtin M, 1968). Following: " The consciousness as the dominant artistic figure in building the character's figure it also implies a fundamentally new position of the author against the figure presented" (Bachtin M, 1968).
Exactly here lies the essence. So, do we have in “The Winter ...”, a radically new position? If so, how will it be proved in the relations between the author and the character’s horizon? Secondly, do we have to do with methods of reducing or weakening the author's word that does not "affect the essence of the problem"? And further: do we have an author who opposes the character’s word, but that the latter is "absolutely free of mixtures" as in Dostoevsky? Or, beyond that, in the line of the polyphonic novel, we do have an "invisible" author, otherwise, the lack of the author as an "orientation among the other directions." If we have to do with the latter case, i.e. the invisible author, it is obvious that it would be a new position of the author in relation to the polyphonic text, as we always have the author as an orientation or the character who discusses "even with the author ".

In Kadare’s prose and in the book "The Winter ... the character’s perceptions (P) is designed from the bottom up. So after two or three sentences the character appears to prove, that the above sequences come from his perception and not from the author. Let’s see now whether we are dealing with a stylistic feature that characterizes the entire text. Secondly, we will see what happens with the author’s horizon, if we do have a technical violation of the author's horizon or, even more the "disappearance" of the author's horizon. To make this clear we will analyze a few paragraphs from chapter IV:

(The light) "It flowed continuously. It dawn in glass windows, covering everything. You had no place where to hide from it. It would find you where ever you would be under the sheets, under the eaves. / Mira (P1 horizon projection of the character from the bottom up, in the three previous sentences), tried to hide her face under the pillow, but it was not possible. The morning light poured into the room over and over again. Last shadows of sleep, some figures and grotesque humans, shaky, weakened by lighting, were losing their voices, became dumb even with their movements, as in a double recording, now strange voices and noises were ascending. Mira woke up (P2). She (P3), failed to understand what Altin had said earlier. He talked and talked, but the exterminating light constantly fell on his shoulder, melted him, made him more transparent, until in the end it turned him into wind in front of her eyes " (Kadare I.1973).

This is a paragraph, first paragraph, but we have two sequences that disrupt in P1/P2. In the first sequence we have Mira in bed, on awakening, under the effect of light. But the author does not objectify her or her environment, windows, curtains, sun, rays, etc., etc... We have no author’s point of view, which would imply even the "author’s" horizon. All the feelings and senses belong to Mira. So the whole perception comes from her, the character. While the scene that would respond to this perception, its objectification in a full frame, which means a girl who is awoken by the effect of light, it is not built by the "author" but by the reader. Second, climax is noted, increased semantic intensity, as well as rhythmic segmentation of sentences: "flowed / dawnd in glass windows / covering everything / You had no place where to hide from it / it would find you anywhere", etc...In this case, the function of words used in a set of adhesive semantic sequence or repeated anadiplosis, is played by the verbs, headed by the first verb: flow. Then we have: dawn etc... So the intensity of perception corresponds with the climax. However once again we have the character proved and not the "author" in the text. Here we have no monological text proceedings which would weaken the author’s horizon; also there are no violations of the author’s horizon, as in Dostoevsky. P1 in this case is in the function of the "disappearance of the author's horizon." So, in this sequence/aspect we have the character that projects herself from the bottom and up. The "Author" does not exist in any corner of this framework, unless the character appears in P1/P2 / etc.

From the perspective of the “Susrafce” exit, so the exit "to reality" (S), (the effect of the morning light on Mira), this exit is confirmed, somehow it is an exit which is done from / through intrasubjective (Intr) perspective, it comes out through Mira’s horizon. Here we do not have an "author" or his horizon.

Meanwhile, P1: "Mira tried once again to hide her face under the pillow", etc., is the author's horizon, so it is the author who appears in P1 "in reality". But, as we saw, this sentence, apart from the function of introducing the author’s horizon, it also performs the function of exit from the author's horizon in the four previous sentences, so for all the previous sequence. In the other sequence: "the last shadows of sleep" ... as the author's horizon appeared in the previous sentence P1, there’s an opportunity for the author "to move up" and see everything from his horizon.

However, even in this sequence, which is in the sentence, we always have Intr, so intrasubjectivity. Even here, as above, we have the same climax, growing semantic intensification. Immediately after the climax, we have P2: "Mira woke up." This sentence, does not only brings the author’s horizon, but also serves to eliminate any misunderstanding between him and the reader for the climax sequence that comes from Intr, before it, so before the author's horizon. The third sequence (P3-only "that"), which comes immediately after the author’s horizon, the whole one is in Intr. Mira has in her consciousness a dream with Altin, "he spoke and spoke", etc... But here again we do not have an author, the horizon is totally for the character. There is no "objectivity" what would have meant the author's horizon, the dialogue of Mira with Altin in a dream before she woke up, etc., however, the word "dream" never appears.

The framework therefore comes from the character, from Intr while the exit "to reality" of this framework, as in the
first sequence is done by the reader. And precisely in this technique, the disappointment of the readers with the author's horizon in this game of horizons, lays the stylistic essence of the suggestive effect in Kadare's prose. Further, in this sequence we have again the climax, which proves not only the return to the Intr, but also the stylistic unit of the text.

Let's see what happens with the sequences of the second paragraph:

"After all those rainy days, behind the glass it was a clear day. Some light noises were coming from the kitchen. The aunt's bed was empty. (P1): Mira stretched two or three times in bed, then gazed at the ceiling and stood still. (Author's horizon P1 apart from leading us to S / it also has the function to be projected from above, to show us that standpoint from the above sequence comes from the character's horizon. Besides other things we have: "The aunt's bed was empty", i.e. it is Mira's horizon, rather than of the author, in which we would have: Rabo. Altin will repent. (Note the lack of the exclamation mark, therefore we are always in Intr through / from Mira's Intr). This was the only thought that came to her made. (P2, in the same function). Two days ago, Altin without any reason, had insulted her during the long break and she did not speak to him anymore. Maybe he's psycho, Mira said to herself (P3), and, when she returned sideways put her head in her right palm and was looking from the window. (P4 in the same function). From the kitchen and the hallway known morning noises kept coming: the cracking of chairs, steps, the buzz of the electric shaving machine of Besnik" (Kadare I. 1973). (So, from the viewpoint of the character's horizon, Mira).

Let's see what happens in the next paragraph:

"Mira took a deep breath, hung out her feet of the bed and was about to stand up, but at the last minute she stayed. Fasten her knees with her hands, staring at the window. Then moved aside the nightgown a little bit and looked at one of her shoulder. Moved it a bit more. Her shoulder looked beautiful. Her night shirt was long. She raised it and looked at her feet. She should not gain more weight "(Kadare I. 1973).

In this sequence we are in S, "in reality", through the author's horizon. The sentences in italics come from the Intr that means from the character's horizon. There appear no more the stilemes: Mira thought, she said to herself, etc... In this sequence the author's horizon sequence appears at the top of the paragraph, but he aims at the character's horizon, and when the conditions are appropriate for this he just enters the Intr and the appearance comes from the character's horizon. It happens the same in the following paragraph:

"Suddenly jumped at her feet full of joy and, jumping through the hallway, entered into the toilet.
- Hold on a second-Mira, - said Besnik without turning his head from the mirror.
- Why don't you shave in your room? - She said.

Here we are in reality, but it is aimed character's horizon ("without turning his head from the mirror, so how Mira sees it). Meanwhile, this dialogue happens in reality, and meanwhile performs its function, creates the conditions for the transition to the character’s Intrasubjectivity).  
Here's what we have below:

"Her maroon eyes, soft and a little tailed, which gave her look a tinge of pleasant cunning, especially when they looked sideways, appeared in the mirror next to the face of Besnik, which had an unnatural strain, as the face of any man who is shaving himself. (All this sequence comes from Intr, it is a narcissistic female gameM.D.). She showed her tongue to her brother and then began to hit him at his back with her fist "(Kadare I.1973).

Here below, again we have a dialogue, which performs the same function, a transition of the character in Intr, so in his horizon:

(P1): "When Mira went into the kitchen, her father and her aunt were silent sitting on the sofa. Her father was pale in the face. It was obvious that he has had problems with his health again. Besnik was talking to a doctor on the phone. The father needed another check-up "(Kadare I. 1973).

The words in italics are in the Interindividuality//Intersubjectivity: Mira-her father. But in this case we lack stilemes like: Mira thought, to her the father seemed pale etc., etc... And in the sentence “Besniku was talking” etc., author's stilemes were missing, and this is what it would be normal in monological text: Mira turned her head and saw Besnik etc...

So, we have another case where the author's horizon creates conditions for the destruction of the author's horizon within a sequence.

The text proceeds in the same way in the three other paragraphs. The author goes "to reality" or passes in P only
to the extent that he needs to eradicate his horizon. Now let's see how the author comes out of a character's horizon to enter a different character's horizon. We are in the last paragraph of Mira's horizon. And here's what we have:

"After twenty minutes Besnik and the father left. (So we are in "reality", regarding Mira's horizon: the father, not Struga, what would have been from the author's horizon). Ben went to the kitchen (always from Mira's horizon, is the character who sees, not the author). – Why didn't you ask where did they go? - said angrily her aunt. (Always Mira's horizon: aunt). Ben didn't know what to say. The phone rang. It was Tori. (Again Mira's horizon: didn't know what to say). -Hello, Ben. Is it you? (Passing to the horizon of another character, Ben. The author does not intervene to clarify that Ben took the receptor and was listening to Tori etc.. etc.. So there is an immediate transition from Mira's horizon to that of Ben, although we are "in reality" and not in the consciousness of the character). - Well, - said Ben. (P1. in this case, only "said Ben"). Well, he is sweet-talking me, he thought. (It is obvious that the author's horizon appears only in "he thought"). Neta. Diri. Mariana. Not a word about Monda, she is different to him. He tastes her in loneliness. A cavalier relishes in solitude and keeps silent, repeated to himself a phrase overhead in a cafe. A dog too, he added after a little while "(Kadare I. 1973).

As seen from Mira's horizon, we move to the Ben's. The author appears to a minimum extend, "said Ben, he thought, he added," just to prove that we are on the horizon of his character. In "he sweet-talks ... Neta, Diri, Mariana, we are in the Interindividuality through /from Intersubjectivity. We can note again the climax here: cavalier / dog. In this case, the semantic point of view in, "cavalier" "dishonorates' in the word-group "relish in solitude", which creates conditions for semantic association with "dog", as a semantic intensification to serve as a climax.

We've seen how "in reality" the character's horizon dominates. We've also seen how, without the mediation of the author, it is passed from a character's horizon to the horizon of another one. We selected a chapter randomly, but could get any of them. The stylistic unit of the text has never been doubted in Kadare's prose / poetry. We are just considering, different chapters from different angles and point of views to approach the polyphonic text.

Conclusion: Even "in reality" dominates the character's horizon which comes directly from the Interindividuality through / from Intersubjectivity

The author's horizon is in a minimum extend, but when it appears, it appears to deny themselves, thus to help in its disappearance. In relation to Bakhtin polyphonic text, in Kadare's there is no author as "an orientation among the other orientations." This means that the author is not in a separate line in the polyphonic text nor has its own tone. Second, the "voices" in the polyphony of "The Winter" ... but not only, are just characters. Therefore, and tone of the text is polyphonic, heterogeneous. Above, we've seen the author's horizon in his alternation from "the reality" into the consciousness of the character, so in the function of marking the character's horizon. While, in the alternation of Consciousness / Reality, i.e. in the dominant in selfconscience, it is interesting to investigate stylistic choices which mark the exit to reality. More specifically, exits in reality are made from the character's horizon of or the author's?

We are always on. Chapter IV. We've seen how the transition is done from Mira's horizon to that of Ben. On p. 67, there is another transition through a dialogue from Ben's horizon, to the aunt's horizon: "Come on, come and have breakfast. Here's your egg. (Aunt, Rabo). Ben ate standing. Then he put on his jacket and left" (Kadare I.1973). It is noted that the author does not objectifies the sequence. So there is no: Ben sat down, took the plate etc... etc... That would be if we would have the author's horizon of the monological text. So we would have the "real" time. But, "Ben ate standing", etc., comes from Rabo's horizon. It's her who sees Ben eating and putting on his jacket and leaves. About this thing, there are only two sentences which are segmented because we are in Rabo's psychological time. This segmentation is a characteristic of Kadare's work, a segmentation that is conditioned by his creative schemes. And obviously that has nothing to do with segmentation, for example in Hemingway's prose. In two sentences it is mentioned what impresses Rabos, the way she sees and records in her memory, the fact that Ben "ate standing" and that he put on his jacket. In this case, the real-time is built by the reader, not the author. And here's what we have, later: "Ben got out":

"They left; she said to herself and sat down on the couch where Struga usually used to sit " (Kadare I.1973). We have: they left, said to herself - the author's horizon that comes to deny itself, which is obvious in where Struga usually used to sit. (Just as the aunt says to the brother,) So, we do not only have the stileme, "she said to herself" to make the transition from V, through the I, but also the marking of the object as it is seen by character. It follows:

"The refrigeration was making a monotonous babble. The book with memories of the war was on it. Recently, when she remained alone in the mornings, she put on the old glasses, opened the book and read a page here and there "(Kadare I.1973).

At the "refrigerator ... we have still to do with the character's horizon, it is him who separates the refrigerator, the environment, the babble, and the book. The full scene is lacking precisely because we are in the Rabo's horizon. And the
exit "in reality", "recently is made by Rabo's horizon and not by the author's, we are in her consciousness, in Intr. Below we are still in Intr: "It took her a long time to accept the thought that in a book's lines there can be extended past days, the killed people, different voices, war debris, streets with rain, thunder ", (Kadare I.1973). As it is always seen in Intr in "the lines of a book." The association / associations that metaphorize Kadare's prose come from there, thus from the character's world and from his horizon. And we have “thought that in a book's lines there can be extended past days, the killed people, different voices” etc. At the same time we have the increasing enumeration which ends with "thunder" and helps in producing the climax. Then we have a sequence of associations, as they come in Intr, always through the lines of a book, "To her it seemed that the lines of a book were like those of wool yarn and ... the wool before being spinned, it needed to be softened first, it was like maze" ...

It is the same metaphorization that comes from associations. Then, (but now maze): " That maze was full of whispers, thoughts, words, spleen and human spirit" ... You should make it to the end in these kind of associations, furthermore there are these associations which constrain the length of paragraphs: "Dead threads , dried , where events, villages, winters were squeezed "(Kadare I.1973). The other paragraph follows "in those endless lines ... the hope that between them she would find any familiar name" ... "There were there, two or three lines below and she almost wondered how they had not called her, had not made a sign since earlier "(Kadare I.1973).

We are therefore in Interindividuality through / by Intersubjectivity, which creates conditions that names in the book, in Rabo's consciousness become people.

In conclusion we can say that the author's horizon, that in Kadare's work comes out through the marking of the character in a given moment, it also appears to deny itself. This stylistic choice makes Kadare unique in relation to the characterization of polyphonic text in Bachtin, Alapat etc. Thus it appears that in Kadare’s books we do not have the author as "an orientation among the other orientations." Thus, Kadare has sent the principle of polyphony to its peak. Which means that the author "disappears" in Kadare’s work and it can be detected only in his creative scheme. This withdrawal of the author in his creative scheme is unique in the twentieth century fiction.

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Tradition and Transition of Malaysian Society across Time

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Abstract

Tradition is a ritual, belief or subject passed down within a society. They illustrate the identity of a society, and it is still maintained until today. Polemic appears generally when tradition is urged within time frame, where it eliminates the flow of tradition from older generation to present generation. Tradition is an asset of society which is related with ancient history therefore invented on purpose. Transition in tradition that took place in Malaysian context begins when British Colonial brings in migrants from India and China to work in Malay Federation which eventually formed a multiracial society in Malaysia. Malaysian society has undergone many phases of situation either political or policy change within the state that lead to culture accommodation among different ethnics. Acculturation also took place whereby the difference or uniqueness of a culture is combined with another cultures from different ethnic. The time frame had been the most prominent factor for the overall changes in the world.

Keywords: tradition, transition, accommodation, acculturation, time, culture

1. Introduction

The competing European powers, painfully aware of the need for an open trade route to India and the Far East, sought to establish their own trading ports at the source. In 1511, Portuguese colonized Malacca and its golden age had come to an end. The Portuguese constructed a massive fort in Malacca A’ Famosa and which later captured by Dutch about 16th century. This would give the Dutch an almost exclusive lock on the spice trade until 1785, then the British East India Company colonized Malay Nation about 200 years. British enable to capture Malay Nation through internal factors such as Malay Kingdom Conflicts, Pirate attacks and others meanwhile the external factors will be the Industrial Revolution, Fights among the colonial countries and so on. Today’s Malaysia successfully transformed as a multiracial nation and beautiful paradise which also been home for hundreds of colourful festivals, foods, beliefs and others. It’s undeniable that Malaysian love celebrating and socializing. Geographically, Malaysia is almost as diverse as its culture. Malaysia is considerably a small country consist of eleven states and two federal territories (Kuala Lumpur and Putrajaya) in Peninsular Malaysia which are separated by the South China Sea from East Malaysia which includes two states (Sabah and Sarawak on the island of Borneo) and a third federal territory, Labuan.

2. Terminology

According to The American Heritage® Dictionary of the English Language, Fourth Edition, Tradition defined as a belief or story relating the past that are commonly inherited and established through verbal transmission from one generation to another generation. Tradition is an important identity that describes a society briefly. Culture, Symbol, Language, Values,
Norms, Gestures are main component of a tradition that strictly uphold by each society and accept it as a path of life. Cultures are the ideas, customs, and social behavior of a particular people or society and different society have different cultures as stated in Oxford Online Dictionary. Culture also defined as the beliefs, values, behavior, material objects shared by a particular people. But, culture involves more than simply adding up all the ways people act and think, and assessing the sum of their possessions, (Soyinka 1991). Symbols are acts or objects that have come to be socially accepted as standing for something else. They come to represent others things through the shared understandings people have. Symbols can be in the form of tangible items or intangible items. Language is the verbal code that has been introduced long times ago and has been an important factor of society continuity. The language has been important tools to translate, interpret and analyze the verbal communication among humans. The early languages that exist in the world would be Sanskrit, Arabic and others. Values are an important aspect in all the society. Values reflect the characteristics of the society in general and also representing a society's identity to others in the aspect of behaviour. Norms can be defined as informal guidelines on what are correct and wrong attitudes in a particular social group. Norms is collective expectations and play a key part in social control by exerting a pressure on the individual to conform. A gesture is a movement of body to express an ideas or attitudes. It is also something said or done by way of formality or symbolic action which can be interpreted by others in a communication process. Some anthropologists claim that no gesture is universal. They point out that even nodding the head up and down to indicate ‘Yes’ is not universal, because some parts of the world, such as areas of turkey, nodding the head up and down mean ‘No’ (Ekman et. Al 1984) [4]

3. Literature Review

‘Transition in Malaysian Society and Politics: Toward Centralizing Power’ article written by Michael Leigh and Belinda Lip emphasize on physical transition that occurs in Malaysia. This article elaborates further on transition in identity where Malaysia as a single ethnicity nation become multiracial nation and the purpose of New Economy Plan (NEP) introduced to stabilize the equality between ethnics. The writer also talks about transition in education and language where education plans, school system and national language act. Other than that, Transition in economy from agriculture sector to service sector was mentioned in findings. Finally, this article focused on the transition in politics, government and leadership that took place in Malaysia. The book ‘Ethics and Social Stratification in Peninsular Malaysia’ by Charles Hirschman, Department of Sociology, Duke University also studied about society and transitions in few chapters. The authors used descriptive argument with supportive statistical evidence presenting the ethnics composition. This book also touched a bit on intermarriage, assimilation, diffusion process apart from the main discussion which is occupation structure in Malaysia. Zawawi Ibrahim in his article ‘Globalization and National Identity: Managing Ethnicity and Cultural Pluralism in Malaysia’ defined plural society has been formed in Malaysia due to colonial history. He also briefly discussed about challenges that has to be faced on globalization and retaining the originality of cultures. He also used a term ‘Ethicizing Capitalism’ which refers to British government who bring in foreign labours to maximize the revenue from Malaysia and at last caused Malaysia to be a multiracial nation. Abdul Rahman Embong in his book ‘The Culture and Practice of Pluralism in Postcolonial Malaysia’ mainly discussed on Macro-Pluralism that been reality in Malaysia through colonial history. He also touched about new economic alignment, realignment in social and ethno-religious spheres, under privilege minority ethnics in Malaysia.

4. Methodology

The methodology applied in this research is direct observation, natural ethnography and conceptual framework. Direct observation is done for long-term by collecting the qualitative data to complete this paper and this purely supported through natural ethnography. Writers stay closed or immersed with the discussed society and this is how conceptual framework methodology used in this research.

5. Research Findings

5.1 Ecology Theory

This is an important theory to study the existence of a society and their history background on the transition impacts within the society. Ecology theory basically discussed that a simple society became complex society throughout time frame. The society transform from primitive society to modern industrial society. This transformation occur because the needs of biological substances, economic maintenance, psychosocial functions and also interaction with the environment.
This applied in Malay Land where people evolve from traditional society in Melaka Kingdom, Colonization period and transform to modern society after Malaysia achieves independency.

5.2 Conflict Theory

This theory was introduced by Karl Marx, Father of Philosophy. This theory states that a society tend to change due to the conflict exists within the society. These conflicts exist in the sense of functionalism in a social group. At early stage of society evolution there is no specific role and function for individual or a body to perform a specific task, this finally cause failure in society structure and systems. Karl Marx argue that specific functions need to be determined correspond towards the needs of a society so that the overall society's routine life goes smoothly. Conflict theory has develop the needs of specialization in human functions to enable the society structure perform well. This happen everywhere includes Malaysia, human capital function more specialized across time and this cause various industry specialist expand throughout the world include Malaysia. This aligns with conflict theory where a conflict of functionalism happens and these create a new function to ensure the society routine system goes smooth.

6. Factors that Cause Social Transition in Malaysia

6.1 Colonial History

British stayed as most prominent colonist because there are a lot of changes took place in Malay Land during their colonization era. Firstly, British import labour from India and China to work in tin mines and rubber plantation sectors. This is the initial cause of many social changes that took place in Malay Land later on. British generated high economic profit through highly intensive mining activities by using foreign cheap labours. At the end of colonization, British offered foreign labours to go back their own countries but some decided to just stay in Malay Land and this at last formed a multiracial society in Malaysia.

6.2 Multiracialism

History and geography have collaborated to make Malaysia truly known as multi-racial country. These also mean that there are many ethnics living together and share their norms, language, culture, tradition and others. Malaysia consists of various ethnic people roughly about 60 ethnics groups are living together. Malaysian population currently stands at around 26 million, Multiracial and multi religious describes the totality of Malaysian society. Besides the local Malays and the native groups, immigrants from China, India, Indonesia and other parts of the world have all contributed to the multiracial composition of its population. Its interesting cultural diversity can be largely attributed to the country's long and on-going interaction with the outside world and past colonial rule by the Portuguese, Dutch and the British. Consequently the evolution of the country into a cultural melting pot is evident in the unique blend of religions, socio-cultural activities and traditions, dressing, languages and food.

6.3 Diffusion

Diffusion of society occurs where tangible cultures will be immersed in other societies. In Malaysia, Diffusion occurs in various components of cultures and daily routines. This process is occurred through two methods naturally which is adaption and adoption. Adoption is defined as a process of adapt the entire culture or tradition of one society to another society due to the suitability, needs, preference and contacts within the societies. Geographical factor is important for a culture to be adopted whereby a much nearer society to another will easily adopt the culture because they will have almost the same culture with some small differences. On the other hand, Adaption is something related with adoption where as an initial stage society will adopt a suitable culture from external societies and adapt it as their tradition with some modification according to the society needs. Sociologist Talcott Parsons (1966) shared the view that as societies change, they became more complex. Parsons believe that growing complexity is functional because it is basically an adaption mechanism, a response to internal and external forces changes.

6.4 Modernity

Modernity is defined as modern lifestyle of nowadays society has an high impact on customs and tradition. This is
because the mentality of people change across time, People might think some of their tradition is ridiculous or meaningless. Modernity also caused a lot of changes on originality of a tradition, where people tend to amend the tradition practices to suit their current preferences and lifestyle. Modernity also caused also of ritual and process in tradition been eliminated due to time consuming factors and easy access through better communication system. Modern society is built along the enhancement of technology from time to time which enables people to transform the practicability of a tradition as their own way. William Ogburn (1964) observed that technology moves quickly, generating new elements of material culture (Like test-tube babies) and outpacing nonmaterial (such as idea about parenthood). Ogburn called this inconsistency culture lag, disruption in a culture system resulting from the unequal rates at which different culture elements change. In Malaysia, Modernity begins from the era of fourth Prime Minister Mahathir Mohamed who also known as ‘Father of Modernity’ in Malaysia. During his period, He brings up a lot of drastic changes to achieve a modern country status for Malaysia. Privatization, liberalization in service sectors, Intensive construction and development caused Malaysia achieve modernity status in short while. This has direct impact on people in the sense of education, social status, income appraisal, modern cultures and others. Today, Malaysia literacy rate is 92.5% and has been announced as second best country among ASEAN countries. Education caused people think in modern way and only apply the logic practices in their life which also include a sense making customs or tradition only.

6.5 Inequality

Inequality doesn’t exist in modern Malaysia; this factor may exist in traditional society before independency era where they believe that only man is entitled for the economic and education development. Women only serve as domestic servant for household which mean only serve as a wife and mother in a house. This mentality has been changed from time to time where now more female students are educated and working in professional sectors. Now, 70% of university students are female and many high scale corporate head is filled by women. This totally eliminated the traditional believe on women needs and capabilities, at last eliminate the gender discrimination.

6.6 Immigration

Net Immigration in Malaysia is about 0.37 migrant(s)/1,000 population and this increases from time to time. Foreign labour is needed for industrial purpose and this has been started since the British Colonization eras. Nowadays, Immigration happens where foreign Labour such as from India, Indonesia, Burma, Philippines decided to stay at Malaysia after finish their contract term of employment. They prefer to stay in Malaysia because more safe and peace and this finally caused them applied for permanent resident status to stay in Malaysia for life long. Finally, these lead to a domination of foreign citizen in Malaysia especially from Asia countries. This lead to new cultures transmitted into Malaysia through food, costumes, cultures, routines of the migrants which later on will be adaption by Malaysian in the process of maintaining the unity of the nation.

6.7 Globalization

Globalization is an important concept to be reviewed where many traditions changed through the uniting world process and now we can call our world as ‘Global Village’. Today, we can see that world is borderless and this enable peoples all around the world to share their norms and cultures. Malaysia well known as Heaven of Food and the tropical ecosystem make it a perfect tourism location. This caused the internal cultures to be immersed to the outside world and external cultures to be adapted indirectly within the local communities from time to time. This adaption process will be going on naturally as there is sharing processes happening mutually due to open-minded mentality of today’s Malaysian.Durkheim’s stated that societies evolve from mechanical society, characterized by sameness, to organic solidarity, characterized by diversity.Durkheim also believed that changes occur as a result of internal and external pressures, such as population growth or cross-cultural contacts. According to Durkheim, societies ideally achieve a state of equilibrium or balance, until some internal or external pressure prompts change. Malaysian Government liberalization on education systems has allowed a lot of foreign students to pursue their studies in Malaysia, this lead to an immersion of western or external cultures in the sense of attire, gestures, communication styles, language and others.

6.8 Marriage

Marriage is a form a social alignment and it is a formal constitution in a society. Marriage is a need in a society to
continue their existence through biological process. Sharing of love and care also contributed marriage. In early history of Malaysia, the marriage is within the ethnic groups and there is many rules to be followed. But, nowadays mix-marriage is a common things in Malaysia where Malay married Indian become Indian-Muslim, Chinese married Malay become Chinese-Muslim, Chinese married Indian became Chindian. Besides that, there are marriages between Malaysian and foreigner took place either with immigrant labour or western people. These lead to drastic change in marriage and family constitution. Diversity of society became more complex from time to time.

7. Aspect of Transition

7.1 Diversity and Transition in Ethnic

Today the Malays, make up Malaysia's largest ethnic group. This ethnic became a major ethnic which reach more than 50% of the entire population. In Malaysia, the term Malay refers to a person who practices Islam and Malay traditions and speaks the Malay language. Their conversion to Islam from Hinduism and Buddhism began when the Sultan of Melaka embraced it in the 14th Century. They are known for their good mannerisms.

The second largest ethnic group is the Malaysian Chinese which about 25% of the population. Mostly descendants of Chinese immigrants during the 19th century, they mainly brought to Malay Federation by British to work in Mining areas. Chinese ethnic consist of few sub-ethnics such as Hokkien, Teochew, Hakka and others. Mandarin is widely spoken among the communities and it is used as formal language in Chinese schools. The Chinese are known for their diligence and keen business sense.

The Indians constitute 10% of the Malaysian population. Indian People were brought by British to Malay Federation to serve in rubber estates mainly during British colonial times. They speaks Tamil and mainly following Hindus religions. The Punjabi speaking Sikh community in Malaysia owes its beginnings in the country to the British connection and in particular with the recruitment of Sikhs for the paramilitary and police units in the 1870s and onwards.

Peranakan, Baba-Nyonya and Straits Chinese are terms used for the descendants of the very early Chinese immigrants (15th century) to the Nusantara region, including both the British Straits Settlements of Malaya and the Dutch-controlled island of Java among other places, who have partially adopted Malay customs in an effort to be assimilated into the local communities.

The Chitty are a distinctive group of Tamil people found mainly in Malacca, who are also known as the Indian Peranakans. Historical records stated that the Tamil traders from Panai in Tamil Nadu settled down in Malacca during the sovereignty of the Sultanate of Malacca. Like the Peranakans, they later freely intermingled with the local Malays and Chinese settlers.

They also known as Eurasians, they are the descendants of the Portuguese who arrived in Melaka in 1511, coming from Goa, India. Upon arrival from Goa, they built settlements and married the locals.

Orang Asli means Original People. These indigenous ethnic groups are found in both East and West Malaysia. Dayak, Bidayuh, Iban is among the indigenous ethnic exist in Sarawak state and Kadazan, Bajau, Murut in Sabah State.

7.2 Diversity and Transition in Religion

Islam is generally practiced in Malaysia and recognize as formal religion of Malaysia. The Malaysian government promotes a moderate version of Islam which is meant to encourage a balanced approach to life and looking outwards. The qualities it values are knowledge, hard work, honesty, good administration and efficiency. Colonization effect is
prominent in diversity of religion which practice in Malaysia. Firstly, many Malaysian Chinese practice a mixture of Buddhism, Confucianism, and Daoism and for many Chinese people, religion is an essential part of their cultural life. Besides that, majority Tamil population of Malaysia practice Hinduism, some is practising Telegu and Malayalam cultures. The Sikh community in Malaysia owes its beginnings in the country to the British connection and in particular with the recruitment of Sikhs for the paramilitary and police units which formed the nucleus from which the modern police and military forces of the nation derived. Early international trade played a key role in bringing Christianity to Malaysia. Churches were established in the area with the coming of the Portuguese in 1511, the Dutch in 1641 and the British in 1786. Animism is practiced by the indigenous people all around Malaysia who believe on nature power and pray the land, sun, other nature existence as their god.

Source: Department of Statistics Malaysia

7.3 Diversity and Transition in Language

Malay Language is originated from Sumatra and named as BahasaMelayu, is the national language of Malaysia, Indonesia and Brunei. BahasaMelayu also has words borrowed from some countries such as Arabic, Sanskrit, Tamil, Persian, Portuguese, Dutch, and some Chinese dialects. There are altogether ten dialects of Malay. Chinese Language is generally spoken by the Chinese in Malaysia, but Hokkien is the biggest Chinese dialect in the country, followed by Cantonese, Teochew, Fuzhou, Hainanese and Foochow. However, Mandarin is the formal language for Chinese and used as Chinese education medium language. The majority of Indians in Malaysia are Tamil Language and this is the main language in Indian Language. Other Indian languages in Malaysia are Telugu, Malayalam, Hindi, Punjabi and others. Young generation of Indians have started mixing Malay and English words with their respective dialects. English Language is widely spoken in Malaysia and English is actively known as a second language. In Malaysia, it is easy to live in urban by only speaking the English language. Business and General Examinations in Malaysia is conducted in English. The language spoken by the Peranakans, Baba Malay, is a mixture of Bahasa Malaysia and Hokkien is known as Peranakan Language. Unfortunately, not many speak this language anymore. The older generations still maintain the use of this language, but the younger generation has replaced Baba Malay with English. In addition to the languages discussed above, some people in East Malaysia speak Jakulban (Iban), Coastal Kadazan (Kadazan), Bajau, Kelabit, Bidayuh and Kayan. These languages are considered East Malaysian Languages. Manglish is English with influences from the Malay, Chinese and Indian language. It is a unique dialect of English in Malaysia. For example, the use of ‘lah’, ‘meh’ is commonly used filler words and exclamations such as ‘cabinet’ (escape) and ‘fuyoh’ (exclamations of amazement) are considered Manglish. BahasaRojak which translates into mixed ‘languages,’ refers to the Malaysian way of mixing languages when speaking. For instance, a person will start off speaking Bahasa Malaysia, and branch out into English, with some Chinese and Indian language, or Manglish words thrown in. Example, "You memanggilarbetullar" - "You are really mad", is a mix of English, Malay and Manglish.
8. Conclusion

Tradition has been change in Malaysia for many reasons as discussed above. Multi-racial, multi-religious and multi-lingual is the result of British colonization in Malaysia. This directly has impact on population composition and diversity of traditions within the newly formed multi-racial society. Culture assimilation, culture combination, culture adaption, culture adoption keep on occurs which finally formed unity within Malaysian society who shares the values and norms of each other in a respectful manner. In Malaysia, The modernity and globalization brings up a new phases of tradition where Malaysian assimilated with Asia and Global cultures. This will be an interesting topic to be reviewed by coming scholars where there is a lot more to be exposed on the transition in tradition that occurs not only in Malaysia but worldwide. Other than that, the social conflict and unity alignment across history as multi-racial nation in Malaysia also will be an interesting topic to study in future.

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Fiscal Policy, Taxes and Their Impact on Economic Development

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Abstract

The paper presents comparisons of fiscal policy - tax amongst different countries. Many developed countries and developing countries have used fiscal policy Tax-oriented to develop the economy. Taxes transition in the Western Balkan countries is oriented reforms modeled according to three main priorities: 1- Simplification of the tax system, 2- Establish transparency and clear procedures and 3- Safety that the legislation has being implemented fairly. Increasing taxes is intended to increase budget revenues can often be self-defeating and that public authorities should limit contributions to social insurance funds in order to stimulate job creation and development of small and medium. At the same time, some transition countries have embraced fiscal policy as a potential tool for attracting foreign direct investments in the country. Taxes (fiscal policy) have their importance to the need for improved the projected benefits of the field in stimulating and building profitable economic sectors. States through the tax impact on attracting foreign investment and increase employment of the population as is the case of Slovakia in attracting Hyundai to invest offering low taxes and the tax holiday period. Tax legislation is such an area. A second perspective about the ability of governments is to use taxes in order to encourage more business. Some new countries acceding EU taxes are reduced to a level such that the older members are talking about "unfair competition". The case of Slovakia has established a single quote for income tax (19%) mimicking the pattern in which the Baltic countries have experimented for years. Corporate taxes are also lower in countries such as Poland and Hungary. Another example Austria, has decided to develop similar policies in order to stem a possible removal of the capital. Although national fiscal policies represent a wide range of variation within the EU. European Union and competitive area best in the world in terms of knowledge-based economy reinforces this fear (capital flight). It may be only a matter of time before the European Commission in Brussels to deal with the definition of "rules" intended to administer tax competition within the EU.

Keywords: fiscal policies, taxation, economic development, tax comparisons.

1. Introduction

1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to present the impact of "fiscal policy - taxes on economic development" (Kosovo case) this idea has come to our everyday motif and its direct and indirect impact on our society and in our vicinity. The importance of fiscal policy affects economic development and orientation of a country, stimulates the development of local business and attracting investors made different from the outside. But when economic development are important is the implementation or application of these policies in practice by eliminating various bureaucracies of the unnecessary, using the lower tax rate and providing reassurance to capital investors, creating facilities for arranging the necessary documentation for business etc. Switching systems from a centralized economy to a free market economy or phase transitions in many countries of Europe and the world have shown that there are difficulties with which their faces almost every society in transition. However, in those countries where state or government reacted quickly to establish fiscal policies, sound development policy stimulus phase transition has been easier and more efficient control and has been given the expected results. The awareness of the population to be repaid various obligations to the state, the development of small and medium enterprises in the employment of population decrease extreme poverty where are delayed while these policies have continued problems and poverty is increasing.

Therefore, taking into account the economic circumstances fiscal policy and the development of market economy in our country have made the selection of this topic in order to give my contribution to this discussion topic.

The economic development of a country or society based on the experience of economically developed countries and developing ones, has shown that for the market to develop the economy should be compiled and implemented fiscal policies favorable to business in order to attract investment and creating investment security,( Komoni, 2008). The key
question is how to develop the country approaching favorable fiscal policies and developmental? Methodology- that I will use to give answer to this question is to compare the tax rates of the developed countries and those in developing compared with tax rates in Kosovo. The paper will be divided into two parts: The first part will explain, 1) fiscal policy in some countries, their tax rates as countries with economies former centralized system, and now with open market economy, what tax rates are used to develop their country and have attracted foreign investors to invest in their country? 2) The role and purpose of fiscal policy in economic development of a country, the second part of this theme will address the transition in Kosovo from 1999 to 2010(Nimani, 2010).


1.2 Fiscal policy in countries with economies in transition

Bearing in mind that we said above, in various European countries and the Balkan can often say that the country's fiscal policies have developed the site or have hindered economic development (the former socialist countries with planned economies or centralized). Now, I will present some examples of some countries which have made major reforms and successful in economic development. Countries like Poland, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Hungary, Lithuania and similar, have been more successful in reforming the tax system and tax administration have a more advanced legitimacy that enables efficient implementation of tax laws and have reached a higher degree of economic development, which offered approximately Western European countries (Artan Nimani,2010,p44). Transition countries have followed different paths in the selection of the tax structure and the importance given to a particular tax. Countries with more advanced and better-prepared tax administration, tax system have selected that resembles EU countries. This comes because of the efforts of these countries to meet the basic principles of the EU and the harmonization of the tax system with that of the EU. Another example, Poland since June 1993, turnover tax was replaced with VAT where the VAT law allows three tax rate: 22%, 7% and 0%. On acquisition of enterprises paid taxes of 40%, which provided certain relief for those enterprises realized profits to re-invest. In personal income tax, apply three tax rates: 21%, 33% and 45% depending on the level of revenue try to realize these are good examples of practice and taking as a model in case of need, and if they have access to practical development in these countries, to be implemented and to us. Also, apply different excise on fuel, alcoholic beverages, tobacco, weapons, vehicles, ships, electrical goods, etc. Another example in the Czech Republic, face the same taxes, which differ only in their scales. Profit tax rate is 35% and the reduced rate of 25%, which applies to profits from the basic pension and investment funds for income derived from the distribution of profits. Personal incomes, depending on their level of yearly, apply the tax rate: 15%, 20%, 25%, 32% and 40%. VAT has 2 steps, 22% for goods, 5% for services. In Bulgaria, the profit tax, the enterprise has two levels 27% and 20%, where the reduced rate applies to those companies that have lower profit than 25,000 Euro. Local tax rate is 10%. Personal income tax is scalable, depending on annual income level is: 0%, 20%, 26%, 32% and 40%. The main burden of social insurance contributions, employers keep paying wages 34.7%, while employees pay only 1%. Employers also pay 3.5% in the unemployment fund. In Bulgaria since 1999, VAT applies to the unique degree of 20%, excluding gold imports made only by central banks taxed at a rate of 0%.

In Croatia, is introduced VAT with a single rate of 22% with the exception only of some goods like bread, milk, literature, some herbs, plants similar to that applied rate 0%(Artan Nimani, 2010 p44,45,46).

In Albania, the tax applies to companies with large profit of 30%, except where tourism rate is 40% and companies that exploit oil and gas which pay 50%. In Albania, characteristic are numerous exemptions and exceptions for investment in productive sectors. Personal income tax is scalable depending on annual income level and varies from 0%, 5%, 10%, 15% and 20%. Contributions to social and health insurance paid by the employer as (32.5% and 1.7%) and the employee (10% and 1.7%), while the value added tax (VAT) is 20%. Viewing practices of various countries where we have some interesting hypotheses as low tax rates, to tax breaks as is the case with Slovakia which the above mentioned where unless you use single rate of tax of 19% using the policies tax break. Slovakia is a good example where the competition is very strong with the developed countries such as: Germany, Austria, etc. Hyundai investment gain. Kosovo started from the region has lower taxes where VAT rate is at 16%, whereas in corporate tax rate is 10% in tax, we pay 0%, 4% to 8%, 5% employer pension contributions 5 % employee, 10% tax on rent, etc., (Sabahudin Komoni 2008,p129). But it was in Kosovo and in Albania can say is problematic still is the safety of law enforcement impartial what affects inhibit the growth of foreign investment to investors. (Nr.03/L-22 Law, 2011)
1.3 Fiscal policy, their role and purpose

Given the literature but also general knowledge know that the leadership role of the state in economic fiscal policy is undisputed, the orientation of economic development, the implementation of market stability and prices, employment, the preservation of equilibrium of the balance of payments and the implementation of certain degree of economic growth and development. In the context of economic policy, fiscal policy is one of the most important components. Policy determined by the principles under which any action must be guided, as the measures and means to achieve certain goals. Economic Policy, examines the economic processes, instruments, measures and decisions of the government to realize its goals.

State or local authorities are carriers of economic policy that affect the selection and orientation as well as its implementation. These state or municipal authorities define different forms of regulation and knowingly in the direction of economic processes (Komoni, 2010). During the process of setting economic policy should first set its goals.

As key economic policy purposes, we can list these:

- Full employment,
- Price stability
- Adjusting the balance of payments,
- Expansion of production - economic growth,
- Allocations
  - The allocation of factors of production (including the promotion of domestic competition, coordination, increase their workforce and mobilizing capital in the country, as well as promoting international division of labor),
  - Satisfying public needs (administrations, defense, education, culture, science, health, etc.).

The greater the number of goals and their full implementation is difficult. Based on reports, divide among themselves the goals of the purposes of independent, complementary and conflicting. Very few economic policy purposes are independent among themselves, so that the realization of an intention not to affect performance of another. Economic policy goals are complementary to the realization of a goal affects the achievement of another goal. Conflicting goals of economic policy are whether the realization of a goal makes it difficult or hinders the achievement of another goal. To realize the goals of economic policy tools used certain instruments respectively with the help of which goals are realized.

Economic policy instruments are usually classified into the following groups:

- Public finance instruments (fiscal policy)
- Instruments of monetary-credit policy;
- Instruments of the system and price policy
- Instruments of foreign trade and foreign exchange system,
- Instruments of the system and revenue policy and
- The instruments of direct control

Reconciliation between the goals of these instruments is an important process for the formulation and implementation of economic policy. With fiscal policy usually means the use of public finance instruments viz. public revenues and expenditures (expenses) for the realization of public goals of economic policy. Therefore, fiscal policy is an important instrument of economic policy. Fiscal policy affects the realization of economic policy (in employment, price stability, balance of payments and economic growth rate) on the fact of its revenue collection and public expenditure to (expenditure) public, whereby creates effects on aggregate economic performance and the behavior of economic entities. The mechanism of action of fiscal policy has to do with its long-term effects as its impact on development and faster economic growth. The function of the state is increasingly done as intermediaries in economic development, which should take care to establish general conditions for maintaining the speed of growth, and economic development. Instead of set development priorities of any sector or branch of activity, the state today is taken by upgrading basic infrastructure, with the guidance of industrial policy, regional development policy and the development of science and education as an important factor of development leading to increased competitiveness of the economy integrated into the international market (globalization). The rate of development of the economy of the state is determined by the quantity and quality of human and material resources and to achieve the level of technical and technological development. Fiscal policy therefore affects the rate of economic growth accelerated as instruments of public revenue and public expenditure can influence factors high. (Sabahudin Komoni 2008, p.16,17,18).

2. Fiscal Policy - Transition in Kosovo

Given the new configuration of economic, regional, European and international, as well as the specific conditions of the
Construction of the economic system in Kosovo should be based on:

- Privatization of enterprises, public and social;
- Economic liberalization;
- Economic Adjustment under the concept of an open market economy;
- Principles of the rule of law;
- Social Justice;
- Orientation towards the globalization of the economy.

Kosovo, as a small country at the same time as the geographical part of Europe, will be directed to the construction of the economy according to an open economy, to the European market, regional and international, with a policy of economic liberalization and regulatory measure neighborhood. Kosovo needs an economic system that creates an environment for the integration of the economy on the region and beyond, stimulating economic cooperation incentive interest in joint investments with foreign partners. (Artan Nimani, 2010, p. 48).

Need clearly defined strategy, the transformation of state property (social) and private property for the development of entrepreneurship as a development philosophy in its entire necessary infrastructure. This enables the creation of a favorable environment for the development of competition and the autonomy of enterprises, including risk category.

The role of the state of Kosovo should specifically focus on contemporary macro-economic regulation to ensure economic stability and building development policy. These include: stabilization of the national currency (Euro) exchange rate, regulation of economic relations with the outside world, construction of regional policy, and construction of agricultural policy, what ecological and public finances. Macroeconomic policies of democratic governments aim to achieve four key macroeconomic objectives:

1. To ensure high rates of sustainable economic growth
2. To minimize unemployment
3. To ensure price stability and
4. To expand and strengthen international economic relations (Squirrel, 2008)

Its functioning economic system must support democratic institutions, liberal democracy and open society, and the internationalization of the economy and society.

Transition is a process known deep transformative dimensions of a social system, through which the system passes into a new facility, which provides an efficient and effective higher.

To achieve these performances, solidifying should stimulate changes in all subsystems of the social system, and above all in the political system, economic system and the education system as one of the most enduring investment development of a country.

The transition process cannot be governed by case basis. This means that the strategy needed to build the mechanisms by which these obstacles must be overcome.

On the specifics of transition in Kosovo:

a. Kosovo has experienced a very tough transition because of the 1998-1999 Kosovo war leaves with a degree in economics to destroy over 90% in terms of social enterprises, and public. However, few private enterprises which had started activities them in 1989, and over 90% of households, based on the law to the former Yugoslavia where's that then allowed the exercise and development of business and manufacturing operations in Kosovo.

b. After the war in Kosovo from 1999 to 2008 led by the United Nations mission (UNMIK was) Kosovo is not possible to implement fiscal policies based on the principles of free market and especially because until 2005 favored imports from out and not favored internal production. In addition, what was the largest anomaly was that local products to neighboring countries such as Macedonia were, and Union, Serbia and Montenegro, was allowed to imported duty-free goods in Kosovo, namely 1% load customs, calling upon the area of free trade preferential foreign whereby priority was given to member States of the set of states of the former Yugoslavia's. In this way UNMIK with or without aim or purpose has severely damaged the economy of Kosovo but was rejected by many experts of the economy in Kosovo were not taken into account criticisms, this injustice which used the neighboring Macedonia also issue certificates for Banana, allegedly were local products, in order to enter free of duty in Kosovo.

c. Kosovo cannot be authentic enforce business policies and the fact that no national value of using the euro as the national currency crises thus imported from the euro area (Limani, 2008).

Fiscal policy is one of the most important components of economic policy, where at least exist two basic reasons:

1. Political economic criteria defines goals and fiscal policy.
2. Explains the process of realization of economic policy, which is part of the fiscal policy itself. Well fiscal and economic policies are closely interrelated with one another (Brajshori, 2010). Transition in Kosovo started in the late 80s, i.e. the movement for freedom and democracy.

Approximately 25% of Kosovo's populations are in Western Europe and the U.S., the majority without status was regulated but a strong pillar of survival and war horns processes. Kosovo has now opened the doors to get out of the prolonged transition that was not active against the view that ours right to move progressively integrating these doors that open development horizons of development and improvement of social and economic life, bring best of direct investment capital with justice in Kosovo.

We should be as unique hospitality host to foreign investors, have clear short-term and medium-term policies to attract these investors build and strengthen as much state building, strengthen investment in justice and in preparation to the experts sucking economic purpose of foreign investors for the benefit of the country and the region. A capacity building opportunities we can have and invest together with our friends who have interst to be aligned development policies in the Western Balkans region. Where these investments should be seen as vital and attractive place for people and Kosovo. We must look more open to adaptation and acceptance of regional and European policies to be closer to the global international journeys. (Artan Nimani 2010, p48,50)

2.1 Fiscal policy and challenges in developing state

Fiscal policies dealing mainly with tax, various taxes and government spending, which directly affect the size of the gross national product, but also the living standards of citizens (Squirrel, 2008). European economies, which are more developed, compared with Kosovo force us to have caution about the economy and its orientation facing the challenges of the free market (global).

Globalization and global market is developing in many cases, the hardening of production, exchange, communication and development in general. For this reason, integration is a central issue today in contemporary international relations. (Citation: benefit from international trade is more efficient employment of the productive forces the world. -John Stuart Mill). functional aspects of international relations, such as: globalization of exchange, environmental protection, communication, etc. are still formally dependent on the process of establishing states although they mainly adopt decisions in the international format. Refering to these as discussed above some countries reluctant in taking the country in the global market or the global economy because that's what the classical form of waste being independent or sovereign state in the country. In addition, many local businesses fail because of the inability to adapt to the global market, so we can say that globalization has its positive sides but also has downsides.

Crises that shook the world is like that of 2008, based on forecasts of key international institutions for the period 2009-2011 was all seem convinced that our planet has entered into a global crisis, which has six specifications: the financial crisis, monetary, economic, food, energy and ecological. Crisis, which has genesis in the year 2007 as the financial crisis, that had originated from bad loans in the U.S. real estate market. (Civic 2012)

Viewing these detailed above we see that globalization is inevitable with the benefits and consequences of his own. Rapid changes of transition and transformation in Europe today in the international plan noted as difficult phenomenon to new states in the global economy, especially the post-socialist countries. Therefore, the creation of new global circumstances, the role of governments is to create new contexts more attractive for business and attraction of capital, in order to promote investment (Selman, 2006)

In the terminology of political economy is a difference between, quantitative economic policy and structural economic policies. Quantitative policies are policies aimed at controlling short-term economic cycles through quantitative interventions, fiscal incentives (reduction or increase of taxes and / or government spending), and increase or decrease the rate of interest, intervention by monetary policy, in other words, policy aimed at orienting the economy in one or another direction through the management of macroeconomic parameters. These are policies that in most cases the common concern of economists and fiscal state bureaucracy (as ministries of finance or central bank), or even politicians opposing ideological orientations that express the need for measures of one kind or another. These groups often finds in dealing with economic problems dealing with the need for policies and the effects of this kind: for example, provided arguments for the need to reduce taxes on businesses, in order to encourage investment, the need to stimulate demand through increased public spending: debates on reducing or increasing VAT or excise or tax rates etc.. At the foundation is the debate revolves entirely around the use of existing mechanisms in response to macroeconomic cyclical economic developments.

Structural economic policies are substantially different from this kind of policy. Obviously, the economy advanced and complex, e.g. what is Western Europe or the U.S., the political debate focuses mainly on quantitative policy level.
Despite the financial crisis of 2008 prompted, many interventions require deeper state of the economy; policy debates revolve around quantitative however.

Particular case is the sovereign debt crisis in Europe. On one side are the militants of fiscal discipline, such as the Ministries of Finance leaders of countries like Germany and the Netherlands, which require restriction of expenditures, despite the cost and economic and social consequences.

On the other side are Keynes sunshine set, to develop the argument that fiscal crisis can only be solved by economic growth, which in times achieved precisely by maintaining high levels of public spending, not reduce them drastically. In each case, the argument is not about the fundamental transformation of the economic structure. Nevertheless, to manage the situation through macroeconomic instruments that possesses state: tax policy, public expenditure policy and monetary policy.

In these examples, the economic structure is complex and relatively autonomous policy and structural changes in the state can intervene only at the margins.

In the case of developing countries, economic development problem arises in very different form. Although the developing countries (like the Kosovo) have in hand macroeconomic instruments (such as fiscal policy or budget), basic economic problems of developing countries are not cyclical in nature, but structural. In other words, the response of the state should be oriented towards structural transformation of the economy, to orient it towards creating surplus and increase the rate of accumulation and, consequently, economic growth in general.

In short, state policies should be structural, such that the fundamental aim of transforming the country's economic composition.

The difference can be described in this way. If you are a country whose economy produces one million cars, while you as a government with fiscal incentives (e.g. tax breaks) aims to foster investment firms to ensure that they produce 1.2 million automobiles, this is management macroeconomic growth through quantitative policy. Structural policies, meanwhile, aims to create an automotive industry where it does not exist.

In Kosovo, the current political circumstances, and in the current political and ideological configuration, a move towards state development seems unlikely. However, this does not prevent the elaboration of a developmental state opposition and alternative political project against what is unquestionably a totally failed economic model applied by the current government. And, again, it should be noted that there is no single formula developmental state. However, and this is the main conclusion of this brief treatment, state developmental challenges us to rethink and rediscover the art of statehood (statecraft), before falling into the trap of preoccupation with economic problems existing in economic discourse, or, expressed differently, the seek and provide quantitative solutions to problems that are structural.

3. **Conclusion and Recommendations**

3.1 **Conclusions**

This study shows the impact of fiscal policy on economic development of a country. We can say that fiscal policy (tax) which relate directly to the Tax Administration of Kosovo proved very successful especially in the value-added tax from the tax, which carried about 50% of overall revenues. VAT is continuously growing revenue. From this, we can understand that it is doing a good job in the field of awareness on taxpayers, but much remains to be done. Additional training should be organized for staff of TAK (Tax Administration of Kosovo). Especially in the construction and trade with imports because of the VAT credit to many businesses, that are in credit and no request to reimburse businesses for this part of Customs duty paid in the country or even within, then conclude that credit may be irregular because it does not apply for refund. However, the tax administration does not undertake concrete steps to verify if these businesses are able creditworthiness. Nevertheless, what leaves much to be desired, and that is worth mentioning is corporation tax, any tax on realized about 22% of revenue, and it is disturbing that the majority of businesses declare annual loss statements. Therefore, the Ministry of Finance should change the law and the legal right of loss carried forward for seven (7) years to cut in 2 or 3 years, because I think that will give results in direct revenue.

3.2 **Recommendations**

3.2.1 **Recommendation 1**

Manager’s decision on Kosovo should start doing escalation of VAT for things such as food, oil, bread, flour, sugar, salt, etc. So everyday household baskets. State intervention in the flow economy through fiscal policy is justified by regulations
made in terms of eliminating the phenomena that impede the preservation of the general welfare of society.

Caution however, increase or a decrease in tax rates for taxes opportunities but also pose risks. Lower taxes can stimulate business and, when conditions are suitable, increase budget revenues. However, if you sit a lot, they can be harmful to budget revenues and could endanger public goods such as infrastructure, education and health care, etc.

Some arguments have shown that efforts to make things change in the tax system were more successful those that modify specific provisions.

Seeing these theories and many different theories of thinkers can conclude that any tax reform should be calculated taking good advantages and disadvantages, difficulties that in itself carries every tax reform and determination required in law enforcement.

3.2.2 Recommendation 2

Like the second recommendation concerns the privatization of state-owned enterprises.

The successfully develop the privatization process should be ensured: the development of its public (transparent), to avoid possible misuse what, sale of assets under the market price of what cannot offset the negative effects.

Where I think privatization in Kosovo should be developed based on competitive programs (manufacturing or commercial) and the open market. Important role played by the information, which creates conditions for massive participation of subjects in the privatization process and reduces the chances of double standards. Maximizing the cost approach is very important principle, because it means the elimination of privileges and buyers, enabling free and fair competition for all participants and promotes the interest of as many buyers.

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“Law No. 03/L-146” (2011) For tax http://econpapers.repec.org/RePEc:wp:wwwppe:0505013 By Florije Govori; Politika Fiskale-Objektivat,instrumentet dhe efektet
Omani Women: Embracing New Identity

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Abstract

Like other women around the world, Omani women have always worked. In the past, they worked along their men, tending the herds, and bargaining at cattle souks. Now women are still working, but the nature of work has changed over time with the modernization and material aspiration. This qualitative study explores the perception of Omani professional women on being working and its association with their identity. Data from interviews and printed media revealed that being professional serves as means not only to meet ends but also to actualize self by embracing multiple roles.

1. Identity Theory

Identity is defined as meaning an individual attributes to one’s self in a role (Burke and Reitzes, 1981). Burke and Reitzes (1981) suggested that this definition infers three characteristics. First, identities are social products, where they are formed and maintained through social process. Second, identities are organized in hierarchy to produce the self; and third, identities are reflexive in character in the sense that people internalize an identity from responses of others upon performing their identity role.

One of the major discussions in identity theories is identity salience. This identity salience can be internalized and become a stable part of self or be an unstable one and changes to fit changing situation (Owens et al., 2010). As people tend to have multiple roles, they tend to have multiple identities which are organised into hierarchy according to degree of salience. Based on this it can be understood that professional women with children may arranged their multiple roles - i.e. professional woman, mother, neighbour, friend etc. into hierarchy.

Social identity theorists argue that identity is a social-construct, as it is constructed through interaction with other members in a society (Owen et al., 2010; Turner, 2013). An identity is reinforced and enacted as one engages in activities, and interacts with others in the environment (Bird and Schnurmann-Crook, 2005). Through interaction and engagement, people develop self-approval and seek approval of significant others in determining whether an identity intended to embrace is approved, and subsequently determining the position of the identity within the hierarchy of salience (ibid. p.146).

As such culture strongly influences how pyramid of salient identity looks like by prescribing priorities in life (Aycan et al., 2005). Society also influences whether two identities are compatible or contesting (Rothbard and Edwards, 2003). If they are perceived incompatible, the less important one will be less committed to or - when threatened, will be sacrificed at once. In many countries around the world, careers that are related to caretaking, nurturing, and entertaining are deemed compatible to women’s nature as emotional and sensitive.

Work-family literature reveals that home culture and work culture determine work-family experience. Supportive husbands, who share house chores, take turn to take leaves to attend children’s school program, encourage wife to take up job assignment for promotion, help women to balance their domestic and professional roles. Supportive work culture in the form of supportive colleagues, understanding bosses, flexible work hour also provide an encouraging environment for women to perceive themselves as part of organisation and be committed to their career development. Subsequently balanced work-family roles enable women to maintain their domestic identity as well as retaining their professional identity.

2. Omani Professional Women

Among Arab patriarchy countries, Oman has constantly been described as the most flexible and tolerant in many aspects. Although gender-based identity is well-defined, gender-based household division is rather implicit and flexible (Al-Barwani and Albeely, 2007). Children are tended by both father and mother often with the help of extended family members. Although women are the cook at home, men do cook when necessary. The rising of dual-earner families where
both husband and wife work and earn money for family therefore do not pose any drastic change in this society. As such it is not a surprise when Oman was categorised as the least masculine society (At-Twaijiri and Al-Muhaiza, 1996).

Hofstede (1980) described that the dominant values for a high masculine country are success, money and things while the dominant values for a low masculine (or feminine) country are caring for others, and the quality of life, and people. While masculinity is associated with work prevails over family, femininity is associated with balance between family and work (Hofstede, 2011). Given this characteristic one might simply conclude that Omani society does not have any issue having their women working, and balance between home and work can easily be attained. However, the reality uncovers the opposite.

An official government report revealed a significant premature withdrawal from work among young Omani women professionals (MONE, 2011). Data in 2010 showed close to 50 per cent of female workforce between the ages 25 and 29 withdrew from work. As Omani women get married at the average age of 26, it explains their withdrawal as they reach 30’s of age, which coincides with the timing when the family is growing. The report also revealed lack of facilities in the workplace as the factor of the retreat. This concurs with the findings by Bird and Schnurman-Crook (2005) that absence of facilities and family-friendly policies does hamper the development of professional identity.

Omani society therefore, is conservative at heart (Peterson, 2011). Men are regarded as the main breadwinner, and are responsible to go outside i.e. earning income, and providing house to live, and clothes and food for family. Women are in-charge of domestic matter i.e. providing home, preparing food and cleaning. Even when there is maid, it is women’s area to liaise with the maid for house chores. In Omani family, father/husband is the most powerful figure. Women are consulted, and their opinion matters; but the last say is always men’s (AlBarwani and Albeely, 2007). Men decide whether or not women should continue study, whether they should work, and what type of job and career they should and can have home (Al-’Omairi and Amzat, 2012).

To date, some Omani men still believe that women’s place is at home (Al-’Omairi and Amzat, 2012) and to most Omani women their family identity (defined by Bird and Schnurman-Cook, 2005 as ‘a combination of spousal and parental identities’) is at the top of their identity hierarchy. Chatty (2000) wrote, ‘In Omani society, as in the modern nation-states of the Middle East, …women are perceived first and foremost as wives and mothers (p. 247). As such, wife and mother are the most salient identities in the identity hierarchy of Omani professional women. Any other identities especially when they are non-domestic are considered secondary and in some cases are considered a threat (Bird and Schuman-Cook, 2005).

Being mothers and wives means they are expected to spend time most of the time at home. Jobs that require them staying outside home and away from family for long time are considered unsuitable for women. Although there is indication that younger women started not to limit their career options, in general women are still drawn to teaching and administrative positions. The arrangement of 7-8 hours a day and five days a week is considered ideal for women to balance their domestic and professional roles. Long working hours and jobs away from home are considered threatening women’s identity as wife and mother. Embracing the identity as professional woman therefore does not happen without challenge.

3. Significance of the Study

The study is significant for at least two reasons: First, Omani government is aiming to double their women’s participation in the national workforce by the year 2020 (MONE, 2010). Knowing how the society at large perceives women as professionals gives the clue whether it is a smooth process or not. Second, it shed lights to many issues faced by Omani professional women. By understanding their self-perceived identity, one can understand their commitment and strategy to attain balance between family and profession.

4. Research Strategy

This qualitative study has explored the perception of Omani professional women on being working and its association with their identity from identity theory perspective. This research borrowed ethnographic strategy considering its orientation towards cultural interpretation. Culture provides system of meaning that constructs social arrangements including life options for men and women (Bradley and Kor, 1993). As such, the research explored how Omani women embrace and construct their identity within the context of Omani culture.
5. **Research Method**

Investigation was carried out by conducting series of interview and collecting printed media articles. Ethnographic interviewing is distinct from non-ethnographic interviewing in the sense that it is more of ‘series of friendly conversation’ (Spradley, 1979, cited in Sorrell and Redmond, 1995). This friendly conversation often happens unarranged and spontaneous, thus deemed to provide more realistic account compared to information gathered from formal interview (Murchison, 2010). As such not all interviews were tape-recorded. However, to assure reliability, field notes were taken as soon as the conversation ended. This paper and pencil note-taking also was done in order not to discourage spontaneity and honesty from the research participants.

The second method is document and image analyses where local magazines and national newspaper will be the source of information. Among them are Y magazine, Oman Economic Review, Times of Oman, and Oman Observer newspapers. These magazines and newspaper portray current situation of Omani society which illuminates differences from the past situation. Coverage on achievement of Omani women in these printed media provides excellent description of identity of Omani professional women, as well as identity which Omani women aspired to become.

While interview provides powerful testimonials, visual data, as argued by Razvi (2006) have the potential to support and corroborate narratives. More importantly, images which are captured in cultural setting offer not only unique, but also authentic description of the phenomenon under study. Combining these two tools i.e. interview and document/image analyses is deemed to better able capture as comprehensive as possible the identity subscribed by Omani professionals, and prescribed by the society.

5.1 **Participants**

Sampling was selected purposely. Two participants were acquaintances to the researcher. They later suggested other participants. Some of the participants also were those the researcher met at shopping complex, dental clinic, and hospital.

5.2 **Data Collection**

Nine participants were interviewed. Face-to-face interview was done with seven participants, taking place at either the researcher’s place, or the participants’ workplaces. Four of them were lecturers at higher education, three were school teachers and one is a salesperson. Telephone interview was done with two participants due to their time constraint. One was salesperson, and another was an assistant at dental clinic. Both types of interview were open-ended and semi-structured. Among these participants, five of them were married with children, one was married without child, and three were not married.

The interviews were conducted in English. It was not the researcher’s intention to limit the study only to those who were able to speak English. However, those who did speak, or willing to speak English were more approachable and cooperative, compared to those who did not speak the language.

5.2.1 **Interview question**

1. How do you feel being a working/professional woman?

5.2.2 **Probing questions**

1. Can you describe your feelings about being a professional woman?
2. Does your family encourage you to work? What does your husband think about you working?
3. Is there any pressure for you to stop working?
4. If your family asks you to stop working, would you so?
5. Can you imagine yourself being unemployed?
6. Overall speaking are you satisfied/proud that you are working?

6. **Analysis**

The researcher utilized descriptive and ethnographic content analysis to analyse, describe, and summarize the collected
data. Recorded interviews were transcribed, while field notes on the non-recorded interviews were analysed in order to derive themes.

7. Result and Discussion

Several themes were yielded from the interviews as well from the published media articles in regards to Omani women professional identity.

7.1 Domestic identity is the most salient in the hierarchy.

Domestic identity takes priority over other identities. To some, working in fact is part of being mother and wife, where they help their husbands by earning extra income for the family. A school teacher for example expressed,

Now everything is expensive. Of course there are cheap and expensive stuffs. But at least if a wife is working, they [the family] have money to provide quality goods to the children….Not everybody can get to go to university. So if both parents work, at least they can send their children to private universities and colleges.

7.2 Professional identity is a meaningful identity.

Many Omani women, irrespective of levels of education perceive career as enriching and professional identity as important to them. One of the lecturers uttered,

I can’t imagine myself stop working. To me, I am Noor, an English teacher. That’s what I do. My child [is] first [priority]…[I am a mother] but that’s not all I am.

Haniah, a salesperson at high-end boutique in Muscat City Center with high school certificate shared,

I love working. It makes me know who I am. I love meeting people. I like to try to speak English. If I sit at home I might get involve in wrong thing, or I will feel bored.

In a group interview with three participants, they agreed that by being working their opinions matter more to their families. They were consulted for major purchases like cars and lands, and their advices were sought as to which college their younger siblings should be attending.

7.3 Family support is important in developing and embracing professional identity.

Many of the participants receive moral support from family, in fulfilling their responsibilities as mothers and working women. They live with their mother or mother-in-law who looks after their children when they are at work. From the participants, the researcher learnt that many Omani families understand when their daughters have to stay back at workplace to do extra workload. Fatimah, another salesperson with two children said that she was grateful her mother never complained when she had to work for long hours. Many days a week she left home at 9 a.m to arrive at work by 9.30 a.m and stayed until 6 p.m. She confessed never worried about her children as they are in safe hands.

7.4 Husband’s approval is a factor of success in professions.

Approval from husband is crucial in determining the course of Omani women’s professions. Almost all married participants attribute their ability to juggle between domestic and professional identities to their husbands. Thurayya, a school teacher expressed her content to have a husband who is also a school teacher. She said they always talked about issues pertaining students and education. She expressed her wish to further study and teach in higher education, but concerned about having to teach in co-educational institution. Her husband did not mind of her intention to further study but discouraged her from working in mixed-gender environment.

Many Omani working women perceived that husband’s approval of their career as significant. Many of them expressed that they love their work but will stop working if their husband ask them to. Conforming to the husband’s will is regarded as sign of love and obedience.
7.5 Husband sharing domestic chores helps in retaining professions.

Husbands’ understanding and willingness to share household tasks are strength for professional women to keep their professional identity. Aseelah, a retiring school teacher with 5 children had been working for 20 years. Her husband had always helped with house chores like cooking and washing dishes, especially at times when they did not have maid. Noor, whose first baby was 5 months at the time of interview, expressed her gratitude for having a supportive husband. Her husband worked in the dessert and in a month, he worked for two weeks and stayed at home for another two weeks. During his stay, he would take care of the baby while Noor teaching in the college 70 kilometers from their home.

7.6 Organizational support is a motivation for retention of professional identity.

Support at workplace motivates commitment to profession as it enables balance between work and family. Aseela had a maid at home. However, sometimes it took time to get new maid when the previous one finished her contract. In this kind of situation, she always had to leave school early so she can cook and be at home when her children come back from school. Her head department and colleagues understood her situation and never complained of her early leaving as long as she informed them of the situation.

In general media in Oman highlights positive pictures of professional women. Their involvement in the workforce has repetitively been stressed in many printed media articles. Columnists in Oman Daily Observer newspaper like al-Balushi (18th February, 2013) and al-Suleimany (6th June, 2013) acknowledged the importance of women’s participation in the workforce. Al-Balushi wrote,

> Today you hardly observe a shop, a mall medical centre, bank, insurance company, business, hotel, institute, education centre, sports, police and army without women. It means that women are playing a great part in building the state and its economy, with their hard work, creativity, innovation and co-operation. (p.27)

Omani professional women were portrayed as vibrant and ambitious personalities. It is noteworthy however that as being successful mothers is important to this society, very often professional women are portrayed as successful both as mothers and professionals. Y-Magazine (Issue 260) for example published two articles of such story. One is coverage on a managing director whose ultimate ambition is to be ‘the one-of-a-kind type of mother’ (p.6), and another is on a business analyst, who is also a mother of two, in preparation for an International Antarctic Expedition. The column in which story on her was published printed with the title ‘The Adventurer (and Mum)’ (p.16). The success of a woman therefore is measured by her success in living up to her domestic identity. No matter how successful she is professionally, what validate her success is her success as wife and mother.

Although the atmosphere for Omani women as professionals is generally positive, there are some reservations against it. Some doubt on the motive of their employment in their first place. An Omani husband (Oman Daily Observer, 19th April, 2011) for example said, ‘By her working she relieves me of some costs like her cosmetics and household item’ (p.26). Although women professionalism is no longer strange, women are still expected to devote themselves to domestic traditional identity.
ENLIGHTENED ENTREPRENEUR

Shabaf Ebraimi, MD of Aljaz Global Services & Investments

Words: Penny Elly
Photo: Daya Vazquez

[Text]

THE ADVENTURER (AND MUM)

[Text]

Article credited to T Magazine, Issue 260 (2013), p.6

They are wives and mothers who are expected to do the daily chores and expecting husbands to share the chores at full scale is considered unacceptable. A columnist in Oman Daily Observer (7th May, 2013) wrote:

If you have allowed the women to have the wings and go to where they have never been, then the men will have to do the house works and should not care if they are called ‘lesser men’ or ‘inferior’. (p.31)

He further warned the society that allowing women ‘to go extra miles’ might defy the traditional husband-wife identity. He asserted:

The rise of the modern career woman will cause disastrous effects on many husbands who assume the traditional ‘female’ role hence the need to initiate some action points. If the women becomes ‘too big headed’ over their husbands, don’t blame them or anyone because you allowed it to start. (p.31)

For a woman therefore her professional identity is approved as long as it is not at conflict with her domestic identity, and it does not pose threat to her husband’s identity as the prime breadwinner and head of the family.

8. Limitation of the study

The researcher views that it is important to note that interviews were conducted only with participants who were able to speak English. Analysis on media articles also was done on magazines and newspaper published in English. As such this study is limited. Perhaps, better understanding can be grasped if study was covering Arabic materials, and interview was conducted with Arabic-speaking participants.

9. Conclusion

It can be concluded that there is an ambivalent experience as well as reaction towards Omani women as professionals. They are partly celebrated, yet partly frowned upon either. What clear is, Omani women are slowly acknowledging their contribution to their family and society by being professionals.

References

http://www.mone.gov.om/PublicationAttachment/40e.pdf
When the “Undercover Activity” Crosses the Limits of Legality

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Abstract

Due to globalization, the forms of criminality have been subject of an abrupt change manifesting themselves in a growing variety of forms and structures. In the framework of the fight against criminality, many European legislation, including the Albanian one, have made changes to their penal, material and procedural laws by accepting the concept “belum justum”, which means: the strengthening of the convictions; the increase of the competences of the police force; the use of special techniques of investigation etc. This study will focus exactly on those special techniques of investigation which have been employed in the Albanian legislation in the recent years. The initiatives in question are: “simulating actions” and “infiltration” as means to obtain evidence for the penal processes. Nevertheless, a great many problems have come across when it came to putting these means in practice. Through a thorough observation and the use of the research and comparative methods of research, I aim to:

- The treatment of the juristic position of the infiltrated in accordance with the legal basis of The Criminal Code of the Republic of Albania.
- The treatment of such position with regard to the other legal and constitutional rights.
- The treatment of the legal boundaries of the infiltration as means of obtaining investigative evidence, with regard to the basic human rights and freedoms, as well as the guarantees provided by the law in the cases when infiltration crosses the legal line.

Keywords: criminality; techniques of investigation; infiltration; simulating action; legality; Albanian penal legislation.

1. Introduction

In the recent years, Albania, like many countries of the world has become familiar with some of the most complex forms of criminality which represents a great social jeopardy and undermines democracy. In the framework of the fight against this phenomenon, a number of legislative changes which have been borrowed from the penal legislations of countries with a steady democracy, have been made and continue to be implemented. This study will focus on that particular form of investigation which after the Code of Penal Procedure of the Republic of Albania, is recognized by the name “Simulating Actions” or “Infiltration”. Considering the experiences of other countries of Europe, these means have been estimated by the Albania legislator as efficient in disclosing complex penal offences which constitute a great social risk.

1.1 What do these institutes represent?

Simulating action and infiltration, as new institutes in the Albanian penal right, are an interesting field of study to illustrate the positive experience of their use as means of obtaining evidence in the penal processes in Albania and Europe as well. These means are of considerable importance when it comes to disclosing and proceeding perpetrators of complex, well-organized and severe penal offences which contain a high scale of social risk. In spite of the great benefits of these methods, it is very important to study the confinement of their exertion provided by law, in order to prevent the infiltrated agent from abuse and protect the basic human rights. The study of the juristic consequences of eventual abuse with these methods is no less important.

The articles 294/a and 294/b of the Penal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania provide for the role of the judicial police officer in the simulating action and infiltration. In spite of this, there have been cases of totally contrary attitudes in different judicial practices. This indicates that there are cases of wrong practices not only from the prosecution during the investigation of the penal procedures, but also by the court in the judgment of these cases which came as a consequence of misinterpretation of these legal dispositions, and their incorrect implementation in the future. The results of this assignment will be an integral part of my doctoral thesis.
2. A brief historic overview of the developments in the penal legislation of Albania

In 1990 the totalitarian Communist Regime in Albania collapsed and was replaced by a democratic system, after the pattern of democratic countries throughout the world. This change was paralleled with another change in the Albanian law. For the first time after the totalitarian period, the basic democratic principles of the rightful state, were embodied in law no. 7491 dated 29.04.1991 “On the Main Constitutional Dispositions” changed by law no. 7561 dated 29.04.1992. The new Penal Code was approved by law 7895 dated 27.01.1995 based on these very principles. The code was based upon the model of several fellow codes of democratic European states (mostly Italy; France; Germany). Since its approval in 1995 till nowadays, more than 20 years of democracy have passed by and Albania has undertaken a series of further institutional reforms by approving the Constitution of the Republic of Albania in 1998 as the fundamental act of the Albanian state and by ratifying different international acts. The necessity to make changes through the amendments in the Penal Code came as a consequence of these reforms. These changes came as consequence of the necessity of fulfilling the standards that every country which aspires to be part of the EU must meet.

Among the international acts ratified by Albania in the field of Penal Right we could mention:


The ratification of the above-mentioned international acts by the Albanian state, brought about major legal and institutional reforms in the field of Penal Right.

These reforms were followed by the incrimination of new penal offences, like the ones on the organized crime, corruption, terrorism and computer hacking. The amendments and changes to the Penal Code have played a crucial role in strengthening the fight against criminality in general and organized crime in particular, since it is the most dangerous form in which crime manifests itself and it demands the use of specific methods of investigation.
2.1 The organized crime

In order to prevent and efficiently fight the organized crime, and to understand the importance of the use of special methods of investigation in disclosing and dealing with it, we must look at it from the criminological point of view as well.

2.1.1 What is the organized crime?

The term “organized crime” was first used in 1896 in the annual report of the Association of the Prevention of Crime in New York. It referred to the implication of public officers in the illegal activities of prostitution and gambling. (Fijunat and Paoli, 2004) Later on, around 1920-30s, the scholars tried to define the concept of the organized crime by adding to the term also the threats that were made to the businessmen, different illegal services, forgery of documents, and the trafficking of alcohol and drugs. For a long time though, the organized crime continued to be identified with the Italian mafia. The concept “organized crime” was first sanctioned by law in the federal statutes of USA in 1968. (Hysi, 2010). “By organized crime we mean the illegal activity of well-organized member, a fully structured unity engaged in illegal trade and services including: gambling; narcotics; threats to businesses and other criminal activity”. (Adamoli, Di Nicola, Savona, 1998).

There have been various approaches to the concept of organized crime and efforts were made in international level trying to define it. The political declaration of the United Nations and the Global Action plan against International Organized Crime, were approved in the International Conference of Ministers “On the International Organized Crime”, (Napoli 1994). The plan provided for six characteristics of the organized crime: a grouping organized to commit crimes; personal or hierarchic relations within the group which allow the leader to control the group; use of force, threatening and corruption to have benefits and control over the territory and the market; fraudulent activity with the illegal income and infiltration in the legal economy; opportunities to expand beyond national levels and collaborate with other international organizations (Adamoli, Di Nicola, Savona, 1998). Even though there is no such thing as a definition for the organized crime, theoretically shared by all the countries of the world, we could say that organized crime is a specific professional and contemporary form of criminal behavior which is essentially different from the other traditional forms of criminal interaction, and the classic forms of crime in general. The lack of a unique definition has not kept the states from recognizing the basic characteristics of these criminal formations. By studying these characteristics, we become aware of their high social risk, and their immunity to the law thanks to their impenetrable structure.

3. The fight against organized crime

Obtaining secret information is a fundamental function performed in every state in the interest of national security, economical welfare and public security (Dyrmishi, 2011). In order to achieve these goals, states grant considerable competences to their informative organs. Should these competences be abused, they would violate the citizens’ basic rights, would alter the truth and be a threat to the democracy of a country. In order to prevent all this, the state institutions responsible for obtaining the information, must work efficiently, reliably, and to be monitored periodically from some other specialized and neutral institution. Such periodic supervisions would guarantee a law-abiding performance without violating the competences defined by law. The Albanian legislator, being under the pressure of the International Right due to the ratified conventions which since the moment of ratification are considered an integral part of our system (article 122 of the Constitution of the Republic of Albania), has allowed the application of special methods of investigation. The article 20, point 1 of the “United Nations convention against International Organized Crime” and its two additional protocols foresees: The special techniques of investigation “If it is allowed by the basic principles of the inner legal system, each state party must take the necessary precautions to allow the use of the previously checked shipments, and if necessary, the use of other special techniques of investigation such as electronic surveillance, or undercover operations, withing its capacities and the stipulations stated in its inner legislation:. (Law no. 8920, 2002)

4. The dynamics of the preparatory investigations

The Albanian legislation has been subjected to frequent changes through years. Part of these changes has been the preparatory investigations. Changes were made to the organs which had the competence to conduct such investigation, and the procedural rules on which preparatory investigation was based.
4.1 The changes of the Albanian legislation in relation to the institute of the preparatory investigations

During the period of Independence the rules of the Ottoman legislation were being followed, and later on the ones of the Italian Code of Penal Procedure. After the war, a Russian based procedural legislation was created. According to this legislation, the preparatory investigations were mostly conducted by the Prosecution, the police (penal offences of low risk) and the Investigation Office of State Security (acts against the state). (Islami, Hoxha, Panda, 2003) In the early 70s the Russian model was abolished and the investigative activity was focused in the Ministry of the Interior. The Constitution of 1967 provided for the creation of a special organ – the Office of Investigation – which was assigned the function of penal investigation by excluding the Prosecution from this task. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda 2003) This organ was abolished in 1991. What all these models had in common was the inequality between the parties, the denial of the right of a defense attorney, the decision of the sentence by the prosecutor. These decisions could not be appealed in the court. In 1990, new procedural norms were approved but unfortunately, they were poorly implemented mainly because of the mentality of the time. The achievement of democratic standards was still merely an aspiration because the consequent changes did not provide the right time for these standards to consolidate. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda, 2003) Later on, in 1995 new rules in compliance with the international standards were implemented to the Code of Penal Procedure concerning preparatory investigations. The role of the Prosecution as organ of penal investigation was reaffirmed and the Judicial Police, a totally unknown institution in the past, was funded. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda, 2003). This situation had its own difficulties as it demanded radical changes of the old concept and practices which had been in use for such a long time. A lot of efforts were needed for the capacity building of the Judicial Police; for the creation and consolidation of adequate concepts on the role of the Prosecutor in the preparatory investigations, and what is more important, its relations to the Judicial Police, as well as the awareness and responsibilities for the correct implementation of the law and the professional growth in carrying out their tasks. The lack of a consolidated legislative tradition brought about that the phase of preparatory investigation, which is perhaps the most important step in the penal procedures, to present a lot of problems. These problematic are a direct threat to the democratic standards of a country.

4.2 Preparatory Investigations

According to the actual penal legislation, the preparatory investigations are conducted by the Prosecutor and the Judicial Police, in accordance with the competences stated in the Code of Penal Procedure. This is a decisive phase about the solution of a series of penal procedure problems such as: the beginning of the penal proceeding; the security precaution; the notification of the charge; obtaining of the evidence; which cannot be repeated; performing searches and controls; confiscations, observations, expertise, experimentations, gathering of the necessary data for defining the penal offence and identifying the perpetrator. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda, 2003) The wrongful beginning of a penal proceeding, would have very negative consequences for the case and would be followed by an unjust sentence as a result of illegally obtained evidence, and what is worse, the case could be dropped for insufficient basis. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda 2003) In the same time there would be a violation of:

1. Article 6 of the European Convention of Human Rights “The Right to a Correct process” according to which “Every person has the right to have his/her case be judged fairly from an independent and neutral court which would decide on the basis of each penal offence he/she is charged with”.

2. Article 32/2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Albania, according to which “Nobody can be declared guilty based on illegally obtained evidence”.

4.3 The functions of the Judicial Police

The functions of the Judicial Police are provided for in the article 30 of Penal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania. Based on this disposition, the Judicial Police must obtain information about the penal offences, thus, to find them out and prevent the further consequences; and to search the perpetrators when they are fleeing from the proceeding. To conduct the investigations and gather everything which could serve to the execution of the penal law. (Article 30 P.P.C) The persons in charge and the structures responsible for exerting the functions of the Judicial Police have the duty to support and fulfill the realization of these functions, and they are responsible for every obstacle as stated in the article 14 of the law “On the Judicial Police” (Law no.8677 dated 2000)
4.4 The role of the prosecution in the preparatory investigations

Based on the law “On the Judicial Police” article 13, the judicial police perform its functions under the guidance and control of the prosecutor, defined in details, for all the phases of the preparatory investigation. (Law no. 8677, 2000) The officers and agents of the judicial police are obliged to notify the prosecutor immediately for every penal offence (article 293 P.P.C). For the flagrancy arrest or for the detention of a suspect for the commitment of a crime (article 255 P.P.C), for the high priority controls and confiscations (articles 202,298,299 of P.P.C) they have to fulfill the instructions and directions delegated by the prosecutor (article 30,33,204 of P.P.C). The Judicial Police is obliged to disclose the penal offences and inform the prosecutor immediately. Nevertheless, informing the prosecutor about the offence must not hamper the conduct of emergent actions from the judicial police. The officer or agent of the Judicial Police who is proceeding with the given case must follow the competences granted to him by the article 30 of P.P.C prior and after the notification of the offence to the prosecution, by gathering everything which is valuable for the reconstruction of the fact and the identification of the perpetrator. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda 2003) The relations of dependence between the Judicial Police and the Prosecution are regulated in details by the law “On the Judicial Police” and in the common instruction of the Minister of the Interior and the General Prosecutor no.10 dated 17.01.2002 “The functioning of the services of the Judicial Police in the State Police”. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda, 2003) The Prosecutor conducts his own investigations and supervises and controls the Judicial Police which is at his disposal as stated in the article 227 of the P.P.C. He is notified for every penal offence and has access to everything which is related to the preparatory investigations. His orders and directions are compulsory for the officers and agents of the Judicial Police. They are given by the director of the Prosecution and the other prosecutors. The orders and directions are passed in writing or orally according to the situation and the importance. The subordinate has the right to demand a written form of the orders. Even though it is not provided by the law, every order can be appealed to the appealed at the Director of the Prosecution, whereas the orders of the latter can be applied to the General Prosecutor. Anyway, the appeal does not cancel the order. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda, 2003). It is highly important to understand that the collaboration between the Prosecution and the Judicial Police is a very important condition for a successful conduct and conclusion of the preparatory investigations. The collaboration must be concrete, continuous and efficient. It can be such only when the Prosecutor is informed in time and on regular basis about the actions of the Judicial Police, and also when he is constantly updated with the phases of the proceeding and gives direct orientations and concrete tasks to fill the gaps and fix the mistakes. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda, 2003).

4.5 The Role of the Tribunal in the Preparatory Investigations

In compliance with the new procedural system and the international conventions, in the article 278 of the P.P.C the control of the tribunal over the preparatory investigations has been accepted as guarantee for the respect of the rights and freedoms of the individual in this phase of the proceedings. The intervention of the Tribunal is done by request of the Prosecutor, the defendant, the damaged party, the indictor, and the civil indicted party only in the cases provided by the law. In this case we speak of the approval of the procedural acts by the Tribunal and the analysis of the appeals towards the acts obtained by the prosecutor during the preparatory investigations. Thus, the precautions of security, control, confiscations and surveillance are established by the judge on request from the prosecutor. The damaged party can appeal in the court against the decision of the prosecutor for failing to initiate or interruption of the penal proceeding. The demands of the prosecutor for the court approval of the most important acts, and the analysis of the court appeals against the prosecutor’s acts, are carried out in the tribunal which has material and territorial competence for judging the penal offences included in this acts. (Islami, Hoxha, Panda, 2003). In our legislation there is no such thing as an “investigative judge” (Islami, Hoxha, Panda, 2003).

5. The special method of preparatory investigation and the limits of legality

Nowadays in most countries, mostly in the cases of trafficking of drugs where the denounces and indictments are scarce, the police uses (we speak of pro-active investigation) active procedures. They infiltrate themselves in the networks and propose to their members to buy or to sell drugs (Pradel, 2008). The use of this investigative method has brought about many problematic even in the international arena. The most delicate issue of these investigations lies in the very thin line between “legal” and “illegal”. Concerning the limits of legality in the use of the special method of infiltration, the European Tribunal of Human Rights, in the case Teixera de Castro v. Portugal 09-06-1988 has stated; “The European Tribunal of Human Rights decided that the use of undercover agents must be confined and guaranteed even in the cases of the fight against drug trafficking. While the growth of the organized crime demands the necessary precautions to be taken, the
right for a fair administration of justice occupies a very important position which cannot be sacrificed for the sake of adapting to the circumstances. The general stipulations of justice, embodied in the article 6, must be implemented in all the procedures for every penal offence, from the simplest to the most complex ones. The public interest cannot justify evidence obtained by the police by means of manipulation. The competent authorities did not have enough reason as to suspect that the appealer was a drug trafficker”. (Texeira de Castro vs Portugal, 1998). The European Tribunal of Human Rights judges in a very general way. In a decision in 1998, she positions the simple infiltrated agent the agent who is in the role of the provoker. She does not accept the infiltrated agent when the nature of the offence justifies him by adding that “The public interest would not justify the use of elements obtained by means of a provocation of the police. Thus, the European jurisprudence joins the inner rights (legislative and/or juristic): in the moment when the policemen “exert an influence which urges the defendant to commit an offence”, instead of “confining themselves with the passive scrutiny of the criminal activity” (Texeira de Castro vs Portugal, 1998). They underestimate the principle of a regular legal process which applies to all procedures, for all sorts of penal offences, from the simplest to the most complex ones (Shanon vs Royaume – Uni, 2006). The principle of legality applies also to the evidence obtained as result of a private “trap” set by an individual instead of an investigator, when the so-called individual is not acting in the name of the state (Shanon vs Royaume- Uni, 2006). The national rights now make the difference between the policeman whose aim is to bring to light a penal offence already committed, (which is legal) and the policeman who by means of provocation, aims at getting an individual commit an offence (which is illegal). (Pradel, 2008). This difference is clearly stated in the dispositions of the articles 294/a and 294/b, but this did not avoid the confusion between these roles during the implementation of this method in Albania. In the decision no. 201 dated 05.07. 2012, The Penal College of the High Tribunal stated: “that the method how the Prosecution implemented is against the stipulations of the article 294/a of the Penal Procedure Code and as a result, the evidence obtained cannot be used in court as stated in the article 151/4 of the P.P.C. The Penal College estimates that the person authorized by the Prosecutor for carrying out “stimulating activity” has not been authorized for committing any of the three actions stated in the letter “c” of the analysis made by this College. Furthermore, this person not only hasn’t been authorized to carry out one or more such actions, and as a matter of fact, he has not committed any of the above-mentioned actions but he performed the actions which are allowed to an infiltrated police officer, as it is provided by the article 294/b of the Penal Procedure Code. Besides this evident violation of the law which renders all obtained evidence not valid, the testimony of the citizen R.Xh is also invalid because it is result of the illegal actions of this citizen. The Penal College of the High Tribunal estimates that the decision of the Prosecutor to allow the special method of investigation ‘stimulating action” dated 01.02.2008, has been taken against the law because in the concrete case, there is no reasonable doubt for the commitment of a crime. Thus, the stipulation in the point “d” of the analysis of this court has not been fulfilled. The stipulations is provided in the point 1 of the article 294/a of the Penal Procedure Code.”

The decision cited above clearly highlights the problematic of putting to practice “the simulating actions” and “infiltration”. In several judicial practices where “simulating action” and “infiltration” have been used to obtain evidence, there have been many objections from the defense because of the “legality of the activity of the undercover agents”. This gives ground to the allusion that the proceeding organs have acted against the law. Even this is a new disposition for our country, the purpose of carrying out these acts by the officer of the judicial police is to disclose the perpetrators of penal offences and the criminal structure of the group or organization. Thus, the stimulation of a criminal act must be distinguished from the provocation of committing a crime. From the interpretation of the disposition, it is clear that the officer of the judicial police must be in front of an existing offer. He must notice the existence of criminal activity and only then step in to do the purchase. In the implementation of this method, it is not allowed to provoke the commitment of a penal offence because then the evidence cannot be used in court.

6. The Proceeding Organs which Guarantee Legality

Analyzing the functions and competences of the proceeding organs in the penal procedural legislation of Albania, we notice that the daily task of the proceeding organs is to disclose and proceed the criminal acts. Thus, the prosecutor is the main organ of the administration and the control of the preparatory investigations for a case which is being investigated. The prosecutor gathers the evidence, scrutinizes them and decides whether they are sufficient for the charges. He has the initial responsibility to define whether the evidence can support the charge to obtain a sentence. Based on the content of the articles 327,328 and 331 of P.P.C, the Prosecutor has the competence to decide in the first step of the scrutiny if there is enough evidence to lead the case further. The prosecutor has the burden of being “the judge”. He must proceed with the investigation as a neutral and uninfluenced referee. In the moment when the case has been built and taken to court, the prosecutor assumes the position of the party in process. Here we face the representative of the state in a penal
process. Being the representative of the state, the duty of the prosecutor is to demand justice even though in some cases, justice would mean not to proceed with the case any further, but to interrupt it because of insufficient evidence to support the charges. The prosecutor must be characterized by a firm belief in the built charges. This belief must be grounded on sufficient and incontestable evidence. This concept is embodied also in the statute of the International Penal Tribunal, where the prosecutor is not only the indictment party, but he has also the duty to pass to the defense all evidence which contributes to the innocence of the defendant. Thus, the prosecutor is more “an organ of justice” than a party in process. (Pradel, 2008)

The organ of the prosecutor is the only actor which has the competence to control the preparatory investigations, excluding the cases when the tribunal interferes by request of the parties. We notice a great number of competences attributed to the prosecutor by the penal procedural law during the preparatory investigations. Nevertheless these competences are clearly confined by law. We see the prosecutor in the role of investigator, and afterwards as a “judge” when he assesses the obtained evidence if they are sufficient to pass the case to the court, and in the end, as a party in the process, or in other words, as the advocate of the state or of the damaged party. The only position where it is not possible to perceive the prosecutor is as “organ of justice”. To be an organ of justice means to be neutral and to judge objectively. We rarely see the Albanian prosecutors in this position. The Albanian prosecutor is the advocate of one party (the state or the damaged party) and they start their work on the assumption or the theory that the defendant is guilty for the crime he is being investigated. We do not see it as part of the prosecutors’ professional character to part with the assumption of innocence, which is a constitutional principle “Everyone is considered innocent unless proven guilty by court decision” (article 30, Constitution of the Republic of Albania) and is stated also in the European Convention of Human Rights (article 6/2), “Every person charged for a penal offence is presumed innocent unless proven guilty by court”. In this perspective, considering also the great problematic facing the institution of the preparatory investigations, and by emphasizing the top priority “the basic human rights and freedoms” we think that the tribunal must be involved in every step of the preparatory investigations because only under the control of the judicial organ justice would be guaranteed.

7. Conclusions

The Albanian Penal Legislation has been subjected to frequent changes during the recent years. The preparatory investigations have been part of these changes. Changes were made in the organs which had the competence to conduct these investigations, and the procedural rules according to which the preparatory investigations were conducted. In spite of the changes, this phase of the proceedings remains the most problematic. A new institution, which is concerned with the new forms of preparatory investigations, has been added to our penal legislation in the past few years due to the new forms of manifestation of criminality and the international acts ratified by our country.

1. We are in favor of the idea that besides the prosecutor, the tribunal must also be involved in all the activities of preparatory investigations to guarantee justice and to end arbitrary decision.
2. The legal basis which regulates this institution is not complete and it does not provide the necessary guarantees for a regular legal process.
3. The cases of power abuse by the officer of the judicial police or the infiltrated agent must be sanctioned by law.
4. A disciplinary measure, which is part of the competences of the prosecutor, is not enough. Penal responsibility must be provided for those officers of the judicial police who cross the legal limits when exerting their duty. In the interest of justice, it would not be good to act without conventional and moral limits because the lack of limits would lead to the fabrication of organized crime rather than to its disclosure and prevention.
5. There must be specialized and neutral structures which would carry out parallel controls over the activity of the undercover agent. This would be an additional guarantee for an activity in full compliance with the law.
6. Prosecutors must follow frequent trainings to clarify the concepts and implementation of new law changes and for enhancing the efficiency of the use of special methods of investigation.

Reference

European Convention of Human Rights.
Khoudobine vs Russie (2004), Eurofinacom vs France, the legality of the procedure in which the suspicions of the policeman were based in “concrete elements, indicating the beginning of committing a penal offence”.
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The Penal Legislations of several European countries.
Penal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania, Article 30, “the functions of the judicial police”.
Sustainable Management in Agriculture

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Abstract
In the modern economy, sustainable development of enterprises is impossible without effective sustainable management, which is extremely important for the development of agricultural enterprises. Nevertheless, the issues of the environmental performance are also essential, because reducing the environmental impact of the production is increasingly necessary in today's world. Initially, this article describes the theoretical aspects, concepts and examples of interaction between the sustainable management, the environmental performance and sustainable supply chain management. Hereafter, in the article was investigated the practice of sustainable management used in the huge and small rural European enterprises and with the SWOT-analysis compared the approaches of their application.

1. Introduction
Sustainable development necessary for all sectors of the economy, especially in the underdeveloped regions, such as the countryside. Precisely the rural areas with the lack of high developed industry needs the sustainable agricultural production and economical development, which can reduce the number of hungry people and alleviate rural poverty. The tool for sustainable development is sustainable management, its components are discussed below.

Research question of this article: which factors (leverages) are essential for the success of agricultural sustainable management?

2. Methodology
There were conducted interviews with managers of the different sizes agricultural enterprises about sustainability issues. Then, based on the literature review and interviews data, it was conducted the SWOT-analysis of the practices applying sustainable management.

3. Literature browse
Agriculture, farming and food production are essential elements of the economy in every society. In terms of indirect effects, any significant cut back in European farming activity would in turn generate losses in GDP and jobs in linked economic sectors – notably within the agri-food supply chain, which relies on the EU primary agricultural sector for high quality, competitive and reliable raw material inputs, as well as in non-food sectors. (CAP http://eur-lex.europa.eu).

The main contribution of the CAP – a territorially and environmentally balanced EU agriculture within an open economic environment. In other words, the directions of the CAP there are: developing rural areas and farming simultaneously taking care of the environment and long-term food security (CAP http://eur-lex.europa.eu).

As an integral part of the CAP, rural development policy has proved its value by reinforcing the sustainability of the EU's farm sector and rural areas – economically, environmentally and socially (CAP http://eur-lex.europa.eu).

Sustainability - is very wide and multi-pronged economic category that affects almost all aspects of activity and functioning of the enterprise.

Hendriques and Richardson consider, in generally, two main kinds of approach to sustainability: 'top down' and 'inside out'. Top down approach emphasize management measurement and control. Inside out approach stress the importance of change and innovation (Hendriques, Richardson, 2004). Nevertheless in agriculture for achieving sustainable development is necessary to combine both this approaches.

The core concept of sustainability as an contemporary economic category, is a classical symbol TBL (Triple Bottom Line), coined by J. Elkington, integrates the key components of sustainability. Because, the interaction of 3 important aspects (economy, social, environment, or people, profit, planet) has the effect of sustainable development. These three components anyway evident in modern relevant literature in the discussion the sustainability and path for its
accomplishment.

Achieving sustainability is a complex process that requires attending to issues such as resource depletion, waste generation, population growth, species diversity, sociocultural diversity, social justice, economic justice, environmental justice, and aesthetic beauty (Gladwin, Kennelly and Krause 1995).

The MAFF (UK Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries) defines sustainable agriculture as:
1. ensuring the continuing availability to the consumer of adequate supplies of wholesome, varied and reasonably-priced food, produced in accordance with generally accepted environmental and social standards;
2. maintaining a competitive and flexible industry which contributes to an economically viable rural society;
3. ensuring effective protection of the environment and prudent use of natural resources;
4. conserving and enhancing the landscape, wildlife, cultural and archaeological value of agricultural land;
5. respecting a high level of animal welfare (MAFF, 2002).

According to Warhurst sustainability indicators collected in Tab. 1

Table 1. Groups of indicators (Sourse: Warhurst, 2002)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sustainability</th>
<th>environmental</th>
<th>economic</th>
<th>social</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Natural resource protection; Environmental strategy; Management of local environmental impact</td>
<td>Sustainable economic performans; Economic impact of the industry; Employment impacts of the industry</td>
<td>Internal stakeholder relations; External stakeholder relations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The current EU development policy is based on three separate axes:
− improving the competitiveness of the agricultural and forestry sector;
− improving the environment and the countryside;
− improving the quality of life in rural areas and encouraging diversification of the rural economy (http://ec.europa.eu/agriculture/rurdev/index_en.htm).

According to FAO, sustainability – it is a multi-dimensional concept encompassing environmental integrity, social well-being, economic resilience and good governance (Tab.2): each dimension involves several issues and all dimensions need to be considered. Sustainability is an ambitious objective that can be reached through different pathways (FAO, 2013).

Table 2. Sustainability dimensions (Sourse: FAO 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Governance</th>
<th>Social</th>
<th>Environment</th>
<th>Economy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>holistic management; governance structure rule of low; accountability; participation</td>
<td>cultural diversity; equity; human health and safety; labour rights; decent livelihood</td>
<td>atmosphere; water; land; materials and energy; biodiversity; animal welfare</td>
<td>investments; vulnerability; local economy; product safety and quality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other issues of sustainable development there are risk management and diversification of activities.

Many authors inclined to think that different types of diversification of rural economy or farmers non-agricultural activities (such as rural tourism, provision of leisure services and so on) provide benefit, improve the competitiveness, environment and quality of life in rural areas (De-Magistris, Dries, Pasucci, Gardenbroek, 2012).

Applying sustainability in organizations means implementing sustainable strategic management systems that provide economically beneficial ways for organizations to effectively incorporate the environmental, social and cultural complexities of sustainability into their strategic decision-making process (IEBM vol.2).

At the micro level, environmental and social aspects of TBL are reflected in the CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility) policy of rural enterprisers.

Experience of some huge international agricultural companies can use as a very good example illustrating
successful practice of sustainable management.

Reducing environmental impact and tackling the complex economic and social challenges are the main directions CSR such companies.

Their sustainability is achieved using the wide diversification of the agricultural production, high quality and risk management. And considering a high level of economic profitability is given great attention to the environmental and social aspects.

And return to the above TBL, the interaction of the three components of sustainability in this case is showed on Fig. 1:

In general terms, agricultural sustainable management should be consider together with its components and should be based on it (Fig. 2)

Effective farm management - the basis of rural sustainable development.

According the CAP, the EU has some 14 million farmers with a further 4 million people working in the food sector. The farming and food sectors together provide 7% of all jobs and generate 6% of European gross domestic product (CAP).

Farm management as considered here is a professional discipline which relates to the description, construction, analysis and evaluation of farm systems. Farm management as carried out by farmers has been defined (Dillon 1980) as ‘the process by which resources and situations are manipulated by the farm manager in trying, with less than full information, to achieve his [or her] goals’.

Farm management – it is not only the correct application specific techniques (soil analysis, seed selection, animal breeding etc.). According to FAO, farm management is the science (and art) of optimizing the use of resources in the farm component of farm-households. Decisions in farm management must then be made using economic analysis based on non-money values, intuition and judgement. And in yet other cases, such as assessing the resource sustainability and environmental compatibility of alternative farm systems, it may often be infeasible to impute money values to the gains and losses of alternative choices.

Obviously other farm and family-related disciplines will be involved in systems' construction: agronomy, animal husbandry, soil and water conservation/management, human nutrition etc. Nevertheless, economics is the disciplinary basis of farm management. And the most important for small traditional farms are sociology and social anthropology (FAO). However, crucial external factor for every kind of farm enterprises is supply chain management, because farmers
receive the income after selling their products.

International Encyclopedia of Business and Management (IEBM) defines a supply chain as a set of suppliers of and their suppliers, and costumers and their costumers, and the physical and information flows which link them together. The concept of a supply chain brings together insights and notions from a number of related sources — purchasing, physical distribution systems, logistics, industrial marketing, information systems and technology, and inventory management to name a few (IEBM 2002).

And consequently, supply chain management — the management of a complex system with its complex of suppliers, costumers, physical and information flows, and issues of geography, ownership and control (IEBM 2002).

There are a multitude of mechanisms that are important in supply-chain management in agriculture. These include varying forms of hedging and cross-hedging, use of contracting mechanisms, geographic diversification and use of buffer stocks. Other words, geographic diversification is a relevant strategy for supply-chain management.

The traditional means of managing risks in the supply chain is hedging. Risk management lets manage risks related to quantity, quality, price risk, as well as logistical risks including risks in modal arrivals, transit times, etc. (Wilson 2010).

Increased consumption of biofuels from 954,280.6 (2000) to 1,132,462.3 (2009) kt of oil equivalent (according to FAOSTAT) in all over the world indicates about environmental rural development. Another example of eco-efficient rural activity is farm organic.

Organic area rose by almost 30 percent in the second half of the last decade (FAO-FiBL-IFOAM)

Organic farm - one of the intensively developing eco-friendly activities in agriculture, despite its cost and restrictions that must be observed during the producing process. Nevertheless, not all rural enterprises can follow restrictions for organic production, because its extremely decrease productivity.

Specialists of rural enterprises are also paying attention accountability. Because it enables efficiently manage the rural enterprise and solve arising problems. In some cases, providing sustainability - is the executing of the developed plan and risk management, as well as daily monitoring of the production process. Control and managing in rural enterprisers is carried through the collection and processing of data.

The importance of the accountability is written by Hendriques and Richardson, they assert, that shareholders and government will be interested in economic issues. It is therefore not appropriate to confine accountability to the social dimension of sustainability. So, in relation to the nature of corporate activity, accountability is an integral part of the process of implementing all aspects of sustainability. It is also true that the way in which accountability may be discharged is similar, whatever the sphere of accountability (Hendriques, Richardson).

Below (Tab. 3) is SWOT-analysis of the applying sustainable management practices, which show different factors affecting the sustainable rural enterprise.

**Table 3.** SWOT-analysis of the applying sustainable management practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal</th>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weakness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- biodiversity —reduces impact of seasonality and allows to receive income during the year;</td>
<td>- expenditures for social projects (are very expensive);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- sufficient level of financial stability (needed for investment and loan)</td>
<td>- unskilled staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>Opportunities</td>
<td>Threats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- competitiveness;</td>
<td>- reducing the prices for farm products;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- the opening of new rural markets;</td>
<td>- unfavorable weather conditions;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- reputation of the enterprise;</td>
<td>- public policy change (reduction of subsidies, taxation percentage increasing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- reducing environmental impact</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4. Conclusions**

Agricultural sustainability and sustainable management - the categories described in the current scientific literature repeatedly. After coined TBL in the middle of 1990-th, definition of the sustainability had become more specific.
In order to achieve a sufficient level of rural sustainability at farm enterprises needed the holistic systems approach, which consider internal and external influent factors.

From a theoretical and practical point of view, which is shared by scientists and managers, using the internal potential such as different types of diversification in rural enterprises - is one of the main pathways to achieve the sustainability in farm management, and the quality and competitiveness of agricultural products.

5. Limitations

In the end there are some limitations in the paper. Firstly, this is theoretical review article, because, considering the differences in standards of living and levels of rural development in the different countries of the European Union, it is impossible to establish a specific framework for determining the sustainability. Secondly, indicators of financial stability, accountancy, the amount of environmental payments to and social programs in many enterprises are confidential information, which complicates the conducting a detailed comparative analysis of the agricultural sustainability.

6. Acknowledgment

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A Bird after Love: Ibn’ Hazm’s
The Ring of the Dove (Tawq al- Hamāmah ) and the Roots of Courtly Love

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Abstract

The concept of love covers a considerable place in the world literature both in the West and the East. Commonly, the works on love in the Western literature such as Ovid’s Ars Amatoria and Andreas Capellanus’ The Art of Courtly Love are well known compared to the studies on love in the Eastern literature. However, there is a great deal and variety of love literature in the East, ranging from the explorations of divine love within the context of Sufi writings to profane love. Indeed, the Arabic literature on love in the Middle Ages is widely acknowledged to contribute much to the European literature. Dealing with love in more secular aspects, among others, Ibn’ Hazm’s The Ring of the Dove (Tawq al- Hamāmah) becomes the representative of profane and courtly love in the Eastern literature. Gaining universal appeal through numerous translations due to its significance in particular for the studies about the troubadours and the roots of courtly love, The Ring of the Dove forms a bridge between the studies on love in the medieval Eastern and Western literature. Although he had been harshly criticized by his Spanish- Arab countrymen due to his approach to love in The Ring of the Dove; Ibn’ Hazm have received the greatest attention by the modern scholars who are interested in profane love in the Arabic literature. Accordingly, this paper aims to portray the traces of profane and courtly love in the Arabic literature as reflected in Ibn’ Hazm’s The Ring of the Dove.

Keywords: Arabic literature; courtly love; Middle Ages; the Ring of the Dove; profane love.

Love is the only reason for the world’s existence and it is away from sensual feelings; it is dangerous, but it is still the warmness in heart based on mutual intimacy and respect between lovers. Lover is the one who unconditionally accepts his/her lover and whose character changes when s/he is in love. ¹

1. Introduction: Love in the Arabic Literature and its Reflections in the Western World

Love is one of the most treated themes in literature; yet, the literary products of the West on love such as Ovid’s Ars Amatoria and Andreas Capellanus’ The Art of Courtly Love are well-recognised compared to those of the East. Indeed, with a close look at the East, it is possible to encounter a great deal of love literature especially in the Arabic literature in the medieval age which is accepted to contribute much to the European literature. Allen (1998) states that the theme of love in the Arabic literature has varieties, and it can be ranged from the explorations of divine love- within the context of Sufi writings- to the studies on the delights and dangers of profane love. In his work Epistle on Passion (Risālah fi al-īshg), Ibn Sina searches for the divine love and takes intellect and passion as the two qualities which consist the real nature of the “necessary existence” (p. 249), thus keeping the balance between intellect and passion becomes a significant part of moral judgment and of the connection of humanity to the divine being. Thereby, the pains and delights of love and martyrdom are important themes in early love poetry as emphasized in the contexts of Sufi writings; furthermore, on the way of love, there is a constant struggle in which the believers are in a quest for transcendent experience (Allen 1998, p. 249).

The Arabic literature in regard to love in more secular aspects embodies multifarious works whose concerns are related to the texts from Qur’an like Ibn al-Jawzi’s work Condemnation of Desire which warns believers against the dangers of the passionate love.

Among such works, Ibn Taymiyyah’s work Meadow of Lovers and Diversion of the Infatuated has a significant

¹The definition of love was written in line with the love definitions of 10 Phd students of English literature in the Department of English Language and Literature at Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey.
place. This masterpiece is about the essence of desire and passion and gives advices to a young man who is in a dilemma between the delight of love and the danger of sin. In the work, Taymiyyah also highlights many issues in the corpus of love literature and criticizes the Sufi’s notion of martyrdom in love. In his work, Taymiyyah also attacks Ibn’ Hazm and states that the approach of Ibn’ Hazm in Tawq al- Hamāmah (The Ring of the Dove) is shocking. Taymiyyah vilifies Ibn’ Hazm’s work as he supports that the work accepts the morally wrong behaviour by portraying the meeting of lovers with secret glances (Allen, 1998, p. 250). Another important figure in the Arabic literature is Ibn’ al- Qayyim who also attacks Ibn’ Hazm as Ibn’ Hazm supports that “one could freely enjoy at looking at a person not “lawful” to one, though touching him or her was forbidden” (as cited in Giffen, 1971, p. 129). Another startling element in Ibn’ Hazm’s work is its open and honest approach through which Ibn’ Hazm explores the exiting adventures of Andalusians who are his contemporaries, which increases the value of the work at the same time (Allen, 1998, p. 251).

In fact, profane love occupies a great room in the Arabic literature. In The Theory of Profane Love among the Arabs, Giffen (1971) explores the development of the genre of profane love which underlines “human, earthly love, its nature, causes and vicissitudes” (p. v). Giffen supports that Arabic works on profane love in the Middle Ages do not only discuss the literary tradition, but also “psychology, philosophy, cosmology, theology, ethics, practical piety and Islamic law.” (p. v). Giffen (1971) continues that theme of love and its problems have a great place in the literatures of the world; however, its causes, types and nature are less frequently emphasized. In the Arabic literature, although the diwans of poetry or tales about love are greatest in number, there is also a great number of works on profane love. Due to the religious and mystical factors in the Islamic world, the works on mystical love is greater in number than profane love, yet it is possible to see that the ethical, religious and mystical issues are hand in hand even in the works on profane love (p. xi).

The interest of the modern scholars on the profane love in the Arabic literature turns back to 1914 in which K.K Petrof published the first edition of Ibn’ Hazm’s Tawq al- Hamāmah (The Ring of the Dove). The work encouraged examining other similar works, but it attracted the greatest attention depending on its significance in general for the history of Spanish literature and in particular for the studies about the troubadours (Giffen, 1971, p. xi). There are several articles about The Ring of the Dove written by Emilio Garcia Gomez and the work was translated into English in 1931 by A.R Nykl which made the book accessible to non-orientalists and especially to the specialists in the European Middle Ages and Renaissance who were interested in the cultural relations with the Islamic world. In his book, Nykl also included an essay on the relationships between Spanish Arabic and troubadour poetry (as cited in Giffen, 1971, p. xii).

The translation of Nykl followed various studies and other translations of The Ring of the Dove such as a Russian translation by A. Salie in 1933, a German one by Max Weisweiler and a new Arabic version with French translation by Leon Kercher in 1941, an Italian translation by Francesco Gabrieli in 1949, a Spanish translation by Emilio Garcia Gomez in 1952, and an English translation by Arthur Arberry in 1953. Apart from Ibn’ Hazm’s work, there are other works from the Arabic literature on profane love which gained great interest in the Western world such as Ibn Quayim al- Jauziya’s Raudat al- Muhibbin (The Garden of Lovers) published in 1930 and Muhammad b. Da’ ud’s Kitāb as- Zahra (The Book of the Flower) which was published in 1932 (Giffen, 1971, p. xii).

2. The origins of courtly love and the attitudes of the West towards the contribution of the East to the European literature

Analyzing Ibn’ Hazm’s The Ring of the Dove as a work of courtly and profane love, the interactions between the Arabic literature and the Western literature are of great significance. The Arabic literature is regarded to have a considerable impact on the Western literature; however, according to Menocal (1987), it took a very long time for the western people to accept this contribution. This is also the case about the origins of courtly love which, as Barrack (2013) suggests, is one of the recurrent issues discussed in medieval studies since “of the several theories advanced to explain this cultural phenomenon, the Hispanic-Arabic hypothesis (proposed by Burdach (1925) remains one of the most promising and contested” (p.173). Listing the five main sources of courtly love as ballad, liturgical, Classical Latin, and Arabic; Denomy (1953) suggests that the debate will continue until the real origin of courtly love is discovered (p.45). About the debate, Menocal asserts that the opposition of medievalists and Hispanists to the origins of the poems of troubadours [or courtly love] “stems less from scholarly objections than from the fact ‘that European scholarship has an a priori view of, and set of assumptions about, its medieval past that is far from conducive to viewing its Semitic components as formative and central” (1987, p. xiii). Furthermore, Menocal emphasizes the use of double standard related to justification and documentation of the works in the comparative studies. She supports that although the European literature welcomes the contribution of Celtic and Germanic studies with little justification, the contribution of Hispano- Arabic to troubadour poetry is largely questioned and requires rigid evidence. Menocal claims that the traditional literary historiography cannot come up
with the sound revision of the medieval history since it depends on the model of the westernness of European literature and the otherness of non-European and evaluates history in line with the “winners” (1987, as cited in Meisami, 1991, p. 346). Meisami (1991) asserts that this double standard comes from the fact that we deny the cultural influence of the alien culture on our cultures foundation, but we should not avoid “the mixed ancestry for western Europe” (p. 346) which contributes much to our history. With the same token, Von Grune Baum points out that “the interactions between East and West in Middle Ages will never be correctly diagnosed or correctly assessed and appraised unless their fundamental cultural unity is realized and taken into consideration” (as cited in Meisami, 1991, p. 348).

To support her argument, Meisami (1991) also touches upon the interactions between the East and the West and lists the Arabic speaking singers and musicians in Europe, the movement of scholars, merchants, translators and poets between Europe, Spain, Sicily and the East and the connection through pilgrimages, military engagements, marriage and trade. Moreover, Meisami associates the double-standardisation with the political, colonial and religious issues like crusades and she also argues that the Arabic was the prestigious language of a high culture and the people who learnt it were not concerned with the doctrinal issues but the cultivation of that culture (p. 347). Finally, Meisami (1991) points out that among the numerous assumptions about the roots of courtly love, the probability of non-European, non-Christian sources is mostly refused. She underlines that “the rise of this area of study came during the period when Europe was shaping its views of the Arabs as colonial subjects” (p. 348) and the Arabist theory of origin was not taken into consideration and even became a taboo; so that only the theories which were in line with the “fundamental principle of Europeanness” (p. 348) were later discussed in the related studies.

3. Ibn' Hazm and The Ring of the Dove

The Ring of the Dove (Tawq al- Hamāmah) was written by Abu Muhammad Ali Ibn' Hazm who was born at Cordova in 994-1064. He was the greatest scholar of the Muslim Spain. Of Ibn' Hazm, Watt states that he was “far and away the most outstanding scholar of al-Andalus…” (as cited in Hummel, 2008, p. 34). His works “include compositions on Islamic law, theology, heresiography, history, and ethics, as well as the phenomenology of love” (Rosen, 2004, p. 211). Ibn' Hazm was a very prolific writer and his son, Abu Rafi, stated that “Ibn' Hazm’s written works numbered four hundred volumes, consisting of 80, 000 pages in his own handwriting. No other scholar in Muslim history ... produced such a volume of writings” (Haider, 1987, p. 55). Ibn' Hazm belonged to a Regenade family, but in spite of his Christian ancestors; he followed his descent to a Persian freedman of Yazib Abi Sufyan. His father occupied the position of Vizier under Mansir Ibn Amir and Ibn' Hazm also was interested in politics and before the age of thirty, he became the prime minister of Abdu l’Rahman. However, upon the fall of the Umayyad Government, he dedicated his life entirely to literature. He was accepted as a learned writer, poet, biographer and historian (Nicholsan, 1969, p. 426). He received a good education in both the religious and secular sciences and he was for the sciences of ancients which included logic, mathematics, astronomy, medicine and other sciences (Chejne, 1984, p. 57). Nykl (1923) states that Ibn' Hazm was treated unjustly by his Spanish- Arab countrymen and although he was one of the most prolific writers in Islam, very few of his works have come to light today, since they were burnt by his opponents (p. 30). About his works’ putting into flames, Ibn' Hazm remarks that:

The Paper ye may burn, but what the paper holds
'Ye cannot burn: 'tis safe within my breast: where I
Remove, it goes with me, alights when I alight,
And in my tomb will lie. (cited in Nicholsan, 1969, p. 427)

With regard to his aim in learning and writing, Ibn' Hazm expresses that “my only desire is seeking knowledge to attain a high scientific rank in this world and the next” (cited in Nicholsan, 1969, p. 427). Due to his contemporaries' hostility towards him since he attacked the most religious authorities of Islam, Ibn' Hazm was expelled from different provinces of Spain and withdrew to a village and stayed there until his death. In The Ring of the Dove (2004), Ibn' Hazm touches upon the hostility towards himself by his contemporaries:

. . . my antagonists, being choked in intellectual debate with me, cast foul reproaches in my face, and accused me of espousing the cause of untruth; this they did because they were unable to refute my arguments in defence of truth and its
champions, and were jealous of my debating prowess. (Of Fidelity, para. 23)²

Among his valuable works apart from The Ring of the Dove, Kitabu'l- Milal wa-'Nihal (Book of Religions and Sects) is very significant in which he argues about Islam and its dogmas as well as the non-Muhammadan religious systems such as Judaism and Christianity (Nicholsan, 1969, p. 427). Ibn’ Hazm wrote The Ring of the Dove (1027) after he finished his last term in prison. Ibn’ Hazm stayed away from the political life and wrote a great deal in the fields of profane love and theology. As aforementioned, he was in conflict with his contemporaries and there was a famous saying of the time “the pen of Ibn’ Hazm was like the sword of al-Hajjaj (the notorious Umayyad governor of Iraq) in sharpness” (Giffen, 1971, p. 23). The Ring of the Dove seems to have come down in a single manuscript at Leiden which is not a complete work but a perfect example of the original work; therefore, it is not possible to know how much of the original work was kept. Moreover, today’s version was also known to be changed by numerous scholars who corrected some of its mistakes and explained most of its obscure parts (Giffen, 1971, p. 24).

The title of the work is also very significant as dove’s necklace stands for the feathers around the neck of the doves and in the classical Arabic literature; it symbolizes the chain of love which is worn around the neck till one’s death. Moreover, in the old African tribes, the dove’s necklace symbolizes grandeur (“Güvercin Gerdanlığı,” 2008, para. 1).

With regard to the title, Doruk underlines that in modern times, it was found out that the doves have a specific ring around their necks called “manyetit” (magnetite) which works like a compass and helps the doves to find their ways. Doruk adds that the dove’s neck refers to the compass of love in the Arabic literature which proves that this recently discovered magnetite had known by the ancients long before today (“Güvercin Gerdanlığı’nı Anarak Endülüs’ü Dolaşmak, 2005, para. 12). Additionally, Chejne indicates that Ibn’ Hazm’s The Ring of the Dove is one of the most pleasing works of Arabic literature. In the work, Ibn’ Hazm deals with love “its nature, its symptoms, its causes, faultfinding, slander, union, loyalty, betrayal, separation, oblivion, illicit practices, etc” (1984, p. 57). Allen, Kilpatrick, & de Moor (1995) state that Ibn’ Hazm’s The Ring of the Dove is “perhaps the only work of classical Arabic belles-lettres to have been widely translated into European languages . . . (p. 10). Similarly, Gibb mentions that the main figure of the prose literature of the century is Ibn’ Hazm and his work The Ring of the Dove is one of the few works of Arabic literature which gained universal appeal (1966, p. 114). Ortega y Gasset defines the work as “the most illustrious [book] on the theme of love in Moslem civilization” (1952, as cited in Barrack, 2013, p.174).

Praising The Ring of the Dove in her article Güvercin Gerdanlığı ve Aşk (The Ring of the Dove and Love), Turkish academic Çınar remarks that The Ring of the Dove comprises a large field from psychology to ethics, from law to anthropology and culture to linguistics which reflects that Ibn’ Hazm was even at that time aware of the significance of interdisciplinary studies (2008, para. 15). Allen (1998) also defines The Ring of the Dove as charming and praises Ibn’ Hazm’s use of intimate and confidential tone as reflected in the following extract from the work:

The lover hurries to the spot where the beloved is at the moment, endeavors to sit as near him as possible sidles up close to him, lays aside all occupations that might oblige him to leave his company, makes light of any matter however weighty that would demand his parting from him, is very slow to move when he takes his leave of him. I have put this somewhere into verse (Ibn’ Hazm, 2004, The Signs of Love, para.4):

No captive for the gallows bound
With more reluctance quits his cell
Than I thy presence, in profound
Regret to say farewell. (Ibn’ Hazm, 2004, The Signs of Love, para. 5)

Allen (1998) asserts that it was these aforementioned qualities which made The Ring of the Dove an appealing work in Europe; thereby, it was translated into a number of languages. In the English speaking world, the work became popular by the translation of Sir Richard Burton from the French version to English in 1850. Allen (1998) also argues that an earlier translation of the work might not been possible more probably due to the Victorian sensibility which is in clash with the homosexual practices in the work (pp. 251-252).

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2 Throughout the paper, A.J. Arberry’s translation of The Ring of the Dove (2004) was used.
3 All translations from Turkish are my own.
4. **The Ring of the Dove as a work of courtly and profane love**

Moller states that when courtly love was introduced into the High Middle Ages, it was entirely based on oral tradition and reciting accompanied by music. Gaining a significance place in nobility, it could survive as it was transmitted through writings of significant members of the nobility in Old Provencal and in Middle High German such as William IX of Aquitaine and Henry VI of Hohenstaufen. Eventually, “the chance of personal and local interest determined the composition of anthologies in the later thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. . .” (1960, p. 39). The main characteristic of these early works was “the poet’s preoccupation with the amorous cult of a lady who is venerated as the sovereign of all his thoughts, feelings, and actions” (1960, p.40). Of the courtly love in medieval Spain, Green (1949) remarks that the concept of courtly love in Spain is closely related to “medieval ideas on medicine and psychology, on the soul and its passions, and, in general, to mediaeval moral philosophy and theology; but its ultimate source is to be found in the love poetry of the troubadours which spread to all the courts of Europe” (p. 247). As the most significant exemplar of the works on courtly love in Mediaeval Spain, even the structure of Ibn’ Hazm’s *The Ring of the Dove* is noteworthy in terms of its reflection of courtly love tradition. The work consists of thirty parts which deal with love in different subtitles such as of the nature of love, the signs of love, on falling in love at first sight, on falling in love through a description, of concealing the secret, of the messenger, of fidelity, of betrayal and of separation all of which highlight the characteristics of courtly love. Similarly, Giffen (1971) mentions that *The Ring of the Dove* is a mainly prose work about the theory of profane love, how love begins and develops, how a love affair managed and ended through causal selections of poetry in line with the present subject (p. 11). In the first chapter, the author deals with the essence, nature and causes of love then he comes to the main subject, the situation of lovers in the order of related happenings (Giffen, 1971, p.69). In fact, in *The Ring of the Dove* Ibn’ Hazm defines love as “…a conjunction between scattered parts of souls that have become divided in this physical universe, a union effected within the substance of their original sublime element” (2004, Of the Nature of Love, para. 5) which might remind one of today’s popular concept of soul mate. Furthermore, Ibn’ Hazm supports that love is not a sin, but a natural phenomena:

> . . . it is sufficient for a good Moslem to abstain from those things which Allah has forbidden, and which, if he choose to do, he will find charged to his account on the Day of Resurrection. But to admire beauty, and to be mastered by love that is a natural thing, and comes not within the range of Divine commandment and prohibition . . . (2004, Of Concealing the Secret, para. 2).

About the reason for falling in love, Ibn’ Hazm claims that neither the physical beauty nor the harmony in nature is the cause for love since no reason is necessary for falling in love:

> If the cause of Love were physical beauty, the consequence would be that no body defective in any shape or form would attract admiration; yet we know of many a man actually preferring the inferior article, though well aware that another is superior, and quite unable to turn his heart away from it. Again, if Love were due to a harmony of characters, no man would love a person who was not of like purpose and in concord with him. We therefore conclude that Love is something within the soul itself. (2004, Of the Nature of Love, para.6)

Ibn’ Hazm also lists different types of love and differentiates true love from the others as he supports that no certain reason is necessary for falling in *true love* (emphasis added) whose source is the fusion of souls:

> The noblest sort, of Love is that which exists between persons who love each other in God . . . Next to this is the love, which springs from kinship; then the love of familiarity and the sharing of identical aims; the love of comradeship and acquaintance. . . the love that is based upon a shared secret which both must conceal. . . In none of the other sorts of love does anything like this happen: that mental preoccupation, that derangement of the reason, that melancholia, that transformation of settled temperaments, and alteration of natural dispositions, that moodiness, that sighing, and all the other, symptoms of profound agitation which accompany [real] love. All this proves that true Love is a spiritual approbation, a fusion of souls. (2004, Of the Nature of Love, para.12-13)

As suggested in its subtitles, *The Ring of the Dove* displays many characteristics of courtly love. For example, Ibn’ Hazm lists the symptoms of love such as continuously looking at or talking about one’s lover and sleeplessness: “Sleeplessness too is a common affliction of lovers; the poets have described this condition frequently, relating how they watch the stars, and giving an account of the night's interminable length” (2004, The Signs of Love, para.19). Ibn’ Hazm also emphasizes the change for better in one’s character when s/he is in love which is highlighted in courtly love as well:

> A man in love will give prodigally to the limit of his capacity, in a way that formerly he would have refused; as if he were the one receiving the donation, he the one whose happiness is the object in view; all this in order that he may show off his good points,
As Barrack (2013) suggests, the lovers’ change in the same way is portrayed in “the ethic of courtly love in Hohenstaufen Germany” (the House of Hohenstaufen was a dynasty of German monarchs ruling from 1138 to 1254 when German literature was famous for its lyrical love poetry basing upon courtly culture) and in the love lyric of al-Andalus just like in the lines of al-Baha Zuhair: “my nature has become noble through love, and anyone who wants to inquire about me and investigate this can do so . . .” (as cited in Barrack, p. 177). Ecker (1934, p. 150) also emphasises that “in Provencal, the same theme later appears in the lyrics of Guillaume IX as well as in the lyrics of Bernard de Ventadour, who avers that through the beloved, he has achieved value, meaning, and a more joyful heart, and, therefore, a kinder heart” (as cited in Barrack, 2013, p. 177). Another element of courtly love, secrecy, is depicted in the Provencal poetry and in Hohenstaufen Germany since “revealing the true name of the beloved was viewed as the greatest act of uncouthness by both the German and Provencal poets of Courtly Love” (Barrack, 2013, p. 183). The same point is underlined in Ibn’ Hazm’s The Ring of the Dove as such: “One of the attributes of Love is holding the tongue; the lover will deny everything if interrogated, affect a great show of fortitude, and make it appear that he is extremely continent and a confirmed bachelor” (2004, Of Concealing the Secret, par.1). Subservience and loyalty were also depicted as the significant characteristic of courtly love in al-Andalus, Provence, and Hohenstaufen Germany. Similarly, in his The Ring of the Dove, Ibn’ Hazm remarks that “among the laudable instincts, noble characteristics and virtuous habits by which men may be adorned, whether they are engaged in lovemaking or any other activity, Fidelity ranks high” (2004, Of Fidelity, para.1). As for subservience of the lovers, Ibn’ Hazm states that

One of the wonderful things that occur in Love is the way the lover submits to the beloved, and adjusts his own character by main force to that of his loved one. Often and often you will see a man stubborn by disposition, intractable, jibbing at all control, determined, arrogant, always ready to take umbrage; yet no sooner let him sniff the soft air of love, plunge into its waves, and swim in its sea, than his stubbornness will have suddenly changed to docility, his intractability to gentleness, his determination to easy-going, his arrogance to submission. (2004, Of Compliance, para.1).

As mentioned before apart from heterosexual love, Ibn’ Hazm’s work contains a great number of homosexual practices which is one of the reasons for his contemporaries’ hostility to him. In the following extract, Ibn’ Hazm tells about a homosexual relationship of a respected man in his surrounding:

[Ahmad b. Feth] had cast off all restraint on falling in love with a certain goldsmith’s son called Ibrahim Ibn Ahmad. I knew this young man, well enough to be aware that his qualities did not merit his being loved by a person of a good family, in a prominent position, and possessed of broad estates and an ample patrimony. . . He had become the talk of the town; all tongues wagged of his adventure; his name was banded through the countryside, and the scandalmongers ran everywhere with tales of his amazing escapade. (2004, Of Divulging the Secret, para.11)

Furthermore, The Ring of the Dove is regarded as a masterpiece and a milestone of the culture of Muslim Spain through which one can have valuable insights into the intimate life of Cordova of the eleventh century (Giffen, 1971, p. 25). Indeed, being an acute and wise observer of the society and portraying love relationships in his surroundings, Ibn’ Hazm provides the reader with a lively picture of Muslim Spain:

Now I remember a party that was held in our residence, on one of those occasions that are commonly made the excuse for such festivities in the houses of persons, of rank. The ladies of our household and of my brother’s also (God have mercy on his soul!) were assembled together, as well as the womenfolk of our retainers and faithful servants, all thoroughly nice and jolly folk. The ladies remained in the house for the earlier part of the day, and then betook themselves to a belvedere that was attached to our mansion, overlooking the garden and giving a magnificent view of the whole of Cordova; the bays were constructed with large open windows. (2004, Of Forgetting, para.36)

The Ring of the Dove also contains the poems and stories of the author himself. Giffen (1971) points out that the poems in the work aim to make clarify and summarize the author’s words. The poems are thought to add a great quality and originality to the work. The work, indeed, is concerned with the psychological phenomena of love in its prose parts; accordingly, Garcia Gomez takes the work as a psychological treatise (as cited in Giffen, 1971, p. 70). Moreover, although Ibn’ Hazm’s work The Ring of the Dove is not original in its general structure and theme, the author’s use of his poetry and stories of himself and of his contemporaries along with his peculiar direct and lively style brought something original to the works on profane love in the Arabic literature. Garcia Gomez supports that Ibn’ Hazm’s work is one of the
representations of a school of literature in Andalusia “which was aristocratic, Arabophile, nationalist, personal and independent in character” (as cited in Giffen, 1971, p.79). Additionally, with regard to its originality, Gomes adds that:

It sought to give full expression to the temperament and personality of the author. It scorned to indulge in the oriental vice of endless citations and quotations from earlier works or the conscious display of the author’s polish in grammar and rhetoric. The resulting freshness and individuality of the style make the Tauq al-Hamâma unique among its kind. (cited in Giffen, 1971, p.79)

Following the Arabic tradition on love, Ibn’ Hazm portrays the tragedies of love with his own tragic stories as well. He mentions generally about the Andalusians whom he knew personally and tells about their stories. His peculiar and lively style is not common in the Arabic literature. The work might be also considered un-Islamic in that it reflects the unacceptable conduct by much of the Islamic world which made the work the subject of the Western literature (Giffen, 1971, p. 25). Both in content and form, the influence of Ibn’ Hazm’s work on the similar works is great in the following centuries (Giffen, 1971, p. 79). Finally, Giffen (1971) claims that among the writers who wrote about profane love in the Arabic literature, Ibn’ Hazm is one of the most originals by his “rejecting the oriental tradition in so far as it demanded both the imitation of the traditional model and the quoting of predecessors or the repetition of old familiar stories of the lovers of the distant past” (p. 136).

5. Conclusion

Along with the great emphasis on mystical love and religion, profane love occupies a great room in the Arabic literature in the Middle Ages. In spite of the controversies over the Arabic origins of courtly love stemming from the love lyrics of al-Andalus, there are striking similarities between the accepted origins of courtly love (the Provençal poetry and the love lyrics in Hohenstaufen Germany) and the poetry on profane love in Medieval Spain. Accordingly, Ibn’ Hazm’s work The Ring of the Dove becomes the representative of profane and courtly love in the Eastern literature; thereby, it contributes much to the studies on the relationships between the medieval Eastern and Western literature. With his modern point of view, Ibn’ Hazm dares question the dogmas of his religion and sincerely depicts earthly love with its all dimensions through his keen observations in his conservative society. Moreover, away from the tradition of borrowing from the early works, Ibn’ Hazm achieves originality by including original stories and poems in his work. Finally, it can be supported that Ibn’ Hazm - a man whose works were put into flames like himself was put into prison for his secular ideas - was very ahead of his time and reflected courtly love in harmony with religion as it is highlighted in the preface of The Ring of the Dove: “No better beginning can there be for my book than that I should praise Almighty God as He is worthy, and pray for His blessings upon Mohammed His servant and messenger in particular, and upon all His prophets in general” (Ibn’ Hazm, 2004, par. 2). This harmony is also in line with Green’s argument in which he defines one of the main characteristics of courtly love, courtesy, as “the treatment of love as a religion” (1949, p.254).

References


Migration and Visa Liberalisation of Third Countries in E.U.

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Abstract

Only a year after signing the agreements of visa liberalization with Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia, the EU removed the borders even for Albania and Bosnia and Herzegovina. A category of people who meet certain requirements would benefit from this process and move freely in the EU area. The migration of the EU should be analyzed even although none of the treaties establishing the European Community provide specific rates on this policy. Art 8/A of the Single European Act provides the common market as “...a space without internal frontiers in which the free movement of goods, persons, services and capital...”. “No border area” requires the cooperation of member states in reinforcing controls on external borders and coordination in migration policies. The cooperation began as an intergovernmental one until the ratification of Amsterdam Treaty where many sections of this collaboration passed in the first pillar. This paper aims to analyze the evolution of the EU policy in migration focusing on the current legislative framework after the ratification of the Lisbon Treaty.

Keywords: visa liberalization, free movement of persons, migration in the EU, Schengen agreement, no border area.

1. Introduzione

La liberalizzazione dei visti Schengen in Serbia, Montenegro e Macedonia è avvenuta nel dicembre 2009. Un anno dopo il 15 dicembre 2010 la liberalizzazione dei visti Schengen è valida anche per Albania e Bosnia Erzegovina. La liberalizzazione si traduce in uno snellimento sostanziale delle procedure burocratiche. Gli accordi conclusi con la Repubblica d’Albania, la Bosnia-Erzegovina, la Repubblica del Montenegro, l’ex Repubblica Jugoslava di Macedonia e la Repubblica di Serbia mirano a facilitare il rilascio dei visti per soggiorni di breve durata ai cittadini di questi paesi per soggiorni di massimo 90 giorni per periodi di 180 giorni. Quando i cittadini di questi paesi partner richiedono un visto per soggiorni di breve durata, essi beneficiano di requisiti documentali semplificati per poter giustificare lo scopo del loro viaggio nell’Unione Europea. I negoziati per la conclusione di accordi sulla liberalizzazione dei visti si sono avviati subito dopo il vertice UE-Balcani occidentali svoltosi a Salonico il 21 giugno 2003 (“Agenda di Salonico”), in occasione del quale i partecipanti si sono accordati sul principio della liberalizzazione dei visti. Questo processo negoziale, parallelo alle discussioni sulla conclusione di accordi di riammissione, è sfociato l’8 novembre 2007 nell’adozione, da parte del Consiglio, di una decisione relativa a ciascuno dei paesi partner1, che ha sancito la conclusione di un accordo con ciascuno di essi, in base all’articolo 62 del trattato che istituisce la Comunità Europea (ora 77 TFUE) in combinato disposto con l’articolo 300 (ora 218 TFUE).

La politica della liberalizzazione dei visti rientra nelle misure previste dall’articolo 77, n. 2, TFUE necessarie per conseguire l’obiettivo dell’Unione di offrire “ai suoi cittadini uno spazio di libertà, sicurezza e giustizia senza frontiere interne, in cui sia assicurata la libera circolazione delle persone insieme a misure appropriate per quanto concerne i controlli alle frontiere esterne, l’asilo, l’immigrazione, la prevenzione della criminalità e la lotta contro quest’ultima” indicato dall’articolo 3, n. 2 TUE. La disciplina puntuale per realizzare tale obiettivo è stabilita nel Trattato sul

Funzionamento dell’Unione Europea (art. 67-89 Parte Terza, Titolo V, ripartito in cinque Capi). Il Capo due è dedicato alle Politiche relative ai controlli alle frontiere, all’asilo e all’immigrazione (art.77-80), politiche queste strettamente legate l’una con l’altra. Prima di analizzare le novità che introduce in tale materie il Trattato di Lisbona è necessario riportare una breve evoluzione excursus del quadro giuridico.

2. Excursus del quadro giuridico.

I trattati istitutivi della Comunità, non contenevano disposizioni in materia d’immigrazione e asilo, la disciplina legata ai cittadini di Stati terzi non era considerata d’interesse comune, ma come una materia di competenza esclusiva concernendo problemi di sicurezza pubblica e quindi espressione fondamentale della sovranità statale. Anche la libera circolazione delle persone obiettivo previsto alla lettera c) dell’art. 3, fu intesa come limitata a coloro che possedevano la cittadinanza di uno Stato membro, nonostante la disposizione utilizzava il termine “persone” senza alcun riferimento alla nazionalità e quindi idonea a comprendere anche i cittadini degli Stati terzi2. Anche l’art. 48, che prevedeva la libera circolazione dei lavoratori, non conteneva nessun riferimento alla nazionalità3, ma fu intesa dalle istituzioni comunitarie come limitata ai soli lavoratori che possedevano la cittadinanza di uno degli Stati membri4. Nella Comunicazione del 19795 la Commissione indicava nei problemi concernenti l’ammissione, il soggiorno, l’allontanamento e la parità di trattamento dei lavoratori migranti, i settori nei quali doveva realizzarsi l’armonizzazione in materia d’immigrazione, tuttavia i tentativi della Commissione per una armonizzazione in materia non produssero nessun successo. Invocando l’art. 118 come base giuridica nella Decisione n. 85/381/CEE6 la Commissione tentò di istituire un obbligo di comunicazione e concertazione sulle politiche migratorie degli Stati membri7. La Decisione fu impugnata da cinque Stati membri e annullata dalla Corte di Giustizia perché oltrepassava i limiti dei poteri assegnati alla Commissione dall’art. 118 TCEE8. La decisione della Corte nonostante accoglieva il ricorso di annullamento proposta dagli Stati, dall’altro lato poneva le basi per la creazione di una politica migratoria a livello comunitario. Con la sua decisione la Corte riconoscendo alla Commissione la competenza di adottare atti di natura vincolante in materia d’immigrazione, toglieva l’esclusiva agli Stati in una materia delicata e da sempre ritenuta dagli Stati membri come di loro competenza esclusiva poiché strettamente inerente ai problemi di sicurezza pubblica9, e apriva così la strada per l’inizio di una politica comunitaria in materia.

L’Atto Unico del 1986 non portò novità in materia nonostante l’interpretazione data dalla Commissione alla libera circolazione delle persone prevista dall’art. 8A, necessario per la realizzazione del mercato interno. Secondo l’interpretazione della Commissione, la libertà di circolazione doveva essere riconosciuta a tutti gli individui, indipendentemente dalla nazionalità10. Nel suo Libro Bianco11, la Commissione vedeva come necessaria per realizzare il mercato interno, l’abolizione dei controlli alle frontiere interne con la conseguenza di un rafforzamento degli stessi alle

\[\text{2} \quad \text{Il Trattato originario nella lettera c) art. 3 prevedeva l’"eliminazione fra gli Stati membri degli ostacoli alla libera circolazione delle merci, delle persone, dei servizi e dei capitali LANG. A, “La politica comunitaria in materia di immigrazione”, in DPCE, 2003, p. 698.}
\]
\[\text{3} \quad \text{Art. 48 par.1 “La libera circolazione dei lavoratori all’interno della Comunità è assicurata”.}
\]
\]
\[\text{5} \quad \text{Comunicazione della Commissione al Consiglio su “La consultazione relativa alle politiche di migrazione nei confronti degli Stati terzi”, COM (79) 115 def. del 27 marzo 1979.}
\]
\[\text{6} \quad \text{Decisione della Commissione dell’8 giugno 1988 che istituisce una procedura di comunicazione preliminare e di concertazione sulle politiche migratorie nei confronti dei paesi terzi, in GUCE, L 217 del 14 agosto 1985, p.25.}
\]
\[\text{7} \quad \text{Tale decisione faceva riferimento alle due Risoluzioni del Consiglio in materia dell’immigrazione, del 1976 e 19807, nonché a una Risoluzione del Parlamento Europeo del 9 giugno 1983 che invitava il Consiglio e la Commissione ad elaborare proposte “sull’armonizzazione delle politiche dei visti e della normativa riguardante i stranieri”.}
\]
\[\text{8} \quad \text{Sentenza della Corte di giustizia del 9 luglio 1987, cause riunite 281, 283, 284, 285 e 287/85, Repubblica federale di Germania, Repubblica francese, Regno dei Paesi Bassi, Regno di Danimarca e Regno Unito di Gran Bretagna e d’Irlanda del Nord c. Commissione delle Comunità europee, in Racc., 1987, p. 3203 ss.}
\]
\[\text{9} \quad \text{Tale tesi sostenuta fortemente dalla Francia nella controversia in questione, vedi motivazione della sentenza, punto 9; sentenza completa consultabile anche sul sito: http://eur-law.eu/IT/Sentenza-Corte-9-luglio-1987-Repubblica-federale-Germania,146845,d}
\]
\[\text{10} \quad \text{LIGOURI A., L’immigrazione e l’Unione Europea, in DCSI, 2000, p. 429}
\]
\[\text{11} \quad \text{Libro Bianco: Il completamento del mercato interno, COM (1985) 310 del 14 giugno 1985, par.55.}
\]
frontiere esterne, e da qui l’esigenza di politiche comuni in materia di visti, asilo e condizione dei cittadini paesi terzi e aveva indicato anche un calendario per la presentazione delle proposte.

2.1 La Cooperazione intergovernativa:

Gli Stati membri scelsero di sviluppare tra loro forme di cooperazione intergovernativa per l’attuazione della libera circolazione delle persone, piuttosto che coinvolgere le istituzioni comunitarie. Cinque Stati (Francia, Germania, Belgio, Lussemburgo, Paesi Bassi) conclusero tra loro l’Accordo di Schengen relativo all’eliminazione graduale dei controlli alle frontiere comuni e la relativa Convenzione d’Applicazione12 (successivamente firmati da tutti gli stati membri, ad eccezione del Regno Unito e Irlanda). Dall’abolizione dei controlli alle frontiere avrebbero approfittato non solo i cittadini comunitari ma anche i cittadini degli Stati terzi, per questa ragione gli articoli 7, 17 e 20 prevedevano l’impegno degli Stati da adottare delle misure relative alle politiche di visti, condizioni d’ingresso cittadini Stati terzi, diritto degli stranieri ecc. L’adozione delle misure previste nell’Accordo necessitava di un ulteriore azione degli Stati per essere tradotte in vere e proprie disposizioni specifiche, e quindi applicabili. Sono iniziati così delle lunghe trattative che hanno portato all’adozione della Convenzione dell’Applicazione dell’Accordo di Schengen, firmata il 19 giugno 1990, sempre nella città lussemburghese di Schengen. La Convenzione veniva suddivisa in otto Titoli. Il Capitolo III regolava la disciplina dei visti. L’articolo 10 istituiva un visto uniforme, valido per tutto il territori Schengen per un periodo di soggiorno massimo di tre mesi. I visti per un soggiorno superiore a tre mesi erano considerati come visti nazionali, rilasciati dai singoli Stati in base ai propri ordinamenti e concedeva la possibilità al titolare di tale visto, di transitare nel territorio degli altri Stati contraenti della Convenzione. Per quanto riguarda l’ingresso nell’area Schengen degli cittadini degli Stati terzi per un soggiorno non superiore ai tre mesi, l’articolo 5 prevedeva che lo straniero doveva essere in possesso di: a) documenti validi; b) di un visto valido, se richiesto; c) doveva esibire se necessario documenti che giustificavano lo scopo e le condizioni del soggiorno; d) non doveva essere segnalato ai fini della non ammissione; e infine la lettera e) dell’articolo 5, prevedeva che lo straniero per poter entrare nell’area Schengen, non doveva essere considerato pericoloso per l’ordine pubblico, la sicurezza nazionale o le relazioni internazionali di uno degli Stati contraenti. I dati relativi agli stranieri ai fini di non ammissione erano inseriti in base ad una segnalazione nazionale in un sistema comune d’informazione denominato Sistema d’Informazione Schengen (SIS), previsto dall’art. 92.

2.2 La nascita dell’Unione Europea e le politiche dell’immigrazione:

Il Trattato di Maastricht istituiva l’Unione Europea “fondata sulle Comunità europee, integrate dalle politiche e forme di cooperazione instaurate dal presente trattato”.13 Veniva così costituita quella struttura che si basava in tre “pilastri”: la Comunità, la Politica estera e di sicurezza comune e la Cooperazione in materia di giustizia e affari interni (GAI). L’articolo K.1 del TUE elencava come «questioni di interesse comune» tra altri, anche la politica di asilo, le norme sull’attraversamento delle frontiere estere e la politica di immigrazione e la politica da seguire nei confronti dei cittadini dei paesi terzi, cioè le condizioni d’ingresso, circolazione e soggiorno dei cittadini di Stati terzi, le quali diventavano così, materie, parte di forme di cooperazione previste nell’ambito del terzo pilastro. Si trattava sempre di una forma di cooperazione intergovernativa, ma che si svolgeva nel quadro istituzionale dell’UE. Con il Trattato di Maastricht avvenne solo una comunitarizzazione della politica dei visti tramite l’inserimento dell’articolo 100C, mentre il settore d’immigrazione veniva lasciato nell’ambito della cooperazione intergovernativa, cooperazione che veniva istituzionalizzato dal Trattato di Maastricht nell’ambito del c.d. “terzo pilastro”. L’art. 100C prevedeva che il Consiglio deliberando all’unanimità14, su proposta della Commissione e previa consultazione del Parlamento Europeo, determinava un elenco dei paesi terzi cui cittadini devono essere in possesso di un visto per l’attraversamento delle frontiere esterne degli Stati membri e adottava le misure relative all’instaurazione di un modello uniforme di visto. Così il Consiglio usando

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13 Art. A del Trattato di Maastricht.

14 L’articolo K.9 nel n.3 prevedeva che dal 1° gennaio 1996 il Consiglio avrebbe deliberato a maggioranza qualificata, e non più all’unanimità.
come base giuridica proprio l’articolo 100C ha adottato prima il Regolamento n. 1683/95\cite{15} il quale stabiliva un modello uniforme di visto, e poi il Regolamento n. 2317/95\cite{16} che determinava l’elenco dei paesi terzi i cui cittadini devono essere in possesso di un visto per l’attraversamento delle frontiere esterne degli Stati membri. Quest’ultimo Regolamento è stato annullato dalla Corte di Giustizia a causa della mancata consultazione del Parlamento Europeo nella procedura d’adozione\cite{17}, ed è stato superato dal Regolamento n. 574/99\cite{18}, a sua volta superato dal Regolamento 539/2001\cite{19}. Con l’entrata in vigore del Trattato di Amsterdam\cite{20} il 1° Maggio 1999 lo scenario cambia completamente. Le misure relative all’immigrazione e cioè, l’ingresso, soggiorno e allontanamento dei cittadini di Stati terzi vengono inserite nel nuovo Titolo IV TCE intitolato «Visti, asilo, immigrazione e altre politiche connesse alla libera circolazione delle persone» e vengono così trasferite dal terzo al primo pilastro, divenendo materie di competenza comunitaria. Le misure previste dal Titolo IV vengono inserite nell’ambito di realizzazione di una finalità più generale che è: la creazione di “uno spazio di libertà, sicurezza e giustizia”. Allo scopo di creare tale spazio l’articolo 61 TCE assegnava al Consiglio il potere di adottare: f) “misure volte ad assicurare la libera circolazione delle persone in conformità all’articolo 14”; h) “misure in materia di controlli alle frontiere esterne, asilo e immigrazione a norma degli articoli 62, punti 2 e 3 e dell’articolo 63 TCE …..Per quanto riguarda l’articolo 62 TCE questo assegna tre competenze alla Comunità: 1) competenza nell’abolizione dei controlli alle frontiere interne; 2) competenza nell’attraversamento delle frontiere esterne della Comunità, che prevedeva l’attuazione di misure cui gli Stati dovevano “attenersi per l’effettuazione di controlli sulle persone alle suddette frontiere” e “regole in materia di visti relativi a soggiorni non superiori a tre mesi”\cite{21} e infine, 3) una competenza nella circolazione nell’area comunitaria degli cittadini Stati terzi per un periodo non superiore ai tre mesi. Per quanto riguarda l’articolo 63 il punto 3 riconosceva la competenza comunitaria nella materia d’immigrazione e particolarmente nei settori di: a) ingresso e soggiorno dei cittadini Stati terzi per periodi di lungo termine; b) ingresso e soggiorno irregolari e il rimpatrio di quest’ultimi. Il punto 1) e 2) dell’articolo 63 invece assegnavano alla Comunità, competenze in materia d’asilo, rifugiati e sfollati. Il Trattato di Amsterdam decide anche di integrare tramite un Protocollo ad hoc allegato al Trattato, l’acquis di Schengen nel diritto dell’Unione europea. Con il Trattato di Lisbona è venuta a mancare la struttura in pilastri nella quale si fondava l’Unione fin dal momento della sua creazione e le decisioni sulla politica d’immigrazione vengono oramai adottate con procedura legislativa ordinaria. Nell’indicazione degli obiettivi dell’Unione individuati nell’art. 3 avviene un diverso ordine, dove il “mercato interno” cede il passo allo “spazio di libertà, sicurezza e giustizia”. Il conseguimento di tale spazio rientra nelle competenze concorrenti (art.4, n. 1, lett. J TFUE). All’Unione vengono conferiti poteri d’azione relativi per conseguire tale obiettivo. In base all’articolo 67, n. 2 l’Unione “garantisce che non vi siano controlli sulle persone alle frontiere interne e sviluppa una politica comune in materia di asilo, immigrazione e controllo delle frontiere esterne….”, e tutto questo deve essere conseguito tramite le misure previste dall’articolo 77, n. 1, TFUE, quali: a) la politica comune dei visti e di altri titoli di soggiorno di breve durata; b) i controlli ai quali sono sottoposte le persone che attraversano le frontiere esterne; c) le condizioni alle quali i cittadini dei Paesi terzi possono circolare liberamente nell’Unione per un breve periodo; d) qualsiasi misura necessaria per l’istituzione progressiva di un sistema integrato di gestione delle frontiere esterne. I poteri d’azione

\begin{thebibliography}{99}
\item[18] Regolamento (CE) n. 574/1999 del Consiglio del 12 marzo 1999 che determina quali siano i paesi terzi i cui cittadini devono essere in possesso di un visto per l’attraversamento delle frontiere esterne degli Stati membri in GU L 72 del 18.3.1999, pag. 2 ss.
\item[21] Questa comprendeva l’adozione di “i) un elenco dei paesi terzi i cui cittadini devono essere in possesso del visto all’atto dell’attraversamento delle frontiere esterne e di quelli i cui cittadini sono esenti da tale obbligo; ii) le procedure e condizioni per il rilascio dei visti da parte degli Stati membri; iii) un modello uniforme di visto; iv) norme relative a un visto uniforme”;
\end{thebibliography}
riconosciuti all'Unione dal Trattato si traducono nell'adozione di atti normativi vincolanti che come prevede l'articolo 68 TFUE si devono mantenere entro gli orientamenti strategici della programmazione legislativa e operativa fissati dal Consiglio Europeo, il quale prima a Tampere (1999) e poi all'Aja (2004) ha adottato i Programmi che delineano le priorità dell'Unione Europea (UE) per lo spazio di libertà, sicurezza e giustizia per il periodo 2010-2014. Il Programma di Stoccolma\(^22\) prevede uno sviluppo ulteriore delle politiche dell'UE sulla gestione integrata delle frontiere e in materia di visti per rendere l'accesso legale all'Europa più efficace per i cittadini non comunitari, accompagnata dal rafforzamento dei controlli delle frontiere e un sviluppo della politica comune in materia di visti.

3. Fase d'attuazione

Sulla base del Patto Europeo sull'immigrazione e l'asilo del 2008, l'Unione Europea deve sviluppare una politica di migrazione globale e flessibile. Occorre anche rafforzare il dialogo e i partenariati con i paesi terzi (d'origine e di transito), in particolare tramite l'ulteriore sviluppo dell'approccio globale in materia di migrazione che prevede la conclusione, a livello comunitario o bilaterale, di accordi con i paesi di origine e di transito che comportino elementi concerenti la migrazione legale e clandestina, la riammissione nonché lo sviluppo di questi paesi. Il Piano d’azione\(^23\) che fornisce la tabella di marcia per l'attuazione delle priorità politiche tracciate dal programma di Stoccolma per il periodo 2010 al 2014 prevede l'ulteriore sviluppo dell'approccio globale dell'Unione alla migrazione per accrescere la cooperazione con i paesi extraeuropei, come una delle azioni che la Commissione deve attuare per portare avanti la politica dell'immigrazione.

La politica dell’immigrazione nella fase attuale si realizza così in una dimensione globale entro un contesto di partenariato e cooperazione con i Paesi terzi. La liberalizzazione dei visti avviene proprio in questo nuovo contesto. L'Unione da parte sua sfruttando i poteri d’azione riconosciutisi dal Trattato ha dato la possibilita ai partner dei Balcani occidentali di concludere con essa accordi di facilitazione del rilascio dei visti in parallelo con la conclusione di accordi di riammissione. L'1 gennaio 2008 sono entrati in vigore gli accordi di facilitazione del visto con cinque paesi dei Balcani occidentali (Albania, Bosnia-Erzegovina, ex Repubblica jugoslava di Macedonia, Montenegro e Serbia), che costituiscono una prima tappa concreta del processo previsto dall'agenda di Salonico verso un regime di esenzione dal visto per i cittadini dei paesi dei Balcani occidentali. Con ciascuno di questi paesi è stato avviato nel 2008 un dialogo sulla liberalizzazione dei visti, da realizzarsi mediante tabella di marcia elaborate a tal fine. L'Unione con il Regolamento (CE) n. 810/2009 ha istituito un codice comunitario dei visti che fissa le procedure e le condizioni per il rilascio del visto per soggiorni di breve durata (non più di tre mesi su un periodo di sei mesi). Il Regolamento che si applica dal 5 aprile 2010 ha modificato il regolamento VIS e il codice frontiere Schengen e ha abrogato inoltre gli articoli da 9 a 17 della convenzione di applicazione dell’accordo di Schengen e le istruzioni consolari comuni. Dall’altra parte i paesi partner dei Balcani occidentali per approfittarne dalla politica della liberalizzazione dei visti dovevano soddisfare i parametri di riferimento predisposti nelle rispettive tabelle di marcia dalla Commissione. Tali parametri concernevano a settori quali la sicurezza dei documenti, gestione delle frontiere, asilo, migrazione, lotta alla criminalità organizzata e alla corruzione e protezione dei diritti fondamentali. Nelle sue considerazioni del 2009 la Commissione riteneva che i paesi partner avessero soddisfatto i parametri previsti nelle tabelle di marcia e proponeva così la liberalizzazione dei visti. Con il Regolamento (CE) n. 1244/2009 del Consiglio del 30 novembre 2009 e il Regolamento (UE) n. 1091/2010 del Parlamento Europeo e del Consiglio del 24 novembre 2010 che modificano il regolamento (CE) n. 539/2001 del Consiglio che adotta l’elenco dei paesi terzi i cui cittadini devono essere in possesso del visto all’atto dell’attraversamento delle frontiere esterne e l’elenco dei paesi terzi i cui cittadini sono esentati da tale obbligo veniva liberalizzato i visti con i Paesi partner dei Balcani occidentali.


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\(^{22}\) Programma di Stoccolma – Un’Europa aperta e sicura al servizio e a tutela dei cittadini [Gazzetta ufficiale C 115 del 4.5.2010].

\(^{23}\) Comunicazione della Commissione al Parlamento europeo, al Consiglio, al Comitato economico e sociale europeo e al Comitato delle regioni del 20 aprile 2010 - Creare uno spazio di libertà, sicurezza e giustizia per i cittadini europei - Piano d’azione per l’attuazione del programma di Stoccolma [COM(2010) 171 definitivo]
4. **Problematica, misure in atto e Raccomandazioni**

La liberalizzazione dei visti ai paesi dei Balcani occidentali, non è passata senza creare dei problemi specialmente per alcuni dei paesi membri dell’Unione quali la Germania, Svezia e Belgio che sono stati particolarmente interessati dall’aumento di richieste d'asilo per motivazioni economiche. Nel gennaio 2011 la Commissione europea avviò un meccanismo di monitoraggio successivo alla liberalizzazione dei visti che copre tutti gli aspetti rilevanti (controllo dei confini, immigrazione, asilo,...) e serve a valutare l'evolversi della situazione negli Stati dei Balcani occidentali e ad individuare le azioni da intraprendere. Viste le preoccupazioni degli Stati membri, la Commissione Europea, su invito del Consiglio dei Ministri Europei, ha presentato una proposta per la modifica del Regolamento (CE) n. 539/2001 del Consiglio del 15 marzo 2001 che adotta l’elenco dei Paesi terzi i cui cittadini devono essere in possesso del visto all'atto dell'attraversamento delle frontiere esterne e l'elenco dei Paesi terzi i cui cittadini sono esentati da tale obbligo. Tale proposta di Regolamento prevede l’introduzione di una clausola di salvaguardia che in circostanze eccezionali, permetta di ripristinare temporaneamente l'obbligo di visto per i cittadini di un dato paese terzo. La reintroduzione dell'obbligo di visto non sarebbe automatica, ma a seguito di una valutazione e decisione della Commissione.

Anche se la proposta di modifica Regolamento non è stata ancora adottata, poiché le istituzioni dell’Unione non si stanno raccordando sul testo, una reintroduzione dei visti che implicherebbe un cambiamento nella Regolamentazione dei Visti per l'Europa costituirrebbe un passo indietro nella relazione con questi paesi, minando anche il processo di liberalizzazione dei visti per altri Stati. Per questo motivo si raccomanda di cercare soluzioni alternative alla reintroduzione dei visti. La stessa Commissione nella sua terza Relazione sul meccanismo di monitoraggio successivo alla liberalizzazione dei visti per i Paesi dei Balcani occidentali sottolinea la necessità di: una maggiore cooperazione con le autorità dei Paesi dei Balcani occidentali; intensificare le indagini su agenzie di viaggio; rafforzare i controlli "in uscita" (cioè nei Paesi dei Balcani occidentali) e "in entrata" (ai confini dell’UE); intensificare campagne informative sui visti per soggiorni di breve durata; aumentare sostanzialmente l'assistenza alle minoranze nei Paesi di origine, in particolare alla comunità rom, che è quella da cui proviene la maggior parte dei richiedenti d’asilo. Nella stessa relazione la Commissione conclude che la maggior parte dei richiedenti asilo è consapevole che la propria domanda di asilo ha poche possibilità di essere accettata, ciò significa che tale domande vengono presentate con il solo scopo di rimanere per un certo periodo sul territorio dello Stato che le esamina ottenendo dei benefici, che consistono in vitto e alloggio, assistenza medica ed educazione, mentre alcuni paesi forniscono anche un contributo monetario mensile. Più lunga è la procedura che esamina le richieste, più alti sono dunque i possibili vantaggi per chi richiede asilo pur sapendo di non avere i requisiti per ottenere. Proprio nel tempo necessario all’elaborazione delle richieste di asilo che esiste la differenza delle situazioni fra vari paesi, per questo una soluzione del problema sarebbe quella di accelerare l'esame delle domande chiaramente infondate. La legislazione europea permette infatti agli stati membri di dare la priorità alle richieste d'asilo di cittadini provenienti da paesi classificati come “paese d'origine sicuro” (safe country of origin), e di accelerare dunque il processo di esame delle domande. La soluzione migliore sembra quella di adottare un approccio unico europeo al problema, che proponga un limite di tempo di massimo 30 giorni per risolvere le richieste d'asilo di richiedenti che provengono da paesi considerati sicuri, pur salvaguardando i loro diritti come richiedenti.

**References**

COM (2011) 290 definitivo

24 COM (2011) 290 definitivo
Regolamento (CE) n. 539/2001 del Consiglio del 15 marzo 2001 che adotta l’elenco dei paesi terzi i cui cittadini devono essere in possesso del visto all’atto dell’attraversamento delle frontiere esterne e l’elenco dei paesi terzi i cui cittadini sono esenti da tale obbligo in GU L 81 del 21.3.2001
Gazzetta ufficiale C 115 del 4.5.2010]. Programma di Stoccolma – Un’Europa aperta e sicura al servizio e a tutela dei cittadini
www.europa.eu
Agrarian Reform of the Monarchist Period in Albania

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Abstract

In the early twentieth century, Albania represented an underdeveloped agrarian country in terms of economic development, with significant residues of feudal relations in production, where the main role was played by agriculture and when the rural population constituted 90% of the country's population. There was a great fragmentation of agricultural land ownership, which did not appear unique for the whole country, as well as an extreme polarization of property that had raised the need for an agrarian reform, which could contribute to create a fair adjustment of ownership ratio at a national level. In relation to this issue, after the First World War and especially during the years 1921-1924, in Parliament and outside it, in the unofficial and official press, were held many severe debates and discussions between progressive and democratic forces on the one hand, who supported the resolution of the issue in favor of the peasant farmers in Albania, and the conservatives on the other hand, who were to maintain the current situation on land ownership or a reform that would not undermine their plans and interests. The first attempts for the concrete realization of an agrarian reform in Albania were made after 1928 by the monarchical system government. The implementation of an agrarian reform and the right solution given to the peasants demands for land, constituted one of the most fundamental issues in the development and progress of Albania at that time. The article aims to present the reasons for undertaking such a reform, the progress of its implementation and its consequences in Albania.

1. Introduction

The agrarian issue includes in its entirety the agricultural land problem, one of the major sources of human life, the technique and method of operating the land, the relationship between people and the land and important tools used in agriculture, the social problems of the relationship between people and social groups, the relationship and problems between the agricultural and industrial producers, between urban and rural zone, that are derived and determined from the mode of production, the forms of ownership of the land and tools of production, and the character of commanding and possessing it. Throughout almost the twentieth century, the agrarian issue has had a major influence on the development of our national life events. It has provoked severe clashes of interest, which have resulted in significant political consequences and can say without exaggerating that the issue of agrarian reform, apparently and in fact, has been one of the main factors of national mischievousness.

In Albania, considering the conditions of its development, the agrarian issue will come out relatively late, only after the declaration of Independence (1912), when as a result of the increasingly impact of market economy and rapport of monetary economy in the countryside, as well as the intensified operations regarding the right of inheritance, the great manorial property was being disorganized, fragmented and reduced. However, the great manorial property and especially, the feudal and semi-feudal rapport in production didn’t experience any substantial change. Regarding the agrarian issue, after the First World War and especially during 1921-1924, in the Parliament and outside of it, in the official and unofficial press, discussions and multiple and severe debates were made between the progressive and democratic forces on one side and conservatives on the other. In fact, nationwide, Noli’s government of the 1924 proposed a solution to resolve the agrarian issue, but its promise remained as a project on a paper, without the opportunity, tools and time to be recoverable.

In the early period of Zog, manorial properties continued to have a wide-ranging and occupied the leading place in land ownership. This property outspread in almost all the regions of the country, but was mainly concentrated in the coastal lowland area from Shkodra to Vlora and Saranda, and as well in areas with inlying lowlands, in Elbasan, Korca,
etc.

In the early 1929, the whole country had 22,457.6 ha of land manorial property (approximately 56.9% of the land property) of which 15,458.9 ha was private property, 5,628.7 ha state property and 1.370.0-ha wakfs property. (land of religious institutions)

According to the Land Law of 1856, of the Ottoman Empire, which remained in vigor even after the declaration of independence of Albania, even up to 1925, ownership of the land across the country was divided into five categories: lands of simple ownership, or 'mylqe', the state's public land or 'mitie', lands of religious institutions, or "wakfs lands", lands left to collective usage and abandoned or deserted lands.

The fundamental statute of the Albanian Republic and after, that of the Kingdom of 1928, ended the division of the land as stated in the law of 1856. According to the new law, all the lands within the Albanian state were declared simple property owned by the state, by legal and physical persons. However, the new laws left gaps for land manipulations and occupation from powerful and specific individuals. This unification simplified legal regime of land, but on the other hand facilitated even more the landowners attempts to rob and especially state forests. Thus explained the historical fact of the incessant reduction of manors and state forests and the continuous increase of manorial properties of the landowners and conversion of state's forests into private ones. This robbery was favored by the lack of a real cadaster, as the one that existed till 1929 was only formal. The establishment of cadastral offices, in 1929, led to the creation of mortgage offices, which did not deal at all with the registration of land ownership, since to create a complete record of land area, this had to be a general, obligatory registration with evident facts. Consequently, many plots were not listed in the mortgage records.

The manors were large agricultural properties, comprising a one or more villages in which work necessarily feofees. The manors were divided into two categories: state manors and those of private ownership. There are no accurate records regarding the surface of each of the categories.

The implementation of agrarian reform and the correct resolving of peasants' demand for land, constituted one of the most fundamental issues for the development and progress of Albania, since the rural population accounted for 90% of the country's population. On the other hand, the bourgeois-landowning Albania of that time was an outdated agrarian country with significant waste of feudal relations in production. A pronounced polarization of property, for the whole country, which had begun in the late nineteenth century and deepened during the 20s and 30s of the twentieth century, had raised the need of an agrarian reform, which could fulfill a better control of ownership rapport nationwide. The first attempts to concrete realization of agrarian reform in the Albanian state, were made after 1928, from the monarchical government. In December 10th, 1928, at a parliamentary meeting, Zogu declared that measures would be taken for the implementation of the Agrarian Reform. Zogu's statement for an agrarian reform would raise numerous debates, discussions and reactions in the inner public opinion. A considerable number of democratic circles in fact, didn't rely on this reform. They felt that it was simply a Zogu's demagoguery. The newspaper "Liria Kombëtare" (literally translated as "National Freedom") would write "Is it possible for the beys and agas to give away their land to the villagers and then to give it to the government? - No! - Then the Beys' agrarian reform will be a comedy ". So, without doubt, Beys, landowners and their ideologues were against any agrarian reform and would put pressure on the government of King Zog for the Agrarian Reform Law to remain informal and not affect their interests.

In April 1929, a committee under the chairmanship of Justice Minister Hikmet Delvina, was tasked by Zog with the preparation of a project for the implementation of the reform, whilst for the study of the conditions and possibilities of its implementation was charged the Italian professor Giovanni Lorenzoni.

Representatives of the Italian capital, as well the class of landowners in the country, tried for the agrarian reform not to affect their interests, plans and their intercessory activity in Albania. Since they couldn't stop such a reform, they tried to at least apply a partial reform in Albania. So, the Italian diplomacy and Benito Mussolini, who saw Albania as a powerful area of Italian influence, tried to persuade Zog to accept the appeal of Rome on the issue of agrarian reform.

The Italian expert of agricultural issues, Professor Giovanni Lorenzoni, who directed the operations for the composition of agrarian reform bill. In this study, which relied on direct observations conducted in 30 private property or estates, as well as 30 state properties, for the first time was provided a summary of the state of agriculture in Albania, the inhibitory factors and ways of overcoming this blizzard. From this study of the agricultural situation in Albania, he derived a significant amount of shortcomings and deficiencies, which would influence in the delay of law implementation, and agrarian reform in the country as well, in rapport to the Zog's government's hurry for its implementation. Thus, the certification of real estate property, encountered difficulties caused by the messy situation in herited from the Ottoman Empire. “Cadastral tools that are now being implemented in all civilized countries constitute, especially for Albania, the most essential and significant ground for agricultural development and regulation of state revenues. Unless the Albanian cadaster is not started, it'd be absurd to talk about reforms aiming the modernization and the rational improvement of...
agriculture”—would Professor Lorenzoni argue.

On May 3rd 1930, after numerous debates and long discussions, the Agrarian Reform Law was enacted by Zog. Along with this law was enacted even a contract tip, which would regulate the rapports between farmers, so they could benefit some land from the reform. Likewise, another law was enacted creating thus the National Agricultural Bank, which would help farmers with loans.

The ultimate goal of Agrarian Reform had two main aims: First, in Economics, it would provide a general increase in agricultural production, which would guarantee the economic progress and would raise the level of welfare of the people and secondly, in the social field, it would resolve the land ownership problems by taking a part of the land from the owners and handing it to the peasants with little or without land.

Under the Agrarian Reform Law, to the big landowners, from the total amount of their land, were left to use up to 40 hectares of land (for each family). They were also left with up to 10 ha of forest and 10 ha of pastures, without expropriating, if these were located within the manor. If forests and pastures with the vineyards, olive groves, orchards and gardens were located outside the manor, they wouldn't be affected at all.

Expropriated lands were distributed to farmers and peasants by paying 20 gold francs per hectare. Each family would benefit 0.5 hectares per capita. The price in money for the taken land (no more than 5 ha of land) had to be shed all at once. This provision made the law practically inapplicable, since most of the villagers had no opportunity to buy the land with cash.

Mehdi Frashëri, Minister of National Economy, would comment regarding the Agrarian Reform:
This reform pointed out three problems:
1. to give land to 7000 families of landless farmers in Albania,
2. to necessarily cultivate those lands, whose owners until yesterday hadn’t had them cultivated
3. to increase agricultural production.

The agrarian reform was conceived in such a way as to force all categories of land owners, to have it cultivated, to improve it and increase production, giving the opportunity to hand it to the one which would accomplish the duties, to the fittest, to the bravest. This way of conceiving of the Agrarian Reform, which encouraged competition, the ambition to achieve the goals and tasks taken over, replaced the inherited outdated system with a newly incentive and progressive one. In this way, it dismissed on the both sides: from the right and from the left, but of course, there’s no way to have reform to simultaneously satisfy the interests of all parties. By putting a balance between the forms of agricultural economies (according its size, large, medium and small), evaluating the importance of the relatively large or medium agricultural farm and the expansion of small economies as very useful and vital in the country’s conditions, the main problem was in finding a way to make the agrarian reform satisfy its best the overall interests and to ensure the progress of agriculture and the increase of production in the actual conditions of the country.

The agrarian reform outlasted for over 10 years. Meanwhile, the indicators of the implementation of agrarian reform throughout Albania were: from 9.6794 ha, which was the overall area of private estates in Albania, the expropriated area from the reform counted to 2.992,2 ha. Whilst for the state estates countrywide we have these indicators: from a total of 3.383,5 hectares, all underwent expropriation. So the expropriated estimated total area counted up to 6.375,7 hectares, from a total 13.062,9 ha that made up the total surface of state and private estates in Albania. From this reform benefited 1905 families of farmers with approximately 8763 people.

The manorial class, one of the ruling classes, taking advantage of the prolonged composition for the agrarian reform bill, tried by all means and ways to apply a partial reform, which essentially would preserve the land manorial property. Shefqet Vërlaci, Vrions and other landowners exerted strong pressure on the government of King Zog, so the Agrarian Reform Law would not affect their interests. The class of the great bourgeois associated with multiple connections with the manorial class, which assisted in the country’s administration, also were significantly leading landowners, so they were against the implementation of the Agrarian Reform Law. Despite the strong insistence of Zog, in the early phase of the implementation of this reform, he did not find his parliament as willing as he would like and which in fact, it had to be. There’s how Zog would comment for the “Dielli” (“Sun”) newspaper: “The people who work the land, should be the owner of it and only in this way we will increase the productivity of the country and the general welfare. Agrarian reform is for the progress and the future of the country”.

According to the engineer Selim Zyma, who in his report that would send to DPRA, (General Directory of Agrarian Reform) would note that: - through the implementation of such a law, there is no possibility of any manner to save the farmer from the proletariat, on the contrary, I twill give rise to more suffering, as they didn’t have a chance to benefit land from the agrarian reform, and are constrained thus to stand the bad behavior of the landowners, all these, came as a result of the incorrect ratio value assigned to expropriate fiefdoms and the way the expropriation wasn’t in favor of the farmer. "As well, - would he further analyze- the difference seen in the results of the implementation of the Agrarian
Reform, in the state and private estates, is quite noticeable. In the state manors, since the land surface is completely expropriated, installation of proletarian farmers was done without any difficulty, and so, there are no farmers remaining without the piece of land given by the law. The proletarian farmers of the state estate, through the implementation of the plan of installation, are off of the old custom of proletaries and have started to work intensively, so from the application of the Agrarian Reform Law in the state estates, we can say by rights it has resulted in its best and most rational effects in every aspect. 

As for private estates, the report noted that the development of the agrarian reform law, was not based on a case study, the method of expropriation of private manors decreed by law would never guarantee the installation of proletarian farmers who work in the private manors, since the inviolable land of bread allows the owner of the manor to keep and protect the best and most valuable land, so the surface of the land that remains for expropriation available for the Agrarian Reform, is composed of land without value, and so the manor’s farmers do not apply for installation and in such conditions, the implementation of agrarian reform wouldn’t show any beneficial effect.

Delays in the implementation of this law were of various forms and related to a variety of causes. Thus, delays caused by difficulties faced by any radical reform of a secular state, has infuriated the manors’ owners against their feoffees, whose behaviour towards the feoffees openly shows their wish to expel them from their manors and lands, and use them as pasture - calls another report directed to the Prime Minister by the proletarian farmers of some estates of several sub-prefectures of Delvina and Saranda regarding the difficulties experienced by the implementation of such a reform.

There were delays even regarding the law for the opening of a national agricultural bank, which, despite the establishment for the accumulation of an initial capital of 500 thousand gold francs, disregarded the possibility of collecting one million gold francs, and stopped with the procuration of one or two organizer specialists from outside.

The implementation of the law of the agrarian reform remained mostly on paper. In fact, the law, did not even effect the large manorial property or the economic power of landowners. Landowners and beys, who staunchly opposed the reform, made themselves effort to prevent and sabotage it completely; they divided their properties between other family members, relatives, and made fictitious donations and sales and complicated the current ownership situation on the land. Lack of funds, technicians and a variety of other causes left the works lingering. In June 1932, when the work on its implementation had not yet begun, Zog would declare a law supplement that actually made profound changes and further liberalize the first law. The threat to the interests of landowners was problematic and difficult, since they had the power of governing the state. Zog on the one hand wanted to put pressure on some of them through reform, while on the other he wanted to satisfy farmers' requests, in order to avoid social conflicts. Even though he was interested in strengthening the rural bourgeoisie, the capitalist private property in agriculture that would pave the way to the country's progress, the implementation of the reform showed that Zog had not been determined to make a full agrarian reform and going on to its full completion.

The report of the DPRA’s director Mr. Salih Vuçiterni and the organizer, Colonel Giovanni Ferrota in 1932, would highlight the difficulties associated with the implementation of such a law in Albania: "In Albania, the rural property is generally bounded by bizarre borderlines. It looks difficult to find a manor or private property with stable borders, and because of this, the state hasn't the slightest idea of the limits of its assets. Most of the land-patents do not correspond to the original ones, which for the majority of the lands and large areas do not exist, but are found in the archives of the cadastral office in Turkey. From the unusual disorder that exists in stabilizing the real borders, strife and robbery have not yet disappeared and in such a state, the implementation of the cadaster would be impossible".

Implementation of the reform was gradually neglected and left in limbo until finally and officially abandoned completely. In 1937, ostensibly for lack of funds, the government abrogated the DPRA and in June 1938 the implementation of agrarian reform in the state manors was banned by law.

One of the reasons for the failure of the reform was that the Albanians, even Zog himself, being bound with the centuries-old traditions, had it difficult to easily assimilate new and foreign ideas regarding the ownership of land.

According to the scholar Bernd Fischer, agrarian reform was simultaneously, the most visionary element of its reform program, as well as it was the field in which the biggest failure was being recorded. However, just the fact that Zog had taken a step towards reform, implied that he had renounced his position as chairman of the conservative group of wealthy landowners, which he had headed until 1924.

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Inevitability of the Pain Experience in Margaret Mazzantini's Novels

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Abstract

In the paper we focus on the motif of pain in a literary text with the aim to analyze the importance of suffering in the lives of characters and to find out whether the pain determines the behaviour and the reactions of characters. We start from the assumption that the experience of pain influences the characters in the way that it incites them to re-examine their decisions and that it encourages them to transgress the boundaries in certain situations. In the analysis we study two novels by the contemporary Italian authoress Margaret Mazzantini, in which the individual suffering is intertwined with the suffering of the society; namely, the pain of the motherhood, whether unrealized one or the one in which a mother is not able to protect her own child, is entwined with the suffering of the victims of war or those forced to exile. The pain is, therefore, analyzed on two levels: that of the characters and that of the setting. The suffering of the individual transforms into the prism which helps us to understand the collective suffering, as well as the responsibility of the individual and the collective responsibility. In this way we find out the moral value of the pain since what results in the transition from the individual to collective suffering is the bond that unites the people in the common experience of pain.

Keywords: pain, suffering, motherhood, war, body, Italian literature.

1. Introduzione

In Storia del nulla (Givone 2011), analizzando in primo luogo il nulla nella storia della filosofia, Sergio Givone affronta anche il concetto del dolore1 da vari punti di vista, problematizzandolo attraverso le tesi di diversi filosofi e scrittori attraverso i secoli. In ciò vi sono, come si può supporre, delle tesi contrastanti, come, ad esempio, quella che troviamo in Eschilo e in Nietzsche, ovvero la questione dell’ineluttabilità del dolore. Givone cita Severino quando interpreta Eschilo, e spiega che per quest’ultimo il dolore rappresenta un peso vano per l’animo, e l’aspetto principale di quest’esperienza è che la liberazione dal dolore avvenga nella verità. (Givone 2011:28-29) In Eschilo, dunque, troviamo, in nome della verità, una rinuncia alla vita in quanto dolente, mentre per Nietzsche, invece, il dolore è connaturato alla vita, fa tutt’uno con essa, e quindi non ha senso cercare di liberarsene. (Givone 2011:28-29) Interpretando, invece, il pensiero di Zeus, collegata con la giustizia o l’ingiustizia assegnata a Prometeo, il dolore diventa “organo della conoscenza” ovvero non vi è “nessuna conoscenza se non attraverso il dolore”. (Givone 2011:23-32) Riassumendo, l’uomo non può rinunciare né alla conoscenza né al dolore poiché “la conoscenza è fedeltà al dolore.”(Givone 2011:32)2

Nella problematica del dolore due sono gli aspetti fondamentali ed indissolubili insiti in questo concetto: il dolore è

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1 Secondo Givone, nello Zibaldone di Leopardi viene esposta una metafisica del nulla in quanto la storia del nulla è collegata anche con la storia del dolore in quanto tutto le cose, e Dio stesso, hanno origine dal nulla, e, quindi, anche il dolore è un nulla. (Cfr. Givone 2011:142.) “Tutto è nulla al mondo, anche la mia disperazione, della quale ogni uomo anche savi, ma più tranquillo, ed io stesso certamente in un’ora più quieta conoscerò la vanità e l’irragionevolezza e l’immaginario. Misero me, è vano, è un nulla anche questo mio dolore, che in un certo tempo passerà e s’annullerà, lasciandomi in un vôto universale e in un’indolenza terribile che mi farà incapace anche di dolermi.” (Leopardi 1983:71).

2 Luigi Pareyson rileva che ciò che l’uomo avvicina il suo essere a Dio soltanto attraverso la sofferenza, arrivando così ad una “consofferenza divina e umana”: “È estremamente tragico che solo nel dolore Dio riesca a soccorrere l’uomo e l’uomo giunga a redimersi. Ma è proprio in questa con sofferenza divina e umana che il dolore si rivela come l’unica forza che riesce ad avere ragione del male. Questo principio è uno dei capisaldi del pensiero tragico: che fra l’uomo e Dio non ci sia collaborazione nella grazia se prima non c’è stata nella sofferenza […]” (Pareyson 1989:33).
un’esperienza esclusivamente individuale ed è collegato strettamente con la sofferenza dell’individuo. Di conseguenza, dato che il dolore è un’esperienza profondamente radicata nell’uomo e nel mondo, tale argomento appare molto frequentemente nell’ambito letterario.  

Il dolore è un’esperienza del tutto personale, soltanto in parte comunicabile, che nasce con l’uomo trasformandosi allo stesso tempo in una condizione inseparabile della sua vita. Nonostante sia un’esperienza comune a tutti gli uomini, non è possibile delineare con precisione le sensazioni che essa procura, dato che la capacità di raccontare il dolore in parole è legata a varie esperienze precedenti al momento della sofferenza, ognuna di esse diverse nella loro singolarità. 

Condividendo l’esperienza della sofferenza con altre persone, essa sembra più facile da sopportare, come se si alleargersse il suo peso, e a chi ne soffre sembra pare che rimanga solo una parte visto che pare che gli altri, con i quali è condivisa, abbiano altre sue parti. Essendo un’esperienza individuale, il dolore è anche strettamente legato al corpo in cui viene provocata questa sofferenza. 

Strettamente legati al corpo sono anche i processi fisiologici come la mestruazione che caratterizza esclusivamente il corpo femminile e, conseguentemente, attraverso questa particolarità la donna viene definita. (Cfr. Carson 2006:94) Il ciclo mestruale appare ripugnante all’uomo, e non per la mancanza della pulizia o della salute, come spiega Kristeva nei Poteri dell’orrore, quanto perché rappresentano la forza indistruttibile della donna in quanto esclusivamente femminile ed inconcepibile nel pensiero maschile. Proprio questa caratteristica rende la donna superiore all’uomo, per cui sembra che una tale forza disturbi l’identità stabilita tra i sessi, nonché il sistema, l’ordine, le regole, ed i confini tra l’interno e l’esterno.

Il legame stretto tra il corpo e la sofferenza viene focalizzato da Franco Rella il quale rileva che non solo la sofferenza fisica ma anche quella interiore, cioè emotiva o mentale, è visibile dall’esamina del corpo dell’individuo che soffre. Il corpo in questo senso diventa spesso lo strumento di comunicazione per la sofferenza: "Ma il corpo si scopre, si denuda, si offre anche nella sofferenza, anche in quella dimensione estrema della sofferenza che è la vecchiaia. La sofferenza, si è detto, inchioda l’io al corpo: ne fa un delitto, una condizione umana di sofferenza e di dolore un problema metafisico che si proietta sull’essere stesso di Dio". (Rella 2012b:22) Ciò si rivela un fatto importante nei romanzi della Mazzantini, e quindi nell’analisi viene focalizzato in primo luogo il corpo, come mezzo ed anche espressione ultima di esternazione del dolore, dato che il dolore, come sottolineato da Rafael Argullol, "possiede anche l’incruenta virtù di far sentire, con un’acutezza stauordaria, il proprio corpo" (Argullol 2010:11)

3 Salvatore Natoli mette in rilievo che il dolore si manifesta come la voce del nulla, la potenza negativa da cui è affetto ogni essere. (Cfr. Natoli 2002:42)

Dostoevskij, ad esempio, nelle Memorie del sottosuolo afferma che l’uomo ama la sofferenza, perfino a tal punto che egli non rinuncherà mai alla sofferenza, cioè alla distruzione e al caos: “Non potrebbe darsi che all’uomo non piacca soltanto la prosperità? Non potrebbe darsi che gli piacca altrettanto la sofferenza? Non può darsi che la sofferenza sia per lui vantaggiosa esattamente nella stessa misura della prosperità? E all’uomo talvolta piace terribilmente la sofferenza, gli piace alla follia. [...] Sarà bene o sarà male, ma talvolta farà bene. Ma il corpo si scopre, si offre anche nella sofferenza, anche in quella dimensione estrema della sofferenza che è la vecchiaia. La sofferenza, si è detto, inchioda l’io al corpo: ne fa un delitto, una condizione umana di sofferenza e di dolore un problema metafisico che si proietta sull’essere stesso di Dio". (Dostoevskij 1989:44). Per Leopardi, invece, il dolore non è il sentimento più greve che l’uomo possa sperimentare: “Il dolore che nasce dalle grandi passioni e illusioni o da qualunque sventura della vita, non è paragonabile all’affogamento che nasce dalla certezza e dal sentimento vivo della nullità di tutte le cose, e della impossibilità di esser felice a questo mondo, e dalla immensità del vuoto che si sente nell’anima.” (Leopardi 1983:115).

5 Felice Eugenio Agrò spiega il significato del dolore con le seguenti parole: “Il dolore è un’esperienza somato-psichica caratterizzata da connotati biologici, affettivi, relazionali, spirituali, culturali non separabili tra loro. Ogni individuo impara ad esprimere il dolore con parole che sono il frutto di vissuti psicologici legati a esperienze traumatiche precedenti, soprattutto della propria infanzia ed adolescenza. Pur essendo, il dolore, un’esperienza che coinvolge tutti gli uomini, è difficile darne una definizione esaustiva, e, ancor meno, riuscire ad elencare tutti i diversi tipi del dolore che ciascuno degli individui ha sperimentato nella sua vita [...].” (Agrò 2003:17).

6 A proposito del metodo per alleviare la sofferenza, Bonelli rileva: “Con ciò va detto che attraverso un portare e sopportare il dolore comune, insieme e l’uno per l’altro, nel quale uno è per così dire unito al dolore dell’altro attraverso una partecipazione amorevole e soprattutto attraverso un’attiva misericordia, per colui che soffre può essere essenzialmente alleviata l’amarezza della sua malattia.” (Bonelli 2003:73).

7 “Certamente le escrezioni, l’orina, la merda, e pure lo sperma e le mestruazioni, anche se queste sono più immediatamente legate alla sfera sessuale, provengono da dentro il corpo, rinviando a una sua dimensione celata e non immediatamente visibile. [...] Ritroviamo, secondo Joyce, più propriamente alla dimensione profonda della vita, essa stessa, come apolinea, generatrici di immagini e di pensiero.” (Rella 2012:160).

In quest’analisi si cerca di dimostrare come l’inevitabilità del dolore nella vita dei protagonisti influenzi le loro decisioni e cambi il loro destino, perché il dolore mette in moto l’azione e costringe i personaggi al cambiamento, alla ribellione, alla responsabilità. A volte il dolore provoca la disperazione, spingendo i personaggi a combattere uno contro l’altro, e talvolta li costringe al silenzio, alla paura e all’impossibilità di portare avanti la vita. Ciò diventa evidente soprattutto nei casi in cui i personaggi sono confrontati con la violenza, con l’odio, con la solitudine e con l’esclusione.

2. L’inevitabilità del dolore

I tipi del dolore che si possono individuare nell’opera della Mazzantini sono il dolore fisico o la malattia, il dolore psichico e morale, nonché il dolore provocato dalla violenza.

Il Discorso sull’indole del piacere e del dolore di Pietro Verri si apre con l’affermazione che le azioni umane sono tutte determinate o dal piacere o dal dolore: “La sensibilità dell’uomo, il grande arcano, al quale è stata ridotta come a generale principio ogni azione della fisica sopra di noi, si divide e scompone in due elementi, e sono amor del piacere e fuga del dolore: tale almeno è la comune opinione degli uomini pensatori e maestri.” (Verri 1964:3) Secondo Verri, quindi, ogni atteggiamento umano è la conseguenza dell’esperienza o del dolore o del piacere, i quali danno vita all’uno all’altro reciprocamente. Eppure, nonostante il dolore rappresenti un elemento facente parte dell’esistenza umana, esso è, tuttavia, difficilmente accettabile, in quanto si rivela un’esperienza radicale, la quale riconduce alla percezione progressiva della riduzione della possibilità di vita, quindi, della morte. Conseguentemente, l’esperienza della malattia, ovvero del momento in cui il corpo soffre, dimostra quanto precario sia quello che si ha e quello che si è. (Cfr. Natoli 2002:34).

L’apparire del dolore, quindi, determina un cambiamento di prospettiva che porta il malato ad interrogarsi su se stesso, ma anche sul rapporto con il mondo e con altre persone. (Russo 2003:99-116.)

In primo luogo, la malattia si può capire come un atto di autorealizzazione che richiede l’autotrascendimento, il quale può portare all’esperienza religiosa, nonché ad una crescita ed apertura verso altre persone che ci circondano, sicché il dolore purifica la capacità e la necessità di amare. In questo modo il dolore influisce anche sulle relazioni della persona che soffre.

D’altra parte, il dolore rende l’uomo capace, in maggior misura, di attenzione e di apprensione verso se stesso ma anche verso il mondo. Quindi, sebbene il dolore causi nel malato un senso di solitudine e di esclusione dal mondo esterno, esso può anche cambiare la percezione del mondo, cioè, grazie al dolore l’uomo riesce a capire l’ineluttabilità universale della sofferenza. Oltre a ciò, il dolore, pur essendo un fatto personale, è anche un evento cosmico, dato che la sofferenza non può essere individuale, come afferma Natoli, ma è una variazione del dolore universale, della crudeltà generale della vita. (Natoli 2002:29) Inoltre, “questo intreccio di singolare e di universale [...] permette a questa esperienza [del dolore] di farsi linguaggio” (Natoli 2002:8), cioè, grazie all’universalità del dolore, esso diventa comunicabile e si trasforma in un lutto possibile: del dolore si parla scambiando le esperienze per creare una più forte intimità e comprensione tra gli uomini. Ciò, del resto, contribuisce alla rappresentazione del dolore in arte, letteratura e filosofia.

Nel corso degli anni, il dolore diventa sempre più accentuato perché non esiste più alcuna certezza né base su cui appoggiare la propria esistenza. Esso avviene, secondo Alessandro Greco, perché non c’è più un modello di uomo al quale ispirarsi: l’uomo mette di essere il soggetto e diventa un fenomeno che si muove ed agisce in un vortice di molteplici attività senza regole, senza morale, senza religione, per cui diventa disorientato e la sua identità si spezza fino alla scomparsa dell’io. (Cfr. Greco 2004:17)

Quando si parla della sofferenza, un’importanza particolare va data al dolore causato dalla violenza. La violenza è strettamente legata alla problematica del male perché la sofferenza e il dolore sono l’espressione umana più tragica del male. Riguardo questo argomento, Rella mette in rilievo che in teologia, ad esempio, si rileva che il male è un defectum boni, una mancanza, una lacuna del bene. (Rella 2002:25) Il male in sé non esiste, è solo una variazione negativa del bene. Dio, il sommo bene, ha dato all’uomo la libertà del bene e del male, trasformando così il mondo in un teatro della

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9 Secondo Verri, il dolore spinge l’uomo ad andare avanti, essendo la causa di tutti i movimenti umani, cioè “il bene nasce dal male, la sterilità produce l’abbondanza, la povertà fa nascere il coraggio, in una parola il dolore è il principio motore [...] dell’uomo, che senza di lui sarebbe un animale inerte e stupido, e perirebbe poco dopo di esser nato”. (Verri 1964:23).

10 Salvatore Natoli afferma che la solitudine e la sofferenza entrano l’una nell’altra al modo di un circolo viziooso, in quanto chi è colpito dal dolore si percepisce diverso e si esclude dal mondo, in quanto esso non può accettare la debolezza con cui il dolore viene associato. (Cfr. Natoli 2002:29)
lotta continua per il bene e il male. (Rella 2002:25) Tuttavia, nel mondo in cui l’uomo diventa sempre di più distruttivo e violento, sembra che il bene si ritiri, che sia fuori dal mondo. Ciò ha la sua prova, secondo Rella, in Auschwitz, nell’incarnazione del male, in quanto in questi campi d’orrore il potere ha liberato e reso conoscibile la violenza e la volontà del male, le quali hanno dimostrato di essere una parte irriducibile dell’uomo e del mondo, ovvero il disumano che ha distrutto qualsiasi legge morale. (Rella 2002:50)

Nella prospettiva teologica, la sofferenza si rivela necessaria perché senza di essa non si potrebbe capire il bene e il male. Eppure, è forse facile accettare il fatto che, se il bene esiste, esiste anche il male come la sua contraddizione, in un rapporto reciproco; nella tragedia di Auschwitz, nell’orrore di ogni guerra, però, si può percepire solo l’indifferenza, l’impossibilità di distinguere il bene e il male, una coscienza vuota. In questo senso Rella spiega che, se si prende in considerazione la coscienza vuota degli uomini in guerra, essa diventa la coscienza proprio del *defectum* che è stato proposto dai teologi per chiarire l’inesistenza in sé del male, ma che, in realtà, lo afferma nella sua dimensione più lacinante: il vuoto e l’assenza entro cui il male può dilagare. (Rella 2002:27)

3. L’espansione del dolore in un testo letterario: *Venuto al mondo: il viaggio della speranza*

Il romanzo *Venuto al mondo* è una storia di amore e di guerra, del dolore di una madre e del dolore dell’Europa distrutta in un passato recente, ma è prima di tutto una storia di grandi perdite: della perdita d’identità, d’umanità, d’amore, di dignità, di una persona cara, e, a causa di questa perdita, la speranza di una vita migliore sembra impossibile.

*Venuto al mondo* è anche la storia di un viaggio, attraverso il quale i personaggi vengono confrontati con la paura, con i limiti dell’identità. Il romanzo è la riflessione amara sulla vita, sul destino degli uomini, convinti di poter controllare il mondo, sull’amore che nasce dalla passione e cresce come il fiume, per ritrovare poi uno scoglio, un ostacolo insormontabile; sulla diffusione dell’odio, sull’assoluta indifferenza della guerra e del male che riduce tutto a niente.

La trama del romanzo si sposta in continuazione tra il presente (Gemma e Pietro a Sarajevo, con i ricordi della guerra) ed il passato (d’un’altra, l’orrore e la paura della guerra, il dolore della città e degli abitanti di Sarajevo, e d’altra, la guerra personale ed intima di Gemma, nata dall’ossessione verso la maternità negata). Ciò porta alla superficie anche “lo scorrere inesorabile del tempo, la sua transitorietà”\(^{11}\), ma anche la possibilità della manipolazione di questa transitorietà in quanto, attraverso l’invocazione del passato, della memoria che conserva i ricordi dell’esistenza, la vita torna ad essere presente e sfida la morte.\(^{12}\) Il concetto della transitorietà pone anche al centro dell’attenzione il corpo e le sue trasformazioni, e sarà proprio il corpo di Gemma, e “il corpo” della città stessa, a dover affrontare i danni del tempo.\(^{13}\)

All’inizio del romanzo Gemma viene delineata come un personaggio - ostaggio di un passato inquieto: “una donna invecchiata”, “ferma nel tempo”, che deve confrontarsi con il passato che ha provocato le conseguenze con le quali vive tutt’ora, “una *ragazza* sconvolta da un passo verso la vecchiaia”, che deve trovare il coraggio per affrontare “quella voragine che nessuno ha mai chiuso”. Il viaggio diventa per lei un’espressione ritardata di una tristezza profonda, che non cerca una sua chiusura ma piuttosto una conferma della sua presenza. L’arrivo a Sarajevo è perciò come la riapertura di una ferita; si mette subito in rilievo il desiderio di Gemma di non essere dominata dall’orrore della città:

> *Non mi lascerò scopchiare da questa città. Lascio passare le prime immagini senza registrare veramente, brevi occhiate furtive, spezzone, come francobolli bruciati. [...] Ho imparato che tutto può andare via, anche l’orrore può perdere le sue forme, stamperarsi in una nebulosa che lo altera, lo rende ridicolo, troppo assurdo per essere mai stato vero.*

(Mazzantini 2010:21)

Tuttavia, questa caratteristica di Gemma di non accettare la verità (“So spargere menzogne come pepite di verità”), nel corso del romanzo si dissolve pianamente, facendo immergere il lettore nel ricordo delle due battaglie che

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12 I ricordi consistono delle descrizioni della gente di Sarajevo che Gemma “mette a loro posto” nella sua memoria, cercando di dare il senso alla loro vita: “Che fine ha fatto [la cuoca]? Che fine fece il suo tegame carico di grasso, il suo golf di lana... il suo viso? Per me, quella donna è ancora lì, ferma all’angolo davanti al mercato di Bezinjan, che ci sorride mentre ci sfama, e ci incoraggia a mangiare e a credere nel bene. A anche se una granata se l’è portata via, se un getto di fuoco ha sparso le sue povere cose, io giuro che è viva”. (Mazzantini 2010:30).

13 Il legame tra la transitorietà del tempo e la corporeità viene spiegato con queste parole da Franco Rella: “Dunque io sono perché il mio corpo si muove e occupa uno spazio, è soggetto al tempo e al mutamento. Leggo il mio movimento misurando la mia posizione in relazione a quella di altri corpi, percepisco il mio mutamento – e quindi il trascorrere del tempo – vedendo le trasformazioni di un volto che mi è stato prossimo, e che si decomple nel corso degli anni.” (Rella 2012:34).
hanno segnato la sua vita, quella per l’amore della sua vita e per il figlio che non arriva. Il viaggio di Gemma inizia dai suoi cambiamenti, dalle sue sconfitte, disillusioni e ferite che lasciano indietro le aspirazioni negate, non ottenute, che portano alla maturazione. Il viaggio, perciò, serve ad aiutarla ad accettare le parti dolorose per continuare con la vita, per respirare: “Avevo bisogno di amici di verità e di amici. Non mi bastava la mia vita. Avevo bisogno di qualcuno che mi costringesse a soffrire, di un testimone, di uno che c’era”. (Mazzantini 2010:488)

Nel romanzo si parla anche del viaggio di speranza per Pietro, figlio di Gemma, alla ricerca della propria origine a Sarajevo, “dove il passato pesa e fa rumore, come un barattolo al piede”, ma anche per altri protagonisti, i quali ritornano lì dove il loro rapporto si è interrotto e dove ha il suo nuovo inizio, a Sarajevo.

Ma questo romanzo è anche un viaggio nel male della Storia con il quale si cerca di restituire la dignità e la forza al popolo di Sarajevo, in un periodo in cui l’oblio, il male e la sofferenza dominano nel mondo. Si tratta, quindi, di un “passaggio all’altra parte: la parte oscura del mondo” (Rella 2000:165), di un grido contro il silenzio, rivendicando così alla scrittura il diritto di parlare chiaramente delle verità scomode e delle malvagità del mondo con parole taglienti e precise, poiché “l’unica forma che sembra poter includere in sé questo limite [il male] è il racconto”. (Rella 2002:15)

Però, questo romanzo non è solo la storia della guerra, è piuttosto la storia di piccole guerre quotidiane e le loro sconfitte, della ricerca della maternità. Si tratta, quindi, di un viaggio nel profondo dell’anima, cioè del viaggio verso il suo punto estremo. Secondo Rella, “è necessario procedere nel «cuore di tenebra» della passione, del pathos, dell’angoscia di fronte all’amore e alla morte, attraverso le lacerazioni, il male e il dolore per dare ad essi […] la forma che li renda cosa nostra. Per fare questo è necessario spingersi […] all’estremo”. (Rella 2000:173) Questo viaggio nell’estremo, con la sua struttura complessa e minuziosamente progettata, si rivelavano una navigazione traumatica attraverso un labirinto che si risolve soltanto alla fine, e la cui forza sta proprio nel fatto che lascia il lettore con un’infinita e indistruttibile «speranza di sperare».

4. Il dolore sdoppiato: la maternità negata e il male della Storia

Venuto al mondo è il romanzo in cui si focalizza il “ventre”: il ventre sterile di Gemma e quello sanguinante di Sarajevo, che si confondono in un’unica storia sul dolore. Quello che collega il ventre di Gemma e quello di Sarajevo è la ricerca della maternità, la sofferenza che avviene per la mancanza della realizzazione di essa, e la guerra a Sarajevo, grazie alla quale Gemma ottiene finalmente un bambino.

“Nel caso di Venuto al mondo la menomazione è quella della sterilità: una giovane donna che non riesce ad avere figli, e che rimane prigioniera di questa impossibilità; una coppia che insegue il sogno di un figlio come prova di esistenza, e che questa prova la trova in un percorso di iniziazione”.14 Ma questo percorso simboleggia allo stesso tempo la ricerca della possibilità di ripartire per gli abitanti di una città, la ricerca della libertà; perciò la storia di Gemma si trasforma nel desiderio di un nuovo inizio per la città stessa.

Conseguentemente, Gemma si sente sempre “all’altezza di niente”: “Sono malata d’incompletezza, di illusioni”. (Mazzantini 2010:97) Gemma, quindi, si presenta come un’anima sofferente, nonostante in essa sia sempre presente una forte contestazione della sofferenza:

“In realtà l’unica cosa che so di me è che non mi piace soffrire” (Mazzantini 2010:46)


Non sorprende che, dopo l’aborto, Gemma cerca di cancellare i ricordi di quanto successo e di staccarsi dal dolore, causato non solo dalla perdita del bambino, ma anche dalla possibilità mancata di creare una famiglia completa con Diego. Questo rifiuto del dolore nasce da un desiderio di mera sopravvivenza e protezione, dal disinteresse e dall’apatia del tempo contemporaneo, dalla paura di vivere in un mondo che ha rispetto solo per i piaceri, in cui lo scorrere del tempo non permette punti di sosta per la riflessione, per le domande che valgono la pena di essere chieste, pur essendo capaci di portare la sofferenza, che è la malattia più grande del secolo dalla quale si fugge invano come da una tempesta. Tutta la cultura dell’uomo è fondata sull’inimicizia verso qualsiasi esperienza del dolore. In questo tipo di società “il dolore appare privazione di un bene, frattura, segnale, appello: un ordine è interrotto, una armonia è infranta; e

la coscienza di questo disordine assume il volto di una maledizione e di una condanna”. (Matteucci 1988:14)


In questo modo, Gemma diventa un peso per se stessa: si sente lontana dalla felicità, dalla vita stessa, “una sorta di molecola, di atomo o di pianeta, di frammento totalmente separato dal resto delle cose, completamente concentrato su se stesso” (Argullol 2000:22): “Sono al chiuso del mio corpo piombato. Il mondo si tenesse i suoi figli, io mi tengo la mia.”

Il corpo17 si può percepire in diversi modi: come custode della mente, come corpo del dolore, della passione, della coscienza vuota, che l’unica sembra poter spiegare tanta malvagità. Fare del male, infatti, significa ridurre l’uomo ad una cosa, “ridurre tutto allo stesso niente, un cesso pubblico e un convento nello stesso ammasso di calcinacci, un uomo morto accanto a un gatto morto”. (Mazzantini 2010:209) Anche la Bosnia rappresenta un corpo, un corpo che incarna le sofferenze di tutti gli abitanti coinvolti in guerra.

5. Il corpo come simbolo dell’identità e come metafora della città

Di conseguenza si può dire che il romanzo Venuto al mondo è anche la storia del «ventre», dell’interno, dell’assenza di un corpo e della sua importanza.

Il corpo17 si può percepire in diversi modi: come custode della mente, come corpo del dolore, della passione, della

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15 Mondo, L. Margaret Mazzantini, “Un figlio «rubato» nell’inferno di Sarajevo”. In La Stampa, dicembre 2008: http://margaretemazzantini.com/2008/12/un-figlio-%C2%ABrubato%C2%BB-nell%E2%80%99inferno-di-sarajevo/ (15.06.2012.)
17 Quanta sia l’importanza del corpo, in quanto inscindibile dall’anima, viene rilevata da Salvatore Natoli: “[...] la corporeità è l’esperienza costante del nostro essere noi stessi. In noi non c’è separazione tra corpo e mente, perché l’esperienza prima della mente è proprio il pensarsi come corpo. Quindi, non ci può essere una separazione tra anima e corpo;” (Natoli 2012:19).
tortura, il corpo come parte dell’io, come oggetto di manipolazione, come mezzo di comunicazione.18 Natoli rileva che “la mente è […] l’auto-riprestitività del corpo su se stesso in quanto distinto dal suo ambiente” (Natoli 2012:18) dato che “la mente va oltre i limiti della pelle ma non va oltre i limiti del corpo, perché la memoria è sempre una memoria del corpo.” (Natoli 2012:17) Quanto il corpo si sfugge capiamo tenendo a mente che “non conosciamo mai le ragioni del corpo; ciononostante il corpo è l’attualità oggettiva sempre presente in base ai quale sono costruite le relazioni.” (Natoli 2012:20) Sapendo che “percepiamo sempre il nostro corpo come nostro corazzo, non come cosa in sé” (Natoli 2012:21), la frustrazione di Gemma cresce sempre di più perché è proprio il suo corpo che la sfugga ma allo stesso tempo determina il corso della sua vita. Quindi, nel romanzo il corpo è fonte d’incompleta e oggetto di distruzione, ma è anche la città stessa un corpo sofferente, che sfugge alla violenza e cerca di liberarsi dalla prigionia e di ripartire.

Il corpo, quindi, si presenta come fonte di insoddisfazione, la forma in cui si vive catturati. Per Gemma il corpo è la sua carcere, il simbolo eterno dell’incompleta perché le viene negata la possibilità di diventare madre.19 Così, nella descrizione della visita di una sua amica che ha partorito, Gemma sente una profonda disperazione. La sua afflizione è legata anche all’im possibilità di vivere la trasformazione del corpo legata al parto, la quale segna per sempre un corpo come il corpo nel quale il dolore ha procreato una vita20:

Ogni volta che sono andata a trovare una mia amica che partoriva tra cuscini bianchi e fiocchi […] mi sono sentita un pezzo più sola, un pezzo più brutta, […] senza essere più io. Io non ho partorito. Non si guarisce mai da ciò che ci manca […] lo non ho partecipato all’evento primigenio, alla regenerazione di me stessa. […] I parti cambiano le ossa, le stompato. Mia nonna diceva che ogni nascita è un chiodo nel corpo di una donna, un ferro di cavallo. E che prima di morire le madri rivelano i parti che hanno fatto, il corpo che si spalanci e cede al mondo carbone bianco. Vedono i chiodi, la traccia del loro percorso. Morendo cosa ricorderà? Quale sarà il mio ferro di cavallo? (Mazzantini 2010:390)

Gemma si ribella al suo dolore nato da questa «incompleta» del corpo proprio attraverso le modificazioni artificiali del corpo stesso spostando l’attenzione da esso e non pensando all’im possibilità di avere figli. È una via di fuga per lei, dal momento che, ogni volta che si guarda nello specchio, vede il buco, le rughe che lasciano tracce delle sconfitte, la “pancia morta”21: “In bagno, mentre mi trascino via il trucco dagli occhi, mi guardo. Non mi piaccio. Vedo sempre e solo il buco mio”. (Mazzantini 2010:328) Si sente già mutilata, priva di bellezza; sente anche la repulsione nei confronti del corpo.22 Perciò l’inizio della menopausa rappresenta la fine della sua rabbia: “Sono andata in menopausa un
anno fa, non me ne è fregato un accidenti, non mi è mai servito a nulla il mio ciclo. La fine del sangue è stata la fine della rabbia verso me stessa”. (Mazzantini 2010:489)

D’altra parte, attraverso il caso di Aska, la madre naturale del figlio adottato da Gemma, viene rappresentata la distruzione del corpo, in quanto sul suo corpo viene eseguito il peeggior tipo di violenza, lo stupro, un atto inscindibile dalla guerra in Bosnia, il “tentativo sistematico di minare l’identità femminile”. (Di Palma 2010:224) Gli stupri delle donne in guerra sono collegati alla forza con la quale l’uomo sostituisce la propria paura e invidia nei confronti della donna, in quanto, a differenza dell’uomo, ha la possibilità di procreare. Questa caratteristica esclusivamente femminile incute paura all’uomo perché sottolinea la sua vacuità, così che l’uomo, conseguentemente, cerca di sottoporre la donna al proprio dominio attraverso lo stupro. Lo stupro si rivelà, quindi, uno dei metodi per dominare la donna, dato che l’uomo si sente minacciato da questa specificità femminile, in quanto interiore, biologica e intoccabile.24 Dunque, attraverso lo stupro l’uomo esercita il suo potere sulla donna per riconfermare la propria forza e superiorità. Detto altrimenti, attraverso lo stupro l’uomo esercita il controllo sulla donna. Il potere di partorire, che provoca paura nell’uomo in quanto sfugge al suo controllo, diventa così controllato almeno in parte, fecondando “i campi di semi cattivi”, usando, cioè, la forza e il dono regalato alla donna come l’arma contro di essa, contro la sua identità.

Tuttavia lo stupro rileva anche che il corpo non è qualcosa di cui l’uomo dispone. (Zlatar 2010:107) Dopo lo stupro, Aska non può non sentire il corpo; se riusciva a farlo grazie alla sua immaginazione, adesso, comunque, esso non le sembra possibile perché il bambino vive dentro di lei: “il catararo dei diavoli”, “il coagulo dei diavoli”, “il nido dei serpenti”, l’orrore interno che la ricorda che non c’è il limite tra l’interno e l’esterno, che la pelle non può proteggerla dal mondo esteriore. Per questo motivo lei non può rientrare nel suo corpo, dal momento che esso è già “abitato”. Ed è la memoria

21 L’incomprensione del ciclo mestruale da parte degli uomini si può notare anche in un altro personaggio della Mazzantini, Timoteo in Non ti muovere, nell’occasione quando sua figlia affronta la prima mestruazione che consolida il rapporto della ragazza con la madre, mentre esclude la presenza del padre: “Mi sono ritirato qua dentro, a voi donne il resto della casa, panini bianchi, ovatta, sangue di vergine. Tua madre ha preparato il té [...] Inzupperete biscotti con le gambe incrociate sul tappeto come due coetanee. Oggi è una giornata speciale [...]. Io mangerò un po’ di formaggio da solo in cucina, più tardi. Penso che un giorno farai l’amore”. (Mazzantini 2001:128).


24 Andrea Zlatar, ad esempio, nell’analisi del tocco riporta l’idea di Julia Kristeva sull’ordine patriarcale nel quale il potere maschile conferma di essere minacciato dalla forza irrazionale e furba che esso non può controllare, e che si riferisce alla forza del pericolo rappresentato dal sangue mestruale. Questa forza proviene dal fatto che viene dal dentro, dalla parte interna dell’identità sociale o sessuale, il che minaccia la base di rapporti sociali tra i sessi. (Cfr. Zlatar 2010:28-27).
Sotto il suo senso di vergogna, della distruzione della sua identità.\(^{25}\)

Inoltre, non è solo il bambino che la ricorda della violenza subita, ma anche il segno sulla nuca, il segno lasciato dalle stesse per lo stupratore durante l’atto di violenza, che Diego trasforma in un tatuaggio, in una “cosa bella”, per almeno cercare di allontanare il male, di seppellirlo. Non conoscendo la verità, Gemma riconosce in questo tatuaggio “una tristezza tangibile”, dicendo: “Mi sembra che in questa macchia rossa ci sia più guerra che in tutte le foto di guerra”. (Mazzantini 2010:107) Detto altrimenti, il corpo di Aska si trasforma nel simbolo dell’intera Bosnia: esso simboleggia il corpo distrutto di tutta la gente di Sarajevo (“ha la Bosnia intera negli occhi”), e il suo ventre rappresenta il ventre di Sarajevo, violentato, massacrato ed insanguinato.

Ci sono molti esempi nel testo in cui la città stessa è rappresentata come il corpo, cioè, come un organismo che raccoglie in sé i pensieri ed i dolori di tutta la gente che vive in essa e che “può andare via come ogni cosa viva”, destinata alla morte. Perciò a Gemma sembra che Sarajevo possa perfino “sussurrare” a Pietro, per cui ha paura che “Sarajevo abbia una voce sottile, che canti e racconti”. Del resto, descrivendo la città con le metafore contenenti le parti del corpo (Miljacka sembra “latte di donna”, Holiday Inn è un “ventre scuro”, l’aeroporto è “un piede in cancrena in fondo al corpo sofferente della città”, il Ponte Vecchio è lo “ scheletro bianco” perché gli manca quel corpo che aveva prima della guerra), si allude alla fragilità della città, alla facilità con la quale può essere distrutta, proprio come il corpo umano. Oltre a ciò, ricorrendo alla metafora del corpo per rappresentare la città e le sue trasformazioni, si consolida ancora di più il tema centrale del corpo, cioè del ventre, nonché la simbologia che Aska e Pietro ottengono nel romanzo: la forza e la resistenza di Aska coincide con la difesa resistente di Sarajevo. In altre parole, il corpo di Aska resiste, come resiste il popolo di Sarajevo, dimostrando di essere più forte delle tragedie subite e dei tentativi disumani di distruggere la vita; di conseguenza, con la nascita di Pietro si allude alla futura rinascita della Bosnia e alla speranza che il male, alla fine, non sempre deve vincere.

6. *Mare al mattino*: due tragedie incrociate dalla storia

*Mare al mattino* è una parabola etica, un libro di argomenti politici sull’esclusione dell’altro, che attraverso il raddoppiamento dei dolori e del dramma delle due madri, due figli e due mondi, rappresenta come in uno specchio il Mare al mattino.

È l’arma migliore che ha. La carne marcia dei poveri. È dinamite. Fa scoppiare i centri d’accoglienza, le ipocrisie dei governanti.” (Mazzantini 2011:23.)

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\(^{25}\) È perfino difficile essere guardate da altre donne dopo lo stupro, e ancor meno mantenere il bambino, il frutto del male. Persino lo sguardo delle altre ricorda la donna le violenze subite sul proprio corpo; lo sguardo, così, si trasforma in un altro tipo di violenza. Ma guardare rappresenta il dolore anche per chi guarda, “gli occhi ammalano il corpo perché sono costretti a guardare”. Anche Aska si rifiuta di guardare Diego poiché si vergogna del proprio corpo: “Diego le tiene la testa, lei non può guardarlo in faccia, non vuole. Si vergogna di se stessa, di quello che le hanno fatto”. (Mazzantini 2010:511).


\(^{27}\) “È l’arma migliore che ha. La carne marcia dei poveri. È dinamite. Fa scoppiare i centri d’accoglienza, le ipocrisie dei governanti.” (Mazzantini 2011:23.)
costretta a lasciare Libia, da quel momento in poi vive proprio a metà, in solitudine anche in mezzo agli altri, come “la coda sporca di una storia coloniale che nessuno aveva voglia di dissetolare”. (Mazzantini 2011:68)

Detto altrimenti, attraverso la sua storia e la storia di Jamila la Mazzantini affronta il tema del postcolonialismo, dell’estranezza e della cattiva accoglienza degli italiani in Libia e degli africani in Italia. Questo argomento porta alla conclusione paradossale che nel mondo odierno, in cui regna la globalizzazione, risulta tuttavia difficile accettare e rispettare una cultura diversa dalla propria. Considerati sempre gli “altri”, vivendo tra le due culture e le due nazioni, tali individui rimangono in una terra di mezzo, non appartenendo più a nessuna, costretti alla vita ai confini ed all’identità dei profughi: “Noi siamo tripolini, non siamo né qui né lì, siamo fermi in mare come quei ragazzi senza approdo”. (Mazzantini 2011:115) La famiglia di Angelina sente perfino la colpa a loro attribuita dopo il ritorno in Italia (“Cosa siete tornati a fare? A rubare il lavoro agli altri italiani, quelli veri, nati e cresciuti qui?” (Mazzantini 2011:69)), facendo così nascere un mondo quasi kafkiano in cui la condanna non avviene dopo il crimine ma in cui proprio la punizione imposta ad un individuo miserabile lo costringe a cercare il delitto di cui è accusato, cioè la sua colpa:

Santa smise di lottare. Da qualche parte cominciò a sentirsi colpevole. A sembrarlo. Non riusciva a staccarselo di dosso quel sentimento di smarrimento, di minorità. La gente privata di se stessa perde i confini, messa al muro può confessare un omicidio che non ha commesso. (Mazzantini 2011:68)

Conseguentemente, Angelina, sentendosi smarrita, senza una vera casa, è sempre pronta a ripartire, e pensa solo di “Ripartire la sua vita [...] Nel punto dove si era interrotta”. (Mazzantini 2011:74) Comunque, dopo il ritorno in Libia, Angelina capisce che quello non è più il suo paese, in quanto Tripoli è distrutta, ed esiste solo la memoria di quello che era stata una volta. Perciò ride “come una demente”, godendo la mutilazione e la trasformazione della città che in tal modo non la fa più soffrire tanto come prima, ma la libera della sua disperazione, del male interno. Libia ora ricorda il Ground Zero, come sottolinea Vito, figlio di Angelina, un ragazzo combattuto tra la spensieratezza adolescente e l’assunzione delle responsabilità delle proprie azioni e delle decisioni che dovrebbero contribuire alla creazione di un mondo migliore. Di conseguenza, il viaggio in Libia si dimostra utile non solo per Angelina ma anche per Vito, che ha vissuto con la madre per diciotto anni senza mai capirla veramente, senza capire come la storia crudele del mondo possa negare alle sue vittime la felicità e la pace. Il viaggio, quindi, risulta importante per la relazione tra la madre e il figlio: d’una parte, il ritorno nello spazio familiare è per Angelina il ritorno nel passato, la consapevolezza che concerne l’impossibilità di continuare la vita là dove si era interrotta, il confronto con se stessa, ossia con quello che è diventata in “esilio”, mentre, d’altra, ciò aiuta anche a Vito a capire la madre per la prima volta, il suo mal d’Africa che l’ha marcata:


D’altra parte, a differenza di Angelina, Jamila e altri profughi cercano soltanto di non guardare indietro, vogliono sperare che dopo il mare c’è la salvezza, l’aiuto. Più precisamente, la vita di tutte e due le protagoniste è altrove, è una vita rimandata nel tempo e nello spazio. Oltre alle due madri, anche i due ragazzi si differenziano uno dall’altro: mentre Farid è ancora un bambino che cerca il rifugio nella madre e segue i passi di lei, costretto a vivere la fellacia della morte del padre e della fuga dal paese natio, Vito è quasi un uomo che deve accettare la responsabilità della propria vita e agire, portando cambiamento. Il suo tentativo di trovare un luogo che gli corrisponda, di creare un sistema interiore di valore, è in conflitto con il mondo esteriore che ha la forza di distruggere la vita. Vito capisce che vive in un mondo di odio e di dolore, incapace di non ripetere gli errori del passato. Dopo la seconda guerra mondiale, diversi popoli sono coinvolti nelle guerre locali le quali, tuttavia, riguardano l’intero mondo. Vito capisce questa universalità del dolore che unisce tutti nella stessa tragedia; lui vede nella vita della madre quanto possano essere durevoli le conseguenze di una volontà irragionevole del potere e quanto possano cambiare la vita. Di conseguenza, Vito comprende che gli orrori si dimenticano

28 La Mazzantini descrive l’accoglienza degli africani in Italia in questo modo: “Ha visto la saturazione, la paura delle epidemie. La gente protestare, bloccare i moti, gli approdi. E poi ricominciare, buttarsi nel mare in piena notte per tirare su quei disperati che nemmeno sanno nuotare”. (Mazzantini 2011:113). La scrittrice rappresenta così l’ambiguità ed incertezza che riguarda l’aiuto agli svventurati da parte di quelli che sono più fortunati, che scatta per la paura dello “sconosciuto”.
e si nascondono, ma che dovrebbero essere conservati almeno nella memoria, per ricordare cosa possa causare l’odio. Perciò in lui nasce il desiderio di cambiare il mondo:

È quello che un ragazzo dovrebbe sperare, partecipare all’organizzazione del mondo. Lui è sempre stato uno studente in fuga, e non solo dalla scuola. Da ogni forma di apprendimento. Abbassa la testa. Si vergogna di queste ambizioni improvvisate. Non farà niente di buono, di rimarchevole. È più facile che accada così, che la sua vita passi inosservata. (Mazzantini 2011:76)

Eppure, quello che collega la sua storia a quella di Farid, oltre all’amuleto che Vito trova in spiaggia, è proprio la mancanza di un futuro migliore. E mentre per Farid e Jamila non c’è nemmeno speranza di futuro29; il futuro è negato anche a Vito ed Angelina, visto che esiste solo la violenza che paradossalmente crea la libertà. Perciò la fine del libro non è una fine felice ma amara ed ironica: “Evviva evviva”, perché la morte di Gheddafi, “L’insensatezza della rabbia postuma”, “un macabro trofeo [...] sporca i vivi”. (Mazzantini 2011:123) Risulta che alla violenza si reagisce con la violenza, e l’odio genera l’odio. Nel momento stesso in cui si sottrae umanità alla vittima si sottrae umanità a se stessi. (Rella 2002:136) In questo senso, quando viene ucciso un uomo, anche se un violentatore, tiranno, assassino, non inizia il cammino verso la pace ma verso una più forte presenza del male e di una triste vittoria.

In ultimis, le due storie sdoppiate rimandano anche allo sdoppiamento nella natura, ovvero nel deserto, un “deserto di sabbia, e di mare, che inghiotte i destini e ogni tanto rende qualcosa”30, che rivela così la forza dominatrice della natura. D’un’altra parte c’è il deserto, che “non si rivela mai, appare e scompare. Ha un volto che cambia forma e colore, vulcanico o bianco di sale. Un orizzonte invisibile, che danza e si sposta come le sue dune” (Mazzantini 2011:16); e d’altra, si trova il mare, “monotonò, non ha nessuna novità. Guardarlo è uno sbaglio, è come guardare un animale senza testa. [...] Carne blu che schiuma da una bocca sommersa. Farid [...] Si chiede qual è la faccia del mare”. (Mazzantini 2011:27) Il deserto ed il mare rappresentano tutti e due il pericolo, in quanto hanno una logica e una forza superiori all’uomo ed alla sua fragilità. Ciò si capisce soprattutto nella rappresentazione del mare, la cui importanza è accennata già nel titolo, il quale viene mutato nel romanzo in un’anima pulsante, simbolo della libertà e speranza, ma anche di coraggio, del tentativo di ricominciare. D’altra parte, la fuga, il viaggio attraverso il mare, verso lo sconosciuto, influenza anche la trama, che è molto veloce, in quanto l’autrice riesce a rappresentare in poche parole e soprattutto attraverso le enumerazioni la densità delle emozioni e degli eventi, nello stesso modo in cui è in grado di descrivere il mondo di due famiglie per mettere allo scoperto la storia dimenticata di intere generazioni. In questo senso, invece della ricerca individuale del passato per vincere l’oblio, la Mazzantini trasforma lo scopo nel ruolo collettivo che riguarda lo scavare degli eventi della storia, dal momento che la cancellazione dei ricordi dolorosi e la dimenticanza delle colpe non può portare nessun cambiamento: “Sotto il piede di ogni civiltà occidentale c’è una piaga, una colpa collettiva. [...] La Mazzantini trasforma lo scopo nel ruolo collettivo che riguarda lo scavare degli eventi della storia, dal momento che la cancellazione dei ricordi dolorosi e la dimenticanza delle colpe non può portare nessun cambiamento: “Sotto il piede di ogni civiltà occidentale c’è una piaga, una colpa collettiva. La madre non ama chi si professa innocente. [...] Angelina dice che lei non è innocente. Dice che nessun popolo che ha colonizzato un altro popolo è innocente”. (Mazzantini 2011:79)

Quindi, occorre sottolineare che in Mare al mattino la Mazzantini riesce a cogliere l’immagine di una realtà frenetica, frammentaria ed incoerente, in quanto dimostra il fenomeno antropologico del non-cambiamento e dell’irresponsabilità, nonché la ripetizione storica dell’ostilità, della crudeltà insensata del regime totalitario, la colpa collettiva del mondo, la vita degli “altri” e la marginalità di essi, la necessità di dare appoggio e di aiutare quelli che ne hanno bisogno. In questo senso si può dire che le storie dei due figli, delle due madri e dei due mondi, si specchiano e, alla fine, disegnando una sola storia, quella dell’intera umanità, che deve imparare a rispettarsi e convivere, diventando così “quello che la vita dovrebbe essere: esperienza che si moltiplica, cure che trovano altre cure, pensieri che incontrano
altri pensieri. Rispetto di se stessa, dell’ignoto che abita, dell’ignoto da cui è abitata”.32

7. Conclusione

L’importanza dei romanzi analizzati è racchiusa nella capacità della Mazzantini di smascherare i temi come dolore, morte, odio, guerra, violenza, ma anche di affrontare le questioni come la solitudine, l’incomprensione, la paura di accettare la responsabilità, l’egoismo e l’incapacità di accogliere l’«altro» come parte dello stesso universo. Ciò che la scrittrice focalizza è il dolore dell’anima, il quale si combata mentre si cerca costantemente di trovare la pace in un mondo nel quale i personaggi sono costretti a lottare inesorabilmente con la difficoltà di esistere. “Io sento gracidare il dolore del mondo”, dichiara la Mazzantini, cioè sente quel dolore che cerca di raccontare con lo scopo di denudare la sofferenza umana. Si può concludere che proprio grazie ai personaggi della Mazzantini si contribuisce al risarcimento della sofferenza e ad una più forte consapevolezza dell’ineluttabilità e dell’universalità del dolore.

Dall’analisi risulta che l’autrice riesce ad interpretare le crisi del suo tempo rappresentando la storia umana attraverso la descrizione del destino di personaggi che non sono degli eroi, ma i quali non si risparmiano nella loro ricerca di una vita migliore, nel rimorso, nella lotta contro l’insensatezza del mondo e nell’amore. Attraverso i suoi personaggi, i quali seguono il proprio codice etico e, conseguentemente, si autocondannano per le decisioni prese, la Mazzantini cerca di contribuire ad una più forte consapevolezza dell’ineluttabilità e dell’universalità del dolore. Utilizzando lo spazio come simbolo del dolore universale la Mazzantini trasforma il dolore individuale nel comune e lo rende universale. Questa universalità della sofferenza attenua la sofferenza della protagonista e trasforma il suo estraniamento, il suo sentirsi esclusa dal mondo in quanto sofferente, in un viaggio della speranza, ovvero in un racconto di un possibile nuovo inizio.

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Fruits and Vegetables Consumption Factor Based on Different Culture in Selangor State

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Abstract

This study explored about the differences of culture were able to affect the fruits and vegetables. Qualitative methods such as focus groups were applied in this study. 27 respondents enrolled in 3 different ethnics focus group discussion in Selangor state. Selangor was chosen as sampling frame for this research because it comprises the balanced ethnics in Malaysia compared to other state. Purposive sampling was used as a sampling technique. Respondents were chosen from three ethnics’ background which include Malay, Chinese and Indian with aged between 19 – 59 years old. Respondent were also selected based on their fruits and vegetables preference. Results indicated that Malay consumed fruits and vegetables based on environment. However, Chinese and Indians have trusted their own belief practiced by their early ancestors. In conclusion, this result will helps Malaysian marketers to understand the culture before starts to target market based on different culture in Selangor.

Keywords: Fruits, Vegetables, Consumption, Culture, Adults

1. Introduction

1.1 Fruits and Vegetables

Fruits and vegetables is considered to be a healthful food (Brug, Vet, Nooijer, & Verplanken, 2006). Recently, there were many research conducted about fruits and vegetables among adults as fruits and vegetables contains source of water soluble vitamins, antioxidant nutrients, as well as dietary fiber. In addition, they also generally consumed as they associates with health and diseases (Joshipura KJ, Hu FB, & Manson JE, 2001; Maynard M, Gunnell D, Frankel S, & G., 2003). Fruits and vegetables were also knows to associates with reduced risk of chronic diseases (such as cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, stroke, obesity, diverticulosis and cataract (Bogers, Assema, Kester, Westerterp, & Dagnelie, 2004) and cancers (Hall J.N., Moore, S.B., & Lynch, 2009). Fruits can be consumed in many ways, such as number of cups, number of servings and number of times eaten daily (Yeh, Obenchain, & Viladrich, 2010). Reported by Healthy People, 2020, they provides nutritional guidelines for public which focusing on how much fruits and vegetables must be consumed by an adults in America. Besides America consumption, it is interesting to investigate the current
fruits and vegetables consumption for Malaysian adults since World Health Survey in 2002 – 2003 stated that male and female have low consumption of fruits and vegetables. Few previous research showed that the amount of estimation of fruits and vegetables consumed were 96 gram of vegetables portray that Malaysian consumed less than 5 servings fruits and vegetables (Nurul Izzah et al., 2012).

1.2 Malaysia

Physically, Malaysia is a small nation with estimated population 28,142,000 in the year 2011 (Malaysian Department of statistics, 2011) with comprising three main races – the Malays, the Chinese and the Indians, started to live together before 1957 (Fat Sian, Shyue Chuan, Bik Kai, & Bee Chen, 2010). Each of the ethnics practices different culture in daily life. Malay usually knows as Muslims practitioner, whereas Chinese practice Buddhism and Indians practiced Hindu. Each of ethnics follows their own religion culture. In this study, researcher will focus about the fruits and vegetables found to consume by succeeding the different culture practiced by diversity of ethnics.

There was different meaning about culture by different researcher. Culture is not static but it is dynamic (Fat Sian et al., 2010). Culture is a potent force in any social groups whether it is an ethnics groups, religious group or special interest group. (J. O. Kim, S.Forsythe, Q.Gu, & S.J.Moon, 2002). Few studies show that a group of researcher agrees that culture has reflective impact on individuals' values and lifestyles. Thus, culture can be used to underestimates as it will affect people's thoughts, motives and value systems. In summary, culture is the systems of shared beliefs, values, customs, practices, behavior, symbols and artifacts of a group of members which used to interact and communicate with one another in one environments (Fat Sian et al., 2010). Few research has been conducted about consumers values in different ethnics culture affected the consumer behavior, especially among the Asian (Fat Sian et al., 2010). In addition, many research conducted in the consumer behavior were affected by Western Bias (Mooij, 2003). Research conducted solely focus on western bias and another research from oriental ethnic cultures such as Japanese, Koreans, Singaporean Chinese, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Mainland China (Fat Sian et al., 2010) and it was racially homogeneous. However, in Malaysia have co-existence of different races such as Malays, Chinese, Indians and others minority group which has unique combination of different cultures, religious and practices. In fruits and vegetables cases, all three ethnics had different consumption culture practiced widely from generation to generations. Each culture practiced will shapes the consumption of fruits and vegetables for these three ethnics.

The culture and beliefs were found out in this study, focusing about fruits and vegetables is well suited using qualitative methodologies. It helps researchers to collect highly rich data needed for documentation especially on the consumption of fruits and vegetables. The objective of this study was to investigate about differences of culture practiced by Malay, Chinese and Indians adults aged 19 – 59 years which reported to consume fruits and vegetables daily.

2. Methods

Qualitative method was applied in this study as it was useable to investigate the culture of fruits and vegetables for Malaysian adults. This methods were effective data collection compared to survey question as it was used to generalize the population (Y. . Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2009). Therefore, focus group discussion were used in this study to gather ideas, insights, feelings, perception and experiences about particular issues (Churchill, 2001; Krueger, 1994). Focus group were known as small group of people brought together an unstructured, spontaneous discussion about a specific (Burns & Bush, 2003; Churchill, 2001; Krueger, 1994)

2.1 Participants and recruitment

Adults aged 19 – 59 years old were found by using convenience sampling in Selangor area. However, many respondents were choosing from Selangor populated district known as Subang Jaya. This district were found to have balanced population of the three ethnic (Malaysia Department of Statistics, 2011). Convenience sampling were used to recruit “best informants” which represent the willing respondents to share relevant experiences about fruits and vegetables in a group (Morse. J, 1992; Patton, 1990). Respondent were chosen based on eligibility (based on ethnics, age and willingness to talk about food choice during a telephone screening interview. Before that, a flyers filled with qualified criteria of respondent has distributed via electronic emails, and pamphlet to the Subang Jaya area asking for willing respondent to participate the group discussions.
2.2 Data Collection

The focus group discussion were conducted by an experienced interviewer during March 2011. There were three focus group discussions with different ethnic groups for each focus group discussion. It was conducted in one place in Seminar rooms in hotel in Selangor area. Each of the focus group contains nine respondents with combinations of gender, marital status, age, and occupation. In total, there were 27 respondents interviewed in three focus group conducted. The focus group discussion started with a warm greeting and followed by full clarification about the research and all the data gathered were used solely for the purpose of the study.

A semi-structured questions were used in the focus group discussion. Each of the focus group discussion were divided into two sessions which each sessions used 1 hour 15 minutes. First session focused on fruits and second half session were focusing on vegetables. Semi-structured question was used to allowed the interviewer to probe for details more about to talk about different benefits, challenges of eating fruits and vegetables (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Each participant will sign consent form approved by Committee Supervisor. The Focus group discussion was conducted by three trained interviewers in English and Bahasa Malaysia. All interviews were audiotape recorded. Shortly, verbatim transcripts were completed from the tapes and reviewed for accuracy. However, Bahasa Malaysia were transcribed into English by bilingual transcribers and verified by English experts to remain the meanings. Each participant in focus groups discussions received compensation for participation in form of small amount of money. The participants were given form to fill in about their basic demographic information as a record to interviewers.

Afterwards, data about demographic information were collected before the discussions started. In a meanwhile, field notes collected from interviews, interview transcripts were used in the analysis.

2.3 Data Analysis

The interview transcripts were analyzed manually by using content analysis. After the theme were derived from interview transcriptions, field notes and demographic information, peer check were used to discussed about the emergent themes and validate research finding (Lincoln YS & Guba EG, 1985). However, members check were used in this study to facilitate the patterns emerging from interviews to discussed about the emerging patterns.

3. Results

There were 27 participants involved in this focus group discussion (Table 1). Majority of the participants is female which present that diverse age groups. Three major ethnicities were included: Malay, Chinese and Indians. Most of the respondents had high education and they presented low to moderate-income groups with varieties of households.

### Table 1. Respondent Profile (n=27)

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Table 1 shown the respondent profile of focus group discussions. Although all the participants shared all their thought about fruits and vegetables, this article focuses on the different culture practices during consuming fruits and vegetables. There were 3 major themes identified in this study. There were food environments, habits, parental control, and ethnics’ beliefs and traditions. The differences of culture can be found in the last themes which it was associated with ethnics tradition and beliefs. However another three earlier themes was found to have similarities to each of Malay, Chinese and Indians.

3.1 Themes

3.1.1 Food environment

The experience during childhood were a factor which shaping the current fruits and vegetables consumptions. Childhood experiences such as the availability of various fruit and vegetables in their growing environment, experiences preparing fruits and vegetables and pleasure memories of the taste of fruits and vegetables. There were two examples about food environments:

“I like mango. My grandma house have mango tree.. When I go back, she will pick for me”
R6, Chinese, Female

“Since childhood, my parents used to taught me about fruits and vegetables. They always in my surrounding. I enjoyed seasonal fruits. However, for vegetables, it was easily found at my house backyard. That’s why I used to eat them”
R2, Malay, Female

It was found that Malay consumed ‘ulam’ which is fresh vegetables. Additionally, ‘ulam’ is knows as Malay herbs. Malay like to consume ‘ulam’ such as Cosmos caudatus (Ulam raja), pucuk gajus or Indian Pennywort (Pegaga) but none for Chinese and Indians respondents.

“For Indians.. we would not take ‘ulam’
R3, Indians Male

“Ulam? We only take fresh salad such as cabbage or slice cucumber”
R5, Chinese, Female

3.1.2 Ethnics beliefs and traditions

Ethnics identity was based on each ethnics groups. There were similarity and dissimilarities among Malay, Chinese and Indians participants. One of the dissimilarities is from Chinese beliefs. Chinese respondents describes her Chinese belief shapes her fruits and vegetables consumption over her life by using Chinese Yin and Yang :

“When I came across a choosing the fruits, this one thing that I are concerned the most. It is (This is) according to the Chinese tradition. You know, I mean like (follow) the physician (roles). The first (to be concern) is three (elements). I don’t know specific terms for it. It’s (It is) like heat, and then neutral and then very cooling one. I try to avoid the heat one, (such as) Durians and mangoes. Because they are well in fiber, and because I (was) easily get heat and then I will have sore throat, (and) all those thing (other fever symptom). So, normally I will choose the neutral one (fruits) like (such as) papaya, banana, those kind of fruits. And cooling one maybe like peas. I think apples is neutral. Yeah, mostly neutral (Fruits). That was I concern the most.”

“As I mention about heaty, cooling and the.. neutral, one more thing, is there are some fruits that (follow) our Chinese perceptions..They are some fruits which is very cold, I mean it’s not suitable for ladies to take....Orange.. it has cold elements according to the Chinese physician”

Another Chinese woman who follows the religion based on culture stated that :
“Some nutritional value in vegetables, in terms of Chinese traditional medicine value, for example, vegetable are also have like each category like fruits.. Cold, hearty and natural.. For examples, if let's say.. feeling (having) a cold, it will good to have (something, then) when you cook vegetables, you put ginger in it? Because ginger can help in terms of stimulate that.. So, another thing, you can try.. if lets say you are suspecting yourself is having worms.. You can take a lot of garlic”

Instead of female Chinese, the male also stated that they practice to follows their Chinese culture when they feel sick in his life:

“I know a few.. but the most is like (such as) bitter gourd. They actually have cooling (elements). They have the cooling (elements). Let's say your body is (feeling) heat, hearty or what.. (and will) like start to do (have) get fever, body heating, (then) get the bitter gourd, and then, and you would like cooling (the temperature) it down. You are cooling it (temperature) down. Actually, quite works. Yeah.. Because every time I (when) I started to like (have) body heating, I felt like I gonna (going to) get fever very soon, they are sore throat, and you get the bitter gourd, is really working. It works all the time”

Chinese participants stated that they consumed vegetables such as bamboo shoot during Chinese New Year festival. They were Chinese leek, lotus root and water chest nut. For Chinese New Year dinner, all the Chinese respondents stated that they consume “Yee Sang”, a Chinese traditional salad.

“The most is like er.. bitter gourd. They actually have cooling (elements). Let's say your body is heat (high temperature), hearty or what.. like start to do get fever, (and) body starts heating, er.. get (consume) the bitter gourd, and then, and you would like cooling it down (temperature). Actually, Yeah, quite works. Yeah.. Because every time I started to like (have) body heating, I felt like I gonna (going to) get fever very soon, they are sore throat, and you get the bitter gourd, is really working. It works all the time. We cooked bitter gourd soup.

R9, Chinese, Male

“Yeah.. sometimes I think the intake of vegetables are filtrated with our..maybe our beliefs, our practice, like for Chinese, some of Chinese because of the religion, the first day and the 15th days of the month, some of them practiced vegetarian. Yeah, according to the lunar calendar. And for the.. because I'm a Hakka, which one of the dialect, we traditionally we eat “letcha”… it's like all vegetables… Since young.. our grandmother said, if you don't eat this, you are not consider as one of us. One of the family. So, we are forced to eat it.

R4, Chinese, Female

From the analysis, Malay, Chinese and Indian have the specific time to consume fruits and vegetables. They consumed fruits and vegetables daily. Besides that, they have different occasion to consumed fruits and vegetables. Chinese and Indian respondents usually prepared fruits for praying ceremony. In addition, one Indian respondent shared that they practiced vegetarianism to express sorrow when someone in the family is dead.

“My father in law died. So in 16 days, we only consumed vegetables. For examples, one day for one vegetables. Cut it into small pieces and cooked it. Sometime we put into curry. Vegetables such as lady's finger, French beans, potato, tomato and unripe banana”

R 5, Indian, Male

4. Discussions

Participants in this study had explained about culture can affects their fruits and vegetables consumptions, as mentions in the themes described above. For examples, Chinese describing that they follows their food culture, especially Chinese beliefs known as Ying and Yang elements, and Indians with their vegetarianism practiced. However, there is no records for Malays who follows Muslims rules for vegetables except for ‘Halal’ issues. Malays were known as Muslims and practice Islam. The concept of ‘Halal’ which means ‘lawful or permitted’ can be found in Islam. Muslims applied ‘Halal’ in their lifes and it includes regulations surrounding food (betterhealth.vic.gov.au, 2011). In fruits and vegetables term, they were free to consumed any fruits and vegetables. However, in the results stated that Malay food environment was found that Malay practices to consume ulam.

Chinese participant admitted that they consumed fruits and vegetables based on their culture. It was found that culture influenced fruits and vegetables consumptions since one of the philosopher of Chinese garden of serenity known as Hung Tzu - Ch‘eng stated that ‘only those who can appreciate the least palatable of vegetables roots know the
meaning of life’ (Anderson, 2005). In addition, Chinese participants shared that they follow their beliefs in food culture (Hauf, 2011). The Taoist teaching which associated with Ying and Yang cosmology has transcended to become one way of thinking to become a general Chinese cultural resources. Yin which means cold, and yang means hot. From the results it was found that Chinese participant shares the yin and yang rules during consumed fruits and vegetables. It was proven when yin and yang applied to cold and hot aspects of food, food as medicine, balanced and harmony of flavours (Hauf, 2011). Besides, Taoist traditions beliefs that food should be combined with medical or healing functional. In this beliefs, they believe that food have two elements (hot and cold). For examples hot foods includes chilli and ginger should be avoided by pregnant woman or people with high blood pressure diseases. However, the ‘cool’ vegetables such as eggplant should be eaten by people who wish to lower their blood pressure (betterhealth.vic.gov.au).

Indian cooking varies throughout the country and according to ethnic and religious preference (Hauf, 2011). Indians knowns to practices Hindus. Therefore, they were not allowed to consume beef as cow is sacred. As a results, they practices vegetarians (Hauf, 2011), likewise the Indians people from south of India. This was in line with the results that Indians were found to consume vegetables frequently and it was effected by their vegetarianism eating culture (Kutler, 2004). They practice vegetarians by consuming for fruits and vegetables such as potato, tomato, french beans, sweet potato, tapioca, cashew nut, capsicum, maize and papaya (Nandy, A, 2004).

This study focus on ethnicity. Therefore, the profile of the respondents such as age, gender, marital status were not discussed as the main factor. As culture were derives from ethnics, other factors need to be neglected. Food is an importance part of religious observance of different faiths, including Christianity, Judaism, Islam, Hinduism, and Buddhism. Thus, the roles of food practices and religious is complex and various among individuals and communities (betterhealth.vic.gov.au).

5. Conclusions

Formally, fruits and vegetables were considered as one of the health food (Tak, Te Velde, & Brug, 2009). However, when people eat it depends on the culture, the benefits of the fruits and vegetables were second to be concerned. Traditionally, other researcher focuses on the growing environment, habits, and health which has been a reason to consume fruits and vegetables. However, this paper focus more on the beliefs and traditions of different ethnics. Hence, this paper might guide other researchers to understand how culture affects the consumption of this three major ethnics in Malaysia.

The findings from this study are definitely useful to Malaysian government as they are known as multiracial country. This multicultural society has contributed the richness of Malaysian consumption, especially for fruits and vegetables. We need to understand the impact of the culture context within Malay, Chinese and Indians since this ethnics live on their ability to consumed fruits and vegetables. Fruits and vegetables is health foods, thus the intake is always associated with health benefits in life. There were many scientific research has been done throughout the benefits of fruits and vegetables. Perhaps this scientific research can be done to prove that the culture or each ethnics has similar results and describing specifically about why the fruits and vegetables is labeled as hot and cold elements. Besides, future studies could test the themes retrieved from current research by using the quantitative methods to generate the culture effects towards fruits and vegetables. However, there was limitation in this study. The findings from this research only used as primary research and could not generalized the whole Selangor state, as it used only 27 participants in focus group discussions.

Finally, this study is expected to be enrich the body of knowledge in the culture of fruits and vegetables literature, using Malaysian culture.

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Security and Treatment of Protected Witness Prisoners

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Abstract

The protected witness prisoners are a specific category which requires adequate institutional training in accordance to the international standards while always having in central of attention their protection and safety. The protected witness prisoners as a specific category of prisoners, their safety is always endangered by different factors due to the fact that they are witnesses of an event, which is an aggravated criminal act with exceptional interest to the justice institutions for adequate decision making. Correctional Service of the Republic of Kosovo in accordance to the legal infrastructure has established necessary institutions for the protection, safety and training of the prisoners in all categories, such as: detained persons, prisoners by court verdict, high risk prisoners, juveniles and the witness protection prisoners as an specific category. For the institutional treatment of this specific category of the prisoners, the Kosovo Correctional Service in cooperation with the international factor in Kosovo has proved since two years ago that is competent to deal with adequate treatments of this specific category of prisoners and their safety by fulfilling international criteria’s and standards as well those originating from laws in power.

Keywords. Witness protection prisoner, Safety, Treatment, International Standards and Legal infrastructure.

1. Development aspect of the correction service institutions in Kosovo since 1999

The initiation of the air strikes by NATO, (Clinton, 2004) in Kosovo, triggered the arrest of large number of the citizen in the streets, without any court verdict. The same were placed into correctional institutions. They went through inhumane treatment and the witnesses speak that they suffered physical and psychological tortures and that they had only one meal per day only to survive. Some of these people were not able to face this situation and committed suicide. They openly requested to be executed by the regime institutions rather to be ill-treated in such inhumane manner.

The end of the war in Kosovo found the correctional institutions damaged in the aspect of infrastructure. In this aspect it is important to note that the history of the penitentiary system is an integral part of the overall history of one country, as such the Institutions of Kosovo do not make any exception (Sadiku, 2010). Initially, after the entry of KFOR (Halbauer, 2012) forces in Kosovo, all institutions, such as: Detention Centers and Correction Centers were under administration and management of KFOR, for the period June – November 1999.


Correctional Institutions in Kosovo have started to be operational by the end of the year 1999 by UNMIK1, within Pillar I for Justice and as a reserved responsibility of the SRSG2 and supported by the local staff the Detention Center in Prizren started its operation in November 1999.

After the war, the inherited situation of the non functional correctional institutions with damaged building infrastructure. Nevertheless, these institutions have been consolidated and became operational to hold the detained persons as well the prisoners through the assistance from international community. Since the beginning of 1999, many positive changes and visible developments were done in building infrastructure and in promotion of the work quality. The establishment of the Detention Center in Prizren was followed by consolidation of the Correctional Institutions in: Dubrava, Gjilan, Lipjan, Peja, Mitrovica and later on all other detention centers in Kosovo.

Kosovo Correctional Service under the international monitoring, along with the improvement of the building infrastructure has recruited continuously local staff to fulfill its needs to be operational. During this process the Kosovo

1 The United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo or UNMIK was established pursuant to Security Council Resolution 1244.
2 The Special Representative of the Secretary-General (‘SRSG’) is the head of UNMIK.
Correctional Service has faced many different challenges, including the working sub-cultural aspects of the Detention Centers and the Correctional Centers (Kauffman, 1998).

Kosovo Correctional Service has been established based in the international criteria’s and standards, similarly to the most advanced correctional systems in Europe thanks to the most advanced practices brought by the international staff from their countries. The priority of the Kosovo Institutions was to ensure that there is enough space to hold all the prisoners as well the detained persons. For a certain period these institutions were not prepared to deal with protected witness prisoners due to the lack of the legal infrastructure3 as well the buildings to settle this specific category of the prisoners. Additionally, during this period of time there was no High Security Prison. Instead there was a modified building where the high risk prisoners were settled and as result there were three escapes from this institution.


The transfer of the competencies from UNMIK to the Kosovo Government4 in June of 2005 was done in accordance with the UNNIK Regulation 2005/53, which has set the legal bases for the establishment of the Ministry of Justice. The Regulation had foreseen the initial competencies of the Ministry of Justice which started to function in March 2006. After this phase, the Kosovo Correctional Service has started with the recruitment of the new management composed of local staff under the monitoring of the Kosovo Ministry of Justice and operating independently from UNMIK. This phase of transferring competencies was continuous until the declaration of Independence by Kosovo in year 2008 and it had a specific importance in continuation of professional development of the correctional institutions (Dreshaj, 2010). During this period of time, many weaknesses were noticed into managing the high risk prisoners and the protected witness prisoners. Kosovo had no High Security Prison and no Witness Protection Prison, which situation created many difficulties in managing this specific category of prisoners. The prison for the protected witnesses was established in 2009 and it has become operational in 2011. In 2012 the work to build the new High Risk Prison has commenced. This prison is expected to become operational during October 2013.

By building the prison for the sentenced protected witnesses, the conditions have been created to settle this specific category into adequate institution where the level of security and their treatment is in accordance to the their needs, and in accordance to the relevant laws and international requirements for this specific category.

The Witness Protection Unit became operational in July 2011. Since the beginning of October 2011, first protected witness prisoners have been settled in. Their settlement, holding and the security has attracted a lot of media attention, general public and from other local and international factors. This situation has made this institution of great importance to mobilize all its capacities and to increase the level of security, to increase the level of professional performance by its staff, to build modern technology for the technical security of witnesses. Along with the physical security that the prison offers, we will be more professional in realizing our mission in better management of this specific category in prisons. Current situation requires the attention and permanent awareness by its professional staff working in this institution as well by other state institutions. The Ministry of Justice and the Government in general should take more efforts to assist this institution to achieve its main goal, which is “to provide a safe environment and harmless for all the prisoners who are included into witness protection prison program”.

The establishment of these conditions for this specific category of prisoners has motivated others to testify for different criminal act despite the fact that they have been participants in committing these criminal acts. This is influencing strongly into the public perception that no case is remaining unsolved and it is increasing the citizen’s awareness to report crime in general. Until now we have faced many difficulties and challenges in dealing with this specific category of prisoners, but with the support from the international community in Kosovo – EULEX, Kosovo Police and other law enforcement institutions in Kosovo we have managed relatively well the situation. Through legal provisions (law 04/L-015) and other secondary legal documents, we have defined the means for professional cooperation between the Kosovo Correctional Service – Prison for sentenced protected witnesses and the Kosovo Police. The Kosovo Correctional

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3 The UNMIK Regulation 1999/4, represented the applicable legal base for the work of the Correctional Institutions. This Regulation enabled the implementation of the Law on Execution of Penal Sanction from the year 1977. The applicable legislation included also the European prison rules and the international standards. It is important to mention that it there was a need for a specific Law for protected witness prisoners which would define the norms and standards for security and treatment of this specific category from prisoners.

4 In June 2006, the process of transferring competencies from UNMIK Department of Justice to the Ministry of Justice of the Government of Kosovo, took place.
Service is responsible for transporting the protected witness prisoners, while the Kosovo Police is responsible to provide security during such transportation and the security at the institution where the session, the interview or trial is taking place. This cooperation is contributing to avoid problems in securing the protected witness prisoners. Along with the security, the establishment of appropriate conditions such as medical treatments within the institution, quality of food, free activities and visits, all of these have contributed to make the work with this specific category of prisoners safer and better. Currently there is still a need to have the support from the Ministry of Justice as well from other governmental bodies to increase its efficiency on witness protection prison program. This program shows that there is a need for increased financial funding; therefore, in the future there will be large expenditures and a sustainable budget line is required to increase even more the security level for a better treatment of this category of prisoners with the purpose of meeting the international standards. Despite the fact that this program is very expensive for Kosovo it is necessary to provide necessary and sustainable financial funds to ensure the future of this program. Its financial sustainment it is important to contribute the creation of the proper perception by the staff and others, in supporting the safety and security of this category of prisoners as well as the overall security in Kosovo. All the indications show that the number of prisoners to enter this program will increase in the coming months and years, which shows the necessity for the urgent budget review and the increase of human resources.

4. Challenges and problems during the work with protected witness prisoners

Working with, and managing this specific category of prisoners is facing different challenges and problems which requires a more professional approach and a permanent support from other governmental bodies.

We are lacking:

- The best international practices regarding the treatment and security for this specific category of prisoners;
- Harmonized standards within the witness protection system;
- A fully operational Witness Protection Unit;
- Insufficient financial support for a quality work on the program;
- Specialized equipments;
- Advanced training for the staff to manage this specific category.

The witness protection program is the responsibility of the state institutions, but it is necessary to have a regional approach and cooperation in order to exchange best practices and to ensure the financial autonomy of these witness protection units.

During last two years the program we have faced also the attempts of outside groups to eliminate or abduct two different attempts from different criminal groups to eliminate or abduct the witnesses while being transported from one location to another. In both cases the Witness Protection Unit has hardly achieved to secure the witnesses and to prevent their abduction by these criminal groups. We managed to prevent this thanks to the intervention of the Kosovo Police Special Units, who successfully reacted in the right moment.

Despite these experiences, it is obvious that such attempts will occur in the future as well. Therefore, it is necessary to properly train the staff, to adopt the best international practices from experienced international units for this unit and to build the necessary legal infrastructure including the secondary legal acts which would cover every element of the work of the Witness Protection Unit.

5. Conclusion

Providing necessary and regular budget as well providing additional financial funds for staff that works overtime or does additional work it is vital for better functionality and management of the Witness Protection Unit. Additionally, it is important to plan for an emergent financial fund to cover any unexpected expenses of this institution to ensure its operational needs are covered as well including the costs originating from additional security measures and increasing number of needs for transportation and escort. The organizational structure and number of human resources for the Witness Protection Prison have been determined, depending on the position in which they operate within the prison. Currently a total of 53 of personnel are assigned to cover all shifts 24/7 including the days off during holidays. The need

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5 A statement from the author in the capacity of the Commissioner for Kosovo Correctional Service.

6 Ibid.
to increase the number of personnel has emerged in order to cover the duties of witness transportation which would result with additional financial costs. The overall conclusion is that due to the nature of this work there is a need not only to increase the human resources but also to provide advanced transport vehicles which would comply with the necessary technical and security needs.

Furthermore, for successful performance of the personnel engaged in witness protection it is necessary to provide the necessary training. Currently the personnel is trained in basic level of operation but the needs for more advance trainings in fields of driving/ transportation, health, and other treatment programs have become imminent. To make sure that the treatment of protected witness prisoners is in accordance with the highest standards it is required to have available the additional medical personnel to ensure medical needs of this specific category of prisoners. The monitoring system of cameras, the signalization system and the alarm system have been proven to be in good working condition in last two years since their installation.

Despite a professional and close cooperation between the Witness Protection Prison and other law enforcement and justice institutions, there is still a need to improve this cooperation in higher levels such as information and intelligence sharing in order to provide a better security for the protected witness prisoners. This information and intelligence sharing process would be beneficial to conduct a risk assessment and to take in consideration all necessary options in emergency cases such as evacuation of witnesses.

It is a continuous goal of the Witness Protection Prison to plan and to ensure that protected witness prisoners have same comparable privileges as other prisoners in other correction institutions.

To ensure that protected witness prisoners have adequate treatment, the Prison has provided for them various rehabilitation and therapeutic programs, various free activities within the prison, as well has the opportunity for work within the institution. Furthermore to ensure their welfare, the institution has provided the opportunity to get visitations and to have recreational, sportive and training activities with the Prison for Witness Protection.

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Anti-Political Experiences of Women in Local Politics in Turkey:
An Arendtian Perspective

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Abstract

The question of “What is political?” is a problematization of drawing boundaries. In Arendt’s theory, the dichotomy of public versus private is important, as it draws the limits of what political is. In the mainstream reading of Arendt, political is essentially situated in the public sphere. The political could not survive within the confines of the private that hosts necessity and the concerns of the household. The one who is not free of necessity and concerns of the family could not act, i.e. could not become truly political in Arendtian sense. This paper employs this Arendtian conception of being political to question the ‘political’ experiences of women in local politics in Turkey. I argue that women in Turkish local politics are not involved decision making process and do not act in an Arendtian sense as they could never be free. Their “political” experiences are confined within the limits of the private sphere as they could only “act” within the contexts that affirm traditional gender roles of women, and even in their own discourses motherhood has the ultimate priority.

1. Introduction

Asking “What is political?” is not just a conceptualization effort, but also it is related with problematization of drawing boundaries. Assigning a political character to a specific phenomenon is essentially related with situating that phenomenon within the confines of a specific sphere.

This paper basically questions the political character of the experiences of women in local politics in Turkey. The political theory of Hannah Arendt is employed as the theoretical perspective, because when it comes to drawing limits and conceptualization of the eminent concepts of political theory, Arendt is among the outstanding figures of the 20th century. Her way of thinking has a dichotomous character and one of the most important dichotomies in her theory is the binary opposition between the public and the private spheres. This dichotomy is vital, as it draws the limits of what political is. In the mainstream reading of Arendt, political is essentially situated in the public sphere, which is basically substantiated by the concepts of action, plurality, equality, exclusion of necessity, freedom and reality. The political could not survive within the confines of the private, which hosts necessity and the concerns of the household. The one who is not free of sheer necessity and concerns of the family could not act, i.e. could not become truly political in Arendtian sense.

By using this perspective, I argue that the data of TUBITAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) funded project (109K182) conducted by Prof. Cindoglu (2011) and her research team1, named “Gender in Local Politics: Women’s Representation at the Local Level”, shows that women in local politics are not involved decision making process and do not act politically as they could never be free in an Arendtian sense. Their “political” experiences are confined within the limits of the private sphere as they could only “act” within the contexts that affirm traditional gender roles of women, and even in their own discourses motherhood has the ultimate priority.

Within this framework, firstly, Arendt's theoretical insights about the political and its relation to public versus the private dichotomy will be presented. After introducing the theoretical framework, basic information about the project in terms of its aim, methodology and duration will be stated. In the last part, quotations from the in-depth interviews done with the participants will be given in order to analyze the political nature of the experiences of women in local politics in Turkey.

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1 During the field search of the project I worked as a research assistant for five months (February-June 2011).
2. Being Political: An Arendtian Perspective

Arendt’s conceptualization of the prominent concepts of political theory is not a repetition of well-known discussions in the field of political theory. In fact, it is more related with providing new and different perspective to the concepts like freedom, revolution, power, action, the political, the public etc. In The Human Condition (1958, p. 5) she simply invites us to think what we are doing. This call is important, as she states in The Origins of Totalitarianism (1966) and Eichmann in Jerusalem (1976), in the face of modern phenomenon of totalitarianism we could not use our already existing conceptual tools to think. They are useless. In order to understand this modern phenomenon we need new ones. Even though she never presents herself as the one who would provide these new tools for us, I think Arendt’s is a priceless endeavor. To think about these important concepts again, suggesting new perspectives for the substantiation of these concepts are at the core of the very same endeavor.

The originality of her way of thinking is beyond doubt. Dichotomous character is an important part of this originality. By dichotomous character I mean that she is using binary oppositions while she is substantiating the concepts. For instance, the distinction between the public and private realms corresponds to the distinction between the political and the household (Arendt 1958, p.28). Along with the same lines, this binary opposition corresponds to dichotomies of freedom versus necessity; permanence versus futility; honor versus shame, respectively. (Arendt 1958, 73). Substantiating the concepts by using binary oppositions is also related to “mutual interdefinition” in her methodology (Dossa, 1989, p. 74). Arendt defines concepts through referring to other complementary concepts in her political theory. For instance, she makes a clear connection between the concepts of freedom, action, the public sphere and the political in her essay, “What is Freedom?” (1993). She argues that attainment of freedom is the raison d’être for politics. The activity that assign political characteristic is action and action takes place within the public realm, in which plurality of human beings interact and perform (Arendt, 1993, pp. 146, 149). In her own words, “there is … no real political substance. Politics arises in what lies between men and is established as relationships.” (2005, p. 95).

As it is indicated, among these binary oppositions and interplay between concepts, the public versus the private is the most important one as it draws the boundaries of what is political and what is not. This spacial distinction in Arendt determines the political characteristic of a specific phenomenon. As the political essentially belongs to the public sphere, what belongs to the private sphere is non-political or sometimes you can call it anti-political. (Arendt, 1958, p. 54) As these two spheres are negating each other, the activities that take place within the confines of them respectively are mutually exclusive in terms of their nature. In order to understand this relationship it is vital to look into how Arendt substantiates each sphere respectively.

3. The Public versus the Private

While conceptualizing the public and the private Arendt turns to Athenian political life, in which two orders of existence, idion (man’s own) and koinon (communal), are strictly separated. According to Greek thought, oikia (home) and the family belongs to the private sphere that is excluded from the public as well as the political. (Arendt, 1958, p. 24). The notions of necessity and usefulness that are essentially private do not belong to the realm of activities of action (praxis) and speech (lexis) that are essentially political (Arendt, 1958, p. 25). In her own words “the private realm of the household was the sphere where the necessities of life, of individual survival as well as of continuity of species were taken care of and guaranteed” (Arendt, 1958, p. 45). In order to be political you have to act; and action could be defined as “finding the right words at the right moment”. In this context of the Greek polis, people are political as long as they decide everything through words and persuasion (speech) and they should exclude force and violence from their engagement (Arendt, 1958, p. 26). This is an agonistic notion of the public sphere, in which everyone distinguishes himself from others by showing his unique deeds and achievements (Arendt, 1958, p. 41). According to her, everything that takes place within the confines of the public sphere can be seen and heard by others. That is exactly what constitutes reality (Arendt 1958, p. 50). At this point, the public signifies a world that is common to all of us (Arendt 1958, p. 52). In direct opposition to this definition, being private is pointed out as being deprived of seeing and hearing others and of being seen and heard by them (Arendt, 1958, p. 58). To be private is to be alone and therefore without external verification of one’s own reality. It is to be deprived of truly human life, objective relationships, and any achievement of permanence.

Some argues that Arendt’s insistence on keeping such a strict distinction between those two spheres is related with her critique of liberalism. According to Zaretsky (1997, p. 212), liberalism valorized the private and prioritizes the protection of economics, family and religion from any interference on the side of the state. In opposition to that, Arendt supports an earlier tradition that prioritizes the public sphere of equality and representation over the private sphere of inequality and coercion. Therefore, being political corresponds to fulfill one’s human potential. This is why the political has
a central place in Arendt’s political theory. However, her way of conceptualizing the political is not free from criticism. In the traditional reading of Arendtian political theory, Arendt’s conception of politics seems to have an exclusivist character, because it precludes any private interests and social issues of the modern age. Even though they are valid to some extent, these kinds of critiques could stem from monolithic reading of the political in Arendt’s theory. In order to avoid from a narrow reading and understand what political means in Arendt one should point out the multidimensional character of the political. Multi-dimensional character refers to different levels of a thorough reading: how the concept of the political is substantiated by other concepts such as action in Arendt’s theory; what the specific conditions are for the political to emerge; and as a dynamic concept, what the political constitutes. Looking into these elements would provide us a comprehensive context to understand the concept of the political in Arendt.

4. The Political

I mainly argue that the concept of political in Arendt is not a monolithic and given concept. It has many dimensions. One reason behind this argument is the fact that there is a complex interplay of different concepts resulting from the mentioned interdefinitionality. The concept of the political is substantiated by different key concepts of Arendt’s political theory such as action, plurality, equality, exclusion of necessity, freedom, reality, and the public space. In a nutshell, what makes people (who are free and equal citizens) political and meaningful is their capacity and ability to act in terms of performing and to disclose these actions in the form of speech within the confines of the public sphere. These people are acting in the existence of plurality of others and this public characteristic is what creates the reality. Because of this connectedness of the concepts, I argue that in order to understand what political is, firstly we need to look into how the very same concept is substantiated by others.

While making a thorough reading of the political one should begin with action. It is the activity that assigns the political character to a certain phenomenon. Within the moment of acting the individual becomes political. According to Arendt, the political sphere of affairs rises out of acting together (1958, p. 198). Action establishes boundless relationships that inherent new possibilities (1958, p. 190). Moreover, there are some conditions for the political to emerge. The first condition is plurality. Arendt says that “politics is based on the fact of human plurality.” (2005, p. 93). In The Human Condition where she presents the constituting activities of vita activa she indicates that human condition for action is plurality and action creates power just in the condition of plurality (Arendt, 1958, p. 7) At this point, we are talking about the plurality of people and perspectives as the political could only be engaged in the public between equal citizens. This would bring us another important condition that is equality. This concept of equality in Arendt has nothing to do with social or economic equality, but it is related with equality of political rank of the participants as citizens. In her own words equality means “to live among and to have to deal only with one’s peers…” (Arendt, 1958, p.32) When it comes to equality you need “the other”. To put it differently, you need the existence of “unequals”, who are outside the realm of equals. You can find these “unequals” in their proper places in the context of the public versus the private dichotomy. Arendt argues that the household and the concepts of life and sheer necessity are at the center of “the strictest inequality”. Men can only be equal as citizens when they step out from their home and enter the public sphere of their peers. Within these lines, exclusion of private household life from the political life becomes condition for the political to be actualized.

The political in Arendt is also a constitutive phenomenon. We can understand this by looking into what it constitutes. Firstly, the political constitutes the condition of being free. As it is mentioned, freedom could be attained and experienced among acting plurality of equals. To begin something anew, to take initiative among equals, to set something into motion, i.e. to act, is the only way for us to be free. Moreover, reality is constructed at the moment of acting. Arendt (1958, p. 208) argues that “without a space of appearance and without trusting in action and speech as a mode of being together, neither the reality one’s self, of one’s identity, nor the reality of the surrounding world can be established beyond doubt.” The last constituted element is the public sphere. Arendt says that “the political realm rises directly out of acting together, the "sharing of words and deeds". Thus, action not only has the most intimate relationship to the public part of the world common to us all, but is the one activity which constitutes it.” (Arendt, 1958, p. 198)

These conceptual elements that substantiate the concept of the political would be important for us to analyze any kind of experience and activity in terms of its nature and characteristic. In the second part of the paper I try to analyze the experiences of women in local politics in Turkey by referring to the data of project in question. By looking into their

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2 For critiques see Pitkin (1998); Habermas (1977); Heller (1991).
personal experiences, I try to analyze whether their experience in local politics is a political one or not in Arendtian sense. At this point, one could argue that using Arendt as theoretical reference in the context of gender would make no sense as Arendt’s works are usually thought as gender-blind. The reason behind this criticism is the fact that Arendt mainly talks about the political in the city state, so she is basically talking about the experiences of free Athenian male citizens. Being a woman is doomed to being a part of the private sphere as women and slaves do not have any political rights in that specific context. With regard to this, I share the same idea with Bonnie Honig. Honig (1995, p. 136) argues that we could not ignore Arendt’s insightful analysis of agonistic and performative politics. It could be a good source for feminist theory. Even though Arendt’s insistence of keeping the distinction between the public and the private intact, saving her conceptualization of the political from the context of polis would provide us a fresh outlook of the political experience in contemporary world. This paper is an attempt to provide the mentioned fresh perspective to a contemporary political experience in the context of women’s engagement in politics at the local level.

5. About the Project

“Gender in Local Politics: Women’s Representation at the Local Level” (109k182) is a TUBITAK funded project that aims to listen the experiences of women in Turkey for understanding how the boundaries of the political sphere, in which women try to survive at the local level, are drawn. It was a two years long research conducted with qualitative and quantitative methodologies under the supervision of Prof. Dilek Cindoglu. With regard to methodology, data collection and conceptual analysis have been done at the same time. During the field work, 120 in-depth interviews have been made with local women politicians in 21 cities (between 3/07/2010-11/08/2011). In addition to that, a survey was conducted with 678 male politicians in 11 municipalities in order to understand how male politicians perceive the issues that are pointed out by women.

One of the motivations behind conducting this research is the fact that in most of the states woman’s participation in politics at the local level is higher than at the national level (Alkan, 2009: 31). These indicators affirm the general assumption that traditional gender roles situate women usually within the confines of local politics because these roles that are associated with the private sphere, such as caring, cleaning, administration of the household, corresponds to the responsibilities held in local politics. Environmental planning of public parks and gardens, cleaning projects, organization of charity bazaars are the activities that are seen appropriate for a woman as she knows how to “handle” these kinds of activities. At this point what makes this research interesting is that level of women’s representation in local politics is lower than the level in national politics in Turkey. When we look at the statistical data the difference becomes clearer. After the general elections held in 2011 women’s representation in The Grand National Assembly becomes % 8.87. When we look at the local level, the result of 2009 local election shows that women’s representation at the local level is pretty low. Female mayors elected constitute ‰9 of elected mayors; female members of municipal council constitute % 4.2 and female members of provincial council constitute %3.2 of elected members respectively.3

6. Anti-Political Experiences

While analyzing the political nature of experiences of women in local politics in Turkey, this paper uses the data provided by in-depth interviews that were made with women politicians who were elected and/or nominated candidate mayors, elected members of municipal and provincial councils.4 Their experiences as told by them would be analyzed in three different dimensions. The first dimension refers to the activities that are narrated as political by the participants. When asked about their political activities most of the female politicians refer to the activities that are essentially associated with the private sphere of life in Arendtian political theory. Among these activities administration of the household, cleaning, gardening and most importantly caring of children in terms of motherhood are the most striking ones. The second dimension refers to participants’ own perception about how women make difference in politics. The third one is related with how they are left outside of performing politics in terms of decision making process. They are not able to become a part of decision making process, unless they are let by male politicians. They could not make policy proposals or contribute to already existing system that is defined as dominantly male.5 Therefore, they could not “act” and become free

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3 For the statistical data see http://www.ka-der.org.tr/tr/down/2011_Kadin_Istatistikleri.pdf
4 Translations are mine.
5 For a detailed analysis and critique of male domination in politics see Enloe (2000).
in Arendtian sense. Their so-called political experiences are confined within the limits of the private sphere, therefore become anti-political.

**First Dimension:** From an Arendtian perspective, if you would not become free of necessities of the private sphere, you could never experience freedom in a real sense and you could never become truly political. The private basically includes the household, family relations, economic activities and bodily needs. When we look from this perspective we could observe that women in local politics in Turkey could never become free as they could never leave the private sphere behind to enter into the public that is essentially political. Moreover, for some women politicians the way they administer their household is a proof of how they would be successful in local politics. One participant says:

“In fact, by hosting you today at home I would like to share this. I mean I want you to see my house… this is very important. As we want to make our homes beautiful in every aspect, in material and spiritual way, to the extent that we could… in politics it is the life itself… therefore in social life women’s touch would do the same. This is why I strongly believe that women should engage in politics, because women wear different hats. She is the mother, the grandmother, the aunt. All of these roles have different responsibilities; she does her best to fulfill these responsibilities. And imagine an extended family in which you are fulfilling all of these responsibilities. And if we think that women from any political party, who engage in politics and embrace the society with all of these hats… Woman sensitivity is something different.” (Ankara, DLP, Retired Teacher, university, 57)

The capacity for the administration of the household is a strong case for them. They strongly believe that this experience gained within the confines of the household would be a good asset in their political life. Another participant explains this potential as follows:

“Woman has a habit stemming from the household. It is related with administration. How can I manage the economy of the household? How can I take care of children? She tries to apply the same logic with the same perspective in the council. How can we organize better? How can we produce services in a healthier way? How can we construct a better team spirit?...” (Mersin, PDP, housewife, secondary school, 36)

Their reference to the activities that belong essentially to the private sphere is not limited to the administration of the household. One of the women politicians argues that men and women are different and firstly women should fulfill their responsibilities at home. Not neglecting their duties at home is something like a magical key that opens the door of success in their political life. She says:

“In fact we [women and men] are equals. But we are equals who have different talents and capacities in different areas. Just as a man would not neglect his responsibilities when he engages in politics, a woman also shouldn’t ignore hers. I always cook meal. You are capable of doing it somehow, God gave us this talent, or I developed it in time. I prepare the meal; when we got home it is ready! May be this is why my husband supports me a lot. If there were dirty dishes around or laundry was not done when he got home… everything is for us. The machines are there. We are practical, we are talented. Now there are deep-freezers. Consequently, I never neglect my duties.” (Trabzon, JDP, retired teacher, university, 54)

This shows that they could never be free of their duties at home and at the same time they are carrying their abilities with regard to these activities to the political sphere. In addition to these duties, it is seen that most of the participants underlies the importance of being a mother. They are proud of saying that a woman’s priority is always her children. Caring of the children, having this responsibility, is beyond any kind of human activity. One of the participants puts it as follows:

“Woman is a mother in the first place, my dear. This is all I know. Politics is good, ok, the party, politics… Being mother, God assigns this to us, because we are fertile. Women are mothers in the first place. Her priority is her children… It was like this for me. I don’t know if it is like this for other people, but for me, my children come first, because I had to compensate my husband’s deficiencies.” (Istanbul, RPP, housewife, primary school, 64)

From these quotations it is seen that they could not be free from the activities of the private sphere. They always carry these responsibilities in their minds and reproduce them through their discourse. Because of their nature as fertile beings and capabilities of running a household they could not get rid of the sheer necessity that is inherent in the private sphere. This is why they could never be political and experience freedom in Arendtian sense.

**Second Dimension:** Mentioned activities and characteristics assigned to women by themselves would bring us the second dimension that is pointed out by this paper. When these women are asked how women contribute to and make
difference in politics and political life, the same activities and characteristics are referred. What women think as a 
contribution to political life is a reproduction and affirmation of the traditional gender roles. Reproduction of these 
traditional gender roles that are traditionally situated in the private sphere hinders these women going into the public 
sphere and becoming a part of political experience as acting citizens in Arendtian sense.

When the participants asked about women’s capacities about making politics different in different ways, they 
usually refer to organization and arrangement capacities. One of the participants says:

"Woman’s entrance to politics makes it more beautiful, makes it superior. …I believe that when a woman touches 
somewhere she makes there more elegant, neat and clean. … Everywhere she touches is organized and neat. …"  
(Mersin, NAP, retired teacher, university, 63)

Within the same lines, this characteristic of being a good organizer who turns the political setting into a “neat” and 
“clean” environment is associated with the motherhood. One participant from Mugla says:

"Woman is tidy, she is an organizer because of her mother instinct. She is more compassionate and caring. She makes 
right decisions. …She is always constructive and positive."  (Mugla, RPP, pharmacist, university, 57)

In addition to the activities that are associated with women such as administration of the household, being a mother and 
cleaning the environment she is in, female characteristics that are underlined by the participants are also interesting. 
Here are some examples:

“…according to my observation woman is more patient… She could be fragile but she is nothing like man. She is fragile 
because of her nature. Nevertheless, according to me, she is more enthusiastic, more patient, more efficient…"  
(Izmir, RPP, retired teacher, university graduate, 65)

"Woman’s perspective, her way of paying attention to details, her naivety, sensitivity…when all of these combined you 
can have a great synthesis. Most of the times I think that this kind of a synthesis should have its repercussions in every 
sphere…” (Eskisehir, JDP, manager, high school, 44)

It is seen that being “patient”, “fragile”, “sensitive”, “naive” are seen as positive characteristics on the side of the 
females. These characteristics are seen as a result of their nature. This kind of a perspective is interesting because by 
seeing these activities and characteristics as a way of making a difference, one is doing nothing more than reproduction 
and affirmation of traditional gender roles that keep women away from specific spheres and contexts. At this point I 
should say that underlining the reproduction of traditional gender roles and spacial and contextual separation do not 
mean despising or ignoring the differences. However, affirmation of this kind of essential separation would harm the 
equality principle in the public sphere. For Arendt, getting rid of the responsibilities of the private is what makes you equal 
with others while getting into the public sphere. By emphasizing these differences and accepting that you are assigned to 
certain duties and spheres would contribute to women’s exclusion from the political activity. This would bring us to the last 
dimension, which is being not able to participate to the decision making process.

Third Dimension: According to Arendt, in order to be political you have to share your words and deeds in the public 
sphere, which is based on the principles of plurality and equality. As it is mentioned before plurality means the plurality of 
perspectives and equality means equality of political ranking as acting and participating citizens. When it comes to the 
experiences of women in local politics in Turkey, male domination of the political sphere becomes an issue. As Bari 
(2005: 4) suggests women’s political participation is obstructed by the male domination of politics and political parties. At 
the local level, the situation is the same. Women do not take powerful positions. Alkan (2009: 33) quotes “the number of 
women increases as the power of post decreases.” Presenting women as candidates during election time is seen as a 
mean to contribute political parties’ image in the eyes of the public. About this point, the participants say the following:

“The behavior of men is changeable. At the beginning, during the election period, they behave us as if we are flowers. 
Then it is over. Men are always standing in the forefront. The politics is done at the head office. Local politics takes a back 
seat.”  (Adana, RPP, tradeswoman, university graduate, 44)

“When it comes to be a candidate he sees me appropriate to the position, but when it comes to comment on something, to 
bring forward your argument he wants you to stop there as you could say something that could disturb him. His position 
could be threatened; you could be a threat to him. …" The man does not know how to share. He has the control. …"  
(Istanbul, NAP, architect, university graduate, 43)

When it comes to decision making it is men’s job to decide on policies. Women are excluded. Therefore, they are
not seen as equals and they could not present their perspectives. In a nutshell, they could never be free and political in Arendtian sense. They are not a part of the public sphere as they could not contribute to its constitution. Two of the participants share their experience as follows:

“…The woman is working, taking place in the organization, going to home meetings. But there is no woman as an authority in decision making process and in execution. The woman could not take a step. She could stand back. " (Ankara, JDP, University graduate, reporter, 29)

“Women could not engage in politics alone in our district yet. … we could not act independently from the mayor and the head of district. I couldn’t. I mean I couldn’t at first. In accordance with their… I couldn’t work as an individual.” (Hatay, JDP, retired civil servant, high school, 56)

Some thinks that if there was no quota for women in party programmes there would be no place for women in politics. A participant from Black Sea region makes her point as follows:

“If quota was not compulsory these men would never take us to anywhere. …Because decision makers are all men. They do not let women.” (Trabzon, JDP, retired teacher, university, 54)

All in all, these are all cases that show male dominance not just in politics at the national level but also at the local level. Women do not just feel under-represented. From time to time, they also feel that they are used as an image for the prestige of the party and they could never be a part of policy making processes. They are not given important responsibilities; they could not act freely unless they got the approval of male politicians. From time to time they are seen as a threat and constantly reminded of “the fact” that politics is dominated by men and women should stand back. Their voices are not heard. As they could not share their ideas through action and speech, they also become deprived of reality. With regard to this, Arendt would say that even though they are visible, they could not appear within the public sphere.

7. Conclusion

Some would argue that Arendt is not the best choice for analyzing the political nature of women’s experiences in local politics. This criticism is understandable to a certain extent, because Arendt’s insistence on keeping the distinction between the public and the private stemming from political experience of the Greek city state renders her concept of the political limited and exclusivist. However, her original insights about how an individual could become an active citizen in the public sphere through acting and speaking worth to mention. Her insights about performing political action could provide a rich source for the analysis of contemporary political experience. Using the theoretical framework Arendt provides, this paper tries to make an analysis of experiences of women in local politics in Turkey. As a result of this analysis, it is seen that women politicians at the local level in Turkey have anti-political experiences, because, basically, they could not act, experience freedom and reality, and become a constituting actor of the public sphere in Arentian sense.

8. Acknowledgements

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A Research Project about Communism in Romanian Countryside:  
Ploughmen’s Front Propaganda (1944-1953)  

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Abstract

The Ploughmen Front represented the strongest and the oldest “comrade” of the Communist Party from Romania, with a major role in the countryside communization. In general, the studies dedicated to Romania communization focused on institutionalization of the regime, liquidation of democratic order, repression, anticomunist resistance and less on the transformations undergone by the Romanian countryside. The only important issue was the agriculture collectivization. Our project takes into consideration a new approach, which is the research of the way communism became popular in the rural areas, which meant 80% of the Romanian population, how the popularity of the historical parties was dislocated, especially the National Peasant Party, in these areas. The issue is extremely complex and that is why our intercession will focus on a case study: the role of procommunist propaganda organized by the Ploughmen’s Front, the main “comrade” of the communists in communization of the rural area between 1944 and 1953.

1. Problems

The topic that we are proposing comes, in our opinion, to fill in a period from the Romanian history that remained not enough explained: the process of communization and the role played by the “comrade” of the Communist Party. The Ploughmen’s Front represented the strongest and the oldest “comrade” of the Communist Party from Romania, with a major role in the countryside communization. In general, the studies dedicated to Romania communization focused on institutionalization of the regime, liquidation of democratic order, repression, anticomunist resistance and less on the transformations undergone by the Romanian countryside. The only important issue was the agriculture collectivization. Our project takes into consideration a new approach, which is the research of the way communism became popular in the rural areas, which meant 80% of the Romanian population, how the popularity of the historical parties was dislocated, especially the National Peasant Party, in these areas. The issue is extremely complex and that is why our intercession will focus on a case study: the role of procommunist propaganda organized by the Ploughmen’s Front, the main “comrade” of the communists in communization of the rural area between 1944 and 1953.

2. What was the Ploughmen’s Front Organization?

Since 1989, there have been very few writings about the activity of the Ploughmen’s Front, a post-war political formation with a fairly long existence, but with a short effective political role. The specialized literature offers few approaches to this matter (Ciobanu, Georgescu & Radu, 2011, 2012; Radu, Ciobanu, 2011; Ciobanu, Radu & Georgescu, 2012; Radu, 2012; Georgescu & Radu, 2009; Costea, 2000; Moisa, 2005), advancing only a few tangential references to works of general analysis of the immediate post-war period from a political and economic perspective (Onişo, 1996; Onişo, 1998; Țărău, 2005; Zainea 2004).

Ever since its establishment (1933), the Ploughmen’s Front was a political organization of the most obedient to the Communist Party in Romania, this fact being prominent in the post-war period. Led by Dr. Petru Groza (Bîtofi, 2004), the Ploughmen’s Front was an artificially developed post-war organization, with the specific purpose of countering the influence of the National Peasant Party in rural areas, as well as to mediate the Communist influence among the peasants. From August 23rd 1944 to its “self-dissolution” in March 1953, its actions were thoroughly supervised by the Communist Party of Romania. One of their first initiatives was to join the National Democratic Front (October 1944), at which point the purpose of this formation was quite clearly stated: “The Ploughmen’s Front has the great mission to
organize the immense energies of the country’s huge agricultural sector” (Ardeleanu, Arimia & Mușat, 1984, 186-188). Officially, the Communist Party tried to stress the independence in action of the Ploughmen’s Front due to the lack of adherence of Communist ideas among the peasants, uncovering the relation between the Communists and the Ploughmen’s Front being assessed as “a tact mistake that would turn against us” (CNHAB. CC of CPR Fund – Chancellery, file 256/1945, 4).

The official documents of the Ploughmen’s Front (NARHCD, PS Fund, file 1/1944, 1-5) defined this mass-organisation as a “fighting party of the working ploughmen, born from the land-related struggles of the poor ploughmen, from the fight against the exploiting landlords and bankers and their governments”. In a purely propagandistic manner, it stated “the tight alliance with the urban working class”. The task of the Ploughmen’s Front was to organise and mobilise the ploughmen for the improvement of their material and cultural status. In order to achieve this, the Ploughmen’s Front was supposed: “a. to intensify the fight against the reaction in the rural area until its complete exhaustion; b. to strengthen and deepen the collaboration with the urban working class and its Romanian Communist Party for the preservation, consolidation and development of democracy”. The organisational structure of this political formation was the following: the General Congress, the Central Committee, the Joint-communal and County Committees. On a county level, the organisational structure included the County Office, made up of the president of the county organisation, the vice-presidents, the secretary, the person in charge of the organisational department, the person in charge of the educational, press and propaganda department, the person in charge of women’s organisation work, the person in charge of the county committee of the young ploughmen, the person in charge of the administrative-financial department, the person in charge of the economical department. The organisational department was the most important. Its general tasks were: to communicate the political direction and tasks of the county committee to the rural ploughmen, who represented the party’s foundation, to always know the political and organisational status of the party within the county, to keep a track on the leading cadres starting with the county leaders, members of the county, joint-communal and communal committees, to supervise and direct their ideological evolution, moral behaviour as well as their mode of fulfilling the party tasks. The educational, press and propaganda department was the second most important. Its general tasks were: to continuously elevate the political and cultural level of the members of the county committee and of all the members of the Ploughmen’s Front, to contribute to the creating and consolidating the awareness of the peasants within the county regarding their tight relationship with the working class and the Romanian Communist Party, to promote good relations between the Romanian ploughmen and those of other nationalities, to strengthen the alliance with the peoples from the surrounding democrat countries, and especially from the U.S.S.R. and with all the peoples fighting for peace, liberty and the extinction of the last fascist remains, to demonstrate to the working ploughmen that “their worst enemy is rebellion, the imperialist war-provoking trusts, the rebelled expropriated landlords, their subordinates from the villages – the kulaks, all of them, members of the historical parties of Maniu and Brătianu, the enemies of the working ploughmen”. In order to complete these tasks, the educational department had to: organise libraries at the county headquarters of the Ploughmen’s Front, at the joint communal headquarters, at the community centres, at the commune counselling office comprising books, brochures and newspapers edited by the Ploughmen’s Front, the Romanian Communist Party, the Russian Book etc., to organise the rational distribution of the propaganda materials edited by the Central Committee and to control the use of these materials through the organisational apparatus, to explain to the county instructors the important topics of the simple propaganda, the main political events, the main laws voted in the Parliament in favour of the ploughmen, to supervise the political direction of the local newspaper of the Ploughmen’s Front, improving its form and content, to keep a record of the theatre teams, the national traditional dances teams, the existent choirs, and coordinate their efforts, implementing a “new progressive content with a repertoire designed to serve the party’s political line”, to produce local propaganda materials such as posters, slogans, picture placards etc., to organise political meetings from the propagandistic point of view.

The political weight of the Front increased significantly after Dr. Petru Groza has formed the government (6 March 1945) when, with the full logistical support from the State, it became a magnet for peasants. Credible documentary sources estimate that the Ploughmen’s Front had approximately 1.5 million members in 1948-1949. After the fraudulent adjudication of the parliamentary elections by the Communists in November 1946, the position of the Communist Party of Romania towards the “comrades” changed. Thus, the attitude of the Ploughmen’s Front became much more intransigent, allowing absolutely no “weakness” — a term used by the Communists to designate the deviation of certain elements of the Ploughmen’s Front from the strategy they had imposed. In this context, there also appears the “reorganization” that started in 1947, which represented the first step of a process that would eventually lead to the “auto-dissolution” of the Ploughmen’s Front in 1953, in fact a fusion with the Romanian Working Party (Georgescu & Radu, 2009; Jurca, 1994, 364-383).

In 1949/1950 – 1953 the Ploughmen’s Front had organizations in all the villages and communes of Romania and...
its main task was to spread the ideas of the Communist party among peasants, to translate them the party thesis imposed by the communists, especially those regarding the socialist transformation, the importance of the party in the peasant life and modernization of the village, etc. In order to do this they needed to train some “cultural tutors”, “party men” to spread the communist ideas into the peasants’ homes. They also needed to organize the propaganda, to build a speech at the peasants understanding level who were mostly illiterate, profoundly religious and extremely reticent regarding the communist thesis, the “proletarian dictatorship”, “popular democracy” or “agriculture collectivization”.

3. The Organisation and Importance of the Political Propaganda of the Ploughmen’s Front

On the installation of the first pro-Soviet government led by the Ploughmen’s Front’s leader, dr. Petru Groza, the Communist propaganda blossomed, as, from then on, apart from the private propagandistic apparatus, the main means and state institutions dominated by the Communist power were fully involved. Under the mask of a generous, but fictional social offer, expressed through the phrase “to build the socialist society”, the Communists and their “comrades” conquered the political power in Romania by two means: repression and persuasion. The latter, making use of a large apparatus of propagandists and agitators, attacked the minds and souls of Romanians in the attempt to transform them into obedient slaves, ready to accept the Communist laws, if not gladly, at least as passive and indifferent accomplices, as well as active people, faithful to the new regime.

The Communist propaganda and agitation, whether we refer to the Communist Party or its satellite political organisations (among them, the Ploughmen’s Front being the most important), which contributed to the Communist propaganda efforts, paid great attention to the ideological training of its own cadres, its own activists, who, besides strengthening the feeling of belonging to an elite, ensured loyalty towards the party by protecting it against the external “evil influences”. In this regard, the Communist propaganda and agitation had a general offensive character, although it did not neglect the protective defensive elements. All of these defensive elements were grouped under the larger frame of censorship (Gabanyi, 2001, 27-40). Press censorship, overwhelming during that period, was primarily aimed at the severe limitation and ultimate elimination of any information contradictory to the regime’s interest (Deletant, 2001, 75). These actions were followed by an intense process of political purification within the state’s structures, initiated after the installation of the pro-Soviet government led by Dr. Petru Groza (6 March 1945).

According to the Organisational Statute approved during the Central Committee meeting on the 26-27 November 1944, and also to the publications designed to describe the political aim of the Ploughmen’s Front (Frontul Plugarilor, 1944, 4, 5), the leaders of this mass political group highlighted the organisation of the propagandistic undertake, its dynamics and architecture, considering the socio-professional categories of those whom it would address.

Propaganda was considered the most important instrument for shaping the political conscience of any citizen willing to fight for his or her political dream. Starting from the totalitarian ideological precept, according to which “propaganda is the essential issue in creating the new man”, the Front’s leaders designed and imposed the evolution of propaganda in five major sections: political propaganda, cultural propaganda, information and press, professional circles and, “crowning them all” – the cadre school. The political propaganda section had to elaborate political propaganda materials (slogans, posters etc.), and keep record of the propaganda instructors and their field activity. This section “had to pay attention to the activities of the other sections as well, offering them not only the materials, but also the line to be followed”. The cultural propaganda section organised cultural manifestations of the Ploughmen’s Front, in a manner that would “always conceal the political direction of the Ploughmen’s Front”. The information and press section was responsible for editing and distributing the periodical publications of the Ploughmen’s Front, written in a journalist style which the peasants could understand, most of them being semi-illiterate (Ce trebuie să știe un luptător al Frontului Plugarilor, 1945, 14-30). The professional circles section aimed to integrate intellectuals in the Ploughmen’s Front, in this context demonstrating this organisation’s attitude towards intellectuals in general, as they were regarded “with distrust and even hostility”. The section’s mission was more difficult, as it was based on the Communist ideological and propagandistic cliché according to which “in the past and in the present, most intellectuals represented the people’s enemies”. However, there was a distinction between the democratic intellectuals whom the organisation needed, and the reactionary intellectuals, alien to the ploughmen’s interests. Underneath this stereotype formula and beyond any ideological differentiation, there was a latent and acute need for specialists, who were supposed to be politically aligned in order to implement the reformation programme for the peasants. At the same time, the increased adhesion of intellectuals and specialists would consolidate the Front’s credibility on a rural community level, where there was need for greater legitimacy: “the professional circles of intellectuals and specialists (agronomists and agronomical engineers, doctors and veterinaries, silviculturists, educators, teachers, priests), all of them have a salutary and decisive role within the Ploughmen’s Front. They have to help the organisation with their specialties” (Primul Congres general al Frontului Plugarilor, 1945, 4, 5).

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Plugarilor, 1945, 191-193). Even the Front’s organisational statute paid great attention to intellectuals, allowing a third of its members to be “illuminated individuals” (Frontul Plugarilor, 1944, 6).

The fifth component of the Ploughmen’s Front propaganda – which we will further focus upon – was the cadre school, highly appreciated due to its purpose of instructing party activists, party clerks, (in one word: the party cadres); they were faithful to the new Communist regime, zealous, fully indoctrinated, and were supposed to transmit the Ploughmen’s Front’s and, implicitly, the Romanian Communist Party’s line to the rural world.

4. Summary of the Research Project

From our point of view, the institutionalization of the communist regime in Romania, the imposing of the Russian society model cannot be understood without a detailed analysis of the way in which the ideas about the “new world” and “the new man” entered in the Romanian rural areas, among the peasants who were mainly reticent to changing. It is fundamental to understand how the peasants regarded the communism, what were the convincing methods, the reaction to the propagandistic clichés and the perception of the different “changes” imposed by the new masters of Romania. Our research tries to answer at least to a part of these questions. This research project has started this year and it will finish in 2015, the author of this article being the coordinator of the research team. This work was supported by The National Research Council from Romania (CNCS).

The difficulty of such an intercession is determined by the depth and the greatness of the phenomena of communizing the rural areas, by the great amount of informing sources, both those from the archive as those from the oral history. That is why our main focus will be that of reducing the research to valuating the archive sources from the most important backgrounds, those in Bucharest, and valuating the four representative county archives (Dolj, Hunedoara, Timiș, Iași). Regarding the oral investigations we will take into consideration some case studies that will be described below.

5. Concrete objectives of the project:

1. to assess the Romanian and foreign historiography regarding the propaganda of communizing the Romanian countryside and its compared analysis in the context of the Russian concentration camp, insisting on the role of the “comrade” of the communists;
2. to analyze the structure and organization of the propaganda of the Ploughmen’s Front in the countryside; tools of propaganda; the analysis of the propagandistic speech; topics and clichés of the propaganda; „education” / „training” of the political propagandists; the organizing and the activity of the staff schools of the Ploughmen’s Front; the profile of the ploughman activist; „party work” of the propagandists and its efficiency;
3. Soviet Union perspective on the role of Ploughmen Organization propaganda; assessing the Russian historiography and archive regarding the activity of the Ploughmen’s Front;
4. framing the propaganda of the “comrade” – Ploughmen’s Front – in the context of setting up the communism in the Eastern Europe (comparisons with similar political organizations from the Russian concentration camps);

Elements of originality and innovation: none of the objectives mentioned above have been approached in the Romanian or foreign historiography. The novelty of this intercession is also doubled by the intention of valuating some unprecedented archive background (Central Historical and National Archives, National Council Archives for Security Archives Studying as well as the county archives), of valuating the party mass media, of the information acquired through field investigations (oral history) as well as the partial valuation of the Russian archive. Our project has as a fundamental objective the understanding of Romania communizing by researching the way the communist ideas penetrated among the peasants, their impact on the countryside through a case study: the propagandistic activity of the Ploughmen Front - the most important organization controlled by the communists with activity mainly in the rural areas.

6. Methodology

b. Archive research represents the background of our project. We are planning to research mainly in the following archive funds: a) Central National Historical Archives Bucharest: The Archive of the Central Committee of the Communist Party from Romania, the Ploughmen’s Front Fund – the most important archive fund for our research; The fund of the Central Committee of the Communist Party in Romania – Secretariat, Internal Documents, Organizational Department, Propagandistic and Agitation Department, Popular Democratic Front, General Inspectorate of Gendarmerie, General Department of Militia; b).The Archive of National Council for the Study of Archives of Securitate – Documentary Fund, Informative Fund; c). The archive funds of four representative county organizations of Ploughmen’s Front: Hunedoara, Timiș, Iași, Dolj;

c. Press research – important means of transmission for propaganda messages; we are taking into consideration the ploughmen newspapers: „Horia” (1945); „Frontul Plugarilor” (1945-1952) and also the communist official newspaper „Scânteia” (1944-1953);

d. critical analysis of propaganda materials published by the Ploughmen’s Front in 1944-1953: booklets, handouts, books, other propaganda materials;

e. field inquiry, oral history. Approaching the subject from the perspective of oral history we try to detect the ways through which the events and phenomena of recent Romanian history have reflected and influenced the life of some communities; the emphasis and highlighting the mentalities and attitudes in some rural communities in the early years of communism. The research will imply on the one hand a historical dimension to show the way the propaganda of the Ploughmen’s Front has changed in time, depending on the important social and political events of the certain period and, on the other hand, a synchronic dimension aiming a comparative analysis between communities. From the point of work methodology on oral history research we are planning to use oral inquiry, based on a semi-structured interview. This will be applied on a representative group, with subjects chosen depending on age, sex, studies, but the most important selection criteria will be the existence of memories regarding the research subject. The dialogue with the selected persons will take place on the base of a prior drafted interview. The interviews will be recorded on digital audio format, then transcribed and used connected to other sources (archive documents, press etc.) to get scientific studies. Locations where the oral history research will take place: Transylvania: Băcia and Vețel (Hunedoara County); Oltenia: Bârca (Dolj County); Cîlăeni (Olt County); Moldova: Bălțați, Prisăcăni (Iași County).

f. archive research in Moscow for understanding the attitude of the Soviet Union over the Ploughmen’s Front and its contribution at Romania’s communization: State Archive of Social-Political History of the Russian Federation (the Archive of the Comintern) – S.A.S.P.H.R.F. and The Archive of External Politic of the Russian Federation. From a thematic point of view, documents kept at S.A.S.P.H.R.F. span over three big fields: a. Documents referring to social and political history in Europe from the XVIIth to XXth centuries; b. Documents regarding the history of Russia and U.S.S.R.; c. Documents related to the history of socialist and communist. Next to general funds which contain not only secondary information regarding Romania, but also punctual, very interesting information, like the debates in the leading forums of the Comintern or of the Communist Party of Russia, S.A.S.P.H.R.F. hosts rich collections with express reference to the Romanian issue. Being grouped mainly in the funds 495 and 496, those collections contain materials referring to the “Romanian Comissions” from the Comintern and Romanian Communist Party etc. From the Archive of External Politic of the Russian Federation we are interested mainly into the funds referring to the time after the Bolshevik revolution.

7. The Dissemination of the Results of the Research

The fundamental aim is both the dissemination of the results of the project in national and international terms (based on the innovation of the project in Romania). In consequence, we want to achieve: a web page of the project in Romanian and English, hosted on the server of the “Lucian Blaga” University of Sibiu; the publication of eight scientific studies, four of them in reviews like Web of Science Arts & Humanities Citation Index or ERIH – INT 1 and four of them in peer reviewed journals; the organization of an international conference that should gather specialists of the issue – financed with other funds than the ones of the project; the publication of a collective volume at a famous publishing house from abroad that should assure a very good visibility among the researchers; participation at four scientific conferences, two of them international conferences.

8. Expected Impact

The novelty of the intercession and the complexity of the research methodology can bring into light important conclusions
that will change some perceptions, clichés regarding the attitude of the Romanian peasants towards the communism. In general, the historiography emphasized the idea that the penetration of the communism in the rural areas was the result of some abusive actions of the communists supported by the Russians. One of the challenges of our project regards the question: how much a part of the Romanian peasantry, that was living in poverty, illiteracy and regress, didn't fall in the trap of communist propaganda displayed also through the Ploughmen’s Front and let itself be conquered by the deceiving promises of a better life and of getting out of the poverty, etc. The archive investigations and especially the oral history inquiries that we will develop in some rural communities will confirm us or not such a theory. It also must be emphasized the importance of valuating the Russian archives in order to understand the communist impact in the rural areas, which were extremely rarely used by the Romanian and foreign researchers, mostly due to the difficulty of accessing them and of the Russian language ignorance.

In nowadays society there is a great necessity of understanding the communism, the institutionalization of the communist regimes from Eastern Europe and especially of the way in which this ideology influenced the societies from this area. It is important to understand how the Eastern European societies and particularly the Romanian society, characterized by traditionalism, peasantry way of life and with a profound religious sense, were transformed in a relative short time through a pure social engineering and by applying the Russian model. Our project proposes, through a case study, the understanding of the way in which through the communist propaganda, the Romanian rural areas transformed, accepting the communism. From this perspective, we consider that the impact of our intercession within the academic, national, Eastern European and international communities, will be great.

The dissemination ways of this research results (scientific studies, conferences attendance, the volumes that will be published etc) will allow a very good circulation of the ideas and conclusions that will be the results of this research. Posting this website on “Lucian Blaga” University of Sibiu server will provide a very good visibility among the students and researchers from the county and abroad.

9. Acknowledgement

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On the Organization Forms and Structures of Local Government in European Countries

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Abstract

The territorial organization of governing in the “unitary state”, “federal state”, “confederation”, with their constituent units is another aspect of the functioning of governing, which shows the government allocation. The above mentioned types are distinguished by the governing ratio in the territorial integrity of the nation-state, which in the governing system of liberal democracy are known as “central governing” and “local governing” followed by the attributes of “centralization”, “decentralization”, “self-governing” or “local autonomy”. It observes the basic functioning of the system, the creation and realization of the relations between the government and the governed, through which are implemented the basic principles of: - participation in governance; - expression of the will and liking of governing; - fulfillment of tasks of governing according to the interests and aspirations of the governed; - responsibility and accountability of the government. The effectiveness of the government, assessed through the fulfillment of tasks with concrete results related to the fulfillment of the interests of the entire nation and society, is another important aspect in the system of governing.

Keywords: Local governing, regions, departments, municipalities, decentralization, centralization, central governing, Unitarian states, federal state, self-governing

Liberal democracy made more than evident the relation between “central government” and “local government”, “centralization” and “decentralization”, because it was put under the function of its essence, which is expressed in terms of “governing by people” and of “governing for people”.

Local governing represents the first election school in the formation of the bodies and institutions that are closer to the governed, that in it carry the greatest and aware interest of the governed.

Local governing is thought to be a realization of the political procedures which contain the direct fulfilment of the needs and wants of the governed. Therefore we are talking about political procedures (such as laws, decrees, decisions, orders) which meet even the direct interests of the governed.

What can we say about the general features of the structure of local governing? Almost in every European country (member countries of the European Union until 2005) there are more than one levels of local governing; most of them have two levels, some have three.

According to their alignment in the escalation of the central governing levels can be illustrated graphically in the shape of a pyramid. (See the example of France). The lower unit (the smallest one in size) is the commune or municipality—in terms of communities that appear as the basic authority of the last level.

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Also, almost in every European country exists at least one additional or intermediate link (unit) of the local government, which is between the municipality or community on the one side, as a basic unit of governing and the central government on the other side.

They are characterized by the names counties (province), departments. In Denmark there are 14, in Netherlands 12, in Italy around 90 provinces. France has more than 90 departments. Meanwhile there exists another additional level that is of the region which is “on top of central governing”, there are 15 of this category in Italy and 17 in Spain. Among others, regions express the territorial distribution of power based on the definition of “unitary state” or “federal state”. Whilst in Netherlands the authority if this region is very weak, Germany is an exception. Being a “federal state”, the municipal governing system is under the jurisdiction of Lander governments. Under the Landers there are two local governing levels: the kreise which are one level above and the municipalities which are one level below.

The structures of the organization of local governing in the European member states originate from two models that characterize the relationship between central governing and local governing. Those are the Dual model (binary) and the homogeneous model (united).2

In the dual model, local governing has the status of free position for to decide on the basis of local conditions regarding organisational structures, and staff. The staffs are organized in a horizontal dimension, connecting one local body with another. The structures of local governing are not considered as part of a single structure of the state. However, sovereignty is embodied by the central government. An example of this model was the governing of Britain, but the model changed during the 1980s and 1990s, when the country was governed by the Conservative Party.

In the homogeneous model, the authority of the central power and local power is united in specific governing structures such as that of the prefecture. It is an organization appointed by the central government, which supervises the administration of specific communities and is responsible to the Ministry of the Interior.

The level of the prefectures is in the vertical extents, part of the unitary hierarchy that starts from the central governing and ends at the local governing. A typical example of this model has been France. For the more, in France, national rank politicians are mayors in their cities. They tend to defend the local interests at the central institutions. The organization of local government has always been part of the changes process.3

The tendency towards the limitation of the number of units is a general trend. This is intended to avoid weaknesses in the implementation of policies when the levels of the local governing are limited in their scope, have a small number of population and insufficient natural resources and capital.

Thus, for example, in 1952, Sweden had 2500 municipalities, whilst in 1969 their number was limited to 278. The increment of the sizes limited the number of “the free rider” - people who exploit the resources of the municipality but do not pay for them.4

In the table below is shown the average population in the lowest levels of the elected local authority.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Average Population (1991)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>127,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>91,620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>41,910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>17,860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>16,740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>10,646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>9,145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>7,240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>6,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>4,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It has been aimed that the “lowest levels” of local governing be considered as “more important” than the “higher levels” of

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2 Political science, Robert L. Cord, 1985, p. 176
3 Introduction to Politics, Veruan Van Dyke, p. 166.
4 Michael Gallagher, p. 179
5 Ibid. p. 181.
this governing. This was associated with the increased public functions for which they are responsible.

Relations between levels are not of a too hierarchical nature, in the sense that one level reports to the other level. The tendency of sharing work between the levels of local governing, which is defined in the constitution or in the national legislation, is the one that operates the most. Mid-level bodies are more responsible for strategic planning and coordination, whilst those of lower levels are directly connected with the realization of basic services. The evaluation of each of the levels of local governing is related to the importance of the functions that each of them has and the degree of autonomy that they must meet.

Almost in all developed European countries, local governing structures originated from their historical past, even from pre-modern historical periods. (1815)\textsuperscript{6}

The second half of the twentieth century was a turning point for local governing, when the foundations for the modern European local governing system were laid. This was followed by many organizations and reorganizations. Spencer and Wallin are among the most well-known researchers of the European local government in the process of historical development.\textsuperscript{7} Spencer notes that for historians “it is not exceptional to seek traces of the development of the municipality in an almost ceaseless process which has started in the twelfth century and has continued until nowadays”.\textsuperscript{8} He also emphasizes that the current system of municipalities in Italy has been put arbitrary by Napoleon Bonaparte (1802) and the general structures of local governing in Italy coincide with the unification of Italy in 1861.

The current system of local governing in Britain has followed the steps of the very old system, which with the major reformations that were made to it after 1835, is based on the low level district administrations and on the high level of county administration. In Ireland, today’s division in counties as a basic unit of the local administration began with the Roman conquest and was completed more or less in the end of the seventeenth century. Municipalities in France date in the Napoleonic Era. The Swedish local governing was established in 1836 with the creation of the municipalities based for hundreds of years on administrative units. The local government in Germany has historic traditions, the origin of which is in the numerous rights that medieval towns had. This tradition was interrupted by the Third Reich that put the centralized totalitarian system of governing, but immediately after the Second World War was realized the organization of today’s municipality – Gemeinde.

Degree of Autonomy, Content And Realization Ways

The increment of problems from the perspective of participation in governing through the spaces where imputes initiatives are undertaken, as well as the spaces where outputs are formulated and realized, means special mechanisms of the activities and relations between central governing bodies and local governing bodies. Through such mechanisms it is aimed to realize the governing as a whole, as well as the particularities related to the space of the local governing expressed through “decentralization” and “autonomy” of local governing.

First of all, it is the administrative structural mechanisms of the central government that operate locally. Such mechanisms are:

Agencies (or institutions) of central government that are organized locally and that are directly responsible for the administration of policies before the central bureaucracy. Thus, for example, in Italy, locally, until the reforms of mid-1970s, there operated 70,000 agencies of the central government.

Local Bodies (institutions) that act on behalf of the central government and of the implementation of the outputs of the central administration. It is quite common that the central government mandate the local government to administrate specific policies on its behalf.

The totality of the governing system makes it unavoidable for the above mechanisms of central governing to act alongside those of local governing. This is the reason that for the local governing bodies to operate as governing bodies being closer to the governed and more direct in the fulfilment of the imputes, it is raised the issue of their powers that in the liberal democratic system are summarized in the so-called decentralization with the pre-condition of the autonomy of local governing.

The authors of the study “Representative Government in Modern Europe” wrote that “it is vital to determine the area within which the local government’s bureaucracy is committed to fully implement the national policy and as many

\[6\] L. Cord, op. cit., p. 337.

\[7\] Local Government in Liberal Democracies, p. 76.

\[8\] Gallagher, op. cit., p. 162
areas in which the local government bodies are free to modify national policies upon their own initiative”.9

The determination of the local bodies is done in two directions:

1- The power of the local government to take decisions without being contested from the central authorities.

2- The degree of independence for the provision of financial support, including the management of the revenue and making expenses. The de facto degree of autonomy of every local government is determined from the opportunities of raising and spending funds independently.

The decentralization in the European countries is realized through an uninterrupted process of continuity. It was conditioned by a number of factors:

- The historical process of formation of nation states and of the institutionalization of governing bodies of liberal democracy;

- The nature of the political culture of the elite and of the mass of population.

- The undertaking of constitutional changes from certain political forces.

- The need of optimizing governing in accordance with the influence of the new factors of the computing revolution, integration and globalization.

Constitutions have been crucial for the functioning of local bodies.

Constitutions mandate different forms of self-governing. In the constitutional document “The Instrument of Government” of Sweden is sanctioned that “the Swedish democracy is based on the freedom of thought, in the general and equal elections and that it is realized through the representative and parliamentary bodies, as well as through self-governing”.10

Other constitutions define the “general powers” that local authorities should have. “General Powers” are connected to the local governing authorities in order to make regulations in any issue related to the territory of the exercise of this governing. These regulations are made in accordance with the national law. Basic Law (the Constitution) of the German Federal Republic for example guarantees to the gemeinde “the right to regulate, under its responsibility and within the limits of law, the entire issues of the local community”.11

Such expressions are part of European doctrine of subsidization—the essence of which is the idea that issues must be handled as much as possible at local levels. Such a doctrine is specifically supported by Christian democracy.

However the policies of the European unitary states are present in the tendencies of centralizing the central government, without clearly defining the powers of local authorities. This allowed national governments to be more involved in local governing. On the contrary, the organization of the constitution of federal states made it difficult, if not impossible for the “the government of the day” to make changes.

Very good examples of the derogatory treatment of the local governing system by the national government, with the aim of politicizing the local government bodies, are found in Britain, Ireland.12

Britain is known for the local government authority. This happened because the British, for ages have highly valued local autonomy and the values that they had regarding their autonomy are part of the political culture.

All the counties and boroughs (cities) were entitled to the right to elect councils with permanent committees for each field of administration. Their powers included the control of police, education, health, welfare issues, housing, and transport. It had been very difficult for the Parliament to ignore local officials. Usually it has intervened in cases of emergency situations.13

However, Britain is also recognized for the efforts of the party governments for the politicization of local governing in terms of policy from “government of the day”, especially for to take the functions of local authorities.

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9 Gallagher, op. cit., p. 153
10 L. Cord, op. cit., p. 182
11 L. Cord, op. cit., p. 182
12 Gallagher, op. cit., p. 162
13 Ibid. p. 162
Structural and Semantic Features of Quotation in English Media Discourse

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Abstract

Quotation, being one of the most common structural and semantic constituents of media discourse, is widely employed by a great number of journalists time and again. Since it may perform various functions, quotation constitutes a powerful tool at reporters’ disposal used to suit their own purposes. Consequently the analysis of this issue can be found in numerous works, but authors mostly study quotation from a stylistic perspective, paying less attention to its lexical aspect, which requires a closer examination. Thus the present research targets at the analysis of quotes’ structural types and their semantic features in English media discourse, subjecting to conscious scrutiny the borrowing of a quote’s form and content in the process of introducing the quoted text into a new one. For carrying out this research, quotations from the following newspapers: the New York Times, the Financial Times, the Economist, the Spectator, the Sun, The Wall Street Journal were examined according to existing classifications. The research is based on a descriptive analysis of various quote types and their specific features. Despite the fact that some statistical data are provided in this paper, the approach adopted is more observational. The findings suggest that although the quote is expected to meet the structural and semantic organization of an authentic text, in media discourse authors often break this rule for pursuing particular objectives. The study reveals that intentional changes in reported speech and the influence of a new context environment may alter the meaning of the quoted utterance. The research outcomes verify the idea that quotation, being a journalist’s powerful tool, plays an important role within a text and the understanding of quotes’ structural and semantic peculiarities is likely to assist readers in perceiving and analyzing information.

Keywords: English media discourse, quotation, lexical aspect, structural types, semantic features

1. Introduction

Quotation being an inalienable feature of media discourse is widely used by a great number of authors time and again, as it helps them to solve a set of different tasks such as to state particular facts, making information more precise and vivid, to express indirectly one’s attitude towards the quoted statement, to create a dramatic effect, influencing readers, and even to detach from what is claimed.

Consequently the analysis of this issue can be found not only in works of leading theorists (e.g. Prof. Galperin, Prof. Bahtin), but also in numerous publications of modern writers, who have carried out a great amount of research into structural, semantic and pragmatic aspects of quotation.

The fact that there are a lot of questions concerning a multifaceted nature of quotation, its place, role in a text and language peculiarities explains the existence of a great number of approaches and theories dealing with this notion. The textual nature of quotation accounts for the fact that it shares many characteristics typical of an ordinary text such as its structural, informative, indicative and intertextual nature, its directedness, intentionality and pragmatic value. (Galperin, 1981, p.18)

1.1 Approaches to studying quotation

Thus three different approaches to studying quotation are acknowledged in modern linguistics: structural, communicative and lexico-cultural, they reflect main streams in contemporary discourse research. (Karasil, 1998, p.185)

1.1.1 Structural approach

The representatives of this scholarly approach (M.U. Bulah, I.R. Galperin, K.N Dairova, O.G. Moskalskaya) pay most attention to a structural aspect of quotation, studying interrelations between a quote and the author’s text, classifying
semantic constituents of an introductory complex and identifying main semantic types of quotation.

Quotation is regarded as a means of structural and compositional text formation, providing its logical coherence and cohesion. According to Prof. Galperin, being a tool for contextual text segmentation, quotation forms one of the basic text categories—its information value. (Galperin, 1981, p.52) Moreover, this approach presupposes studying structural and semantic features of quotation in line with its functional characteristics.

1.1.2 Communicative approach

The supporters of this approach (V.P. Androsenko, G.S. Salova, V.E. Chernyavskaya) highlight the idea that such characteristics of quotation as information value, modality, contextual meaning are closely connected with a communicative situation the quote is produced in. It is claimed that taking into account the influence of external environment on the interrelation between a quote and a text leads to a better understanding of a quote’s communicative function peculiarities.

1.1.3 Linguo-cultural approach

The advocates of this approach (U.M. Lotman, Z.G. Mints, D. Meyer) consider quotation as a cultural sign, the sign of a quoted culture. Quotation, being regarded from this perspective, implies the analysis of background knowledge of an addressee, the awareness of important cultural, social and historical aspects of that language and the insight in its genre and stylistic peculiarities.

However, although a great amount of research into quotation is carried out, it is worth mentioning that it is mostly based on the analysis of scientific discourse texts, thus the notion of quotation in media discourse still remains quite incomprehensive and needs closer examination. Taking as its starting point the previous research of Prof. Aleshchanova into quotation in media discourse, the present paper targets at the descriptive analysis of quotes’ structural types in English media discourse, paying attention to the borrowing of a quote’s form and content in the process of introducing the quoted utterance into a new text, moreover in order to account for roles a quote might play in a sentence, the semantic analysis is carried out.

2. Quotation structural classification

Since quotation is really popular with many authors, it is quite reasonable that there are a great number of classifications, based on different criteria or characteristics of quotes. For example, Prof. Aleshchanova in her Candidate of Science Thesis “Quotation in media discourse” among other classifications, suggests grouping quotes according to their form, thus she defines the following structural types: full, reduced and segmented quotes. (Aleshchanova, 2000)

Being under the influence of many extra- and inter-linguistic factors, which also determine quotes’ semantic and pragmatic features in a new text, the structural aspect of quotation is assumed to be the most disposed to various modifications.

Based on quotes’ structural peculiarities, the classification introduced in this paper is also intended to cover some questions pertaining to the correlation between a quote’s content in an authentic environment and in a new one. It appears that structurally a quote can be expressed by a sentence (quote-sentence), a word combination (quote-word-combination) and a word itself (quote-word).

Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quote-word</th>
<th>Quote-word-combination</th>
<th>Quote-sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>658</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data: Survey, December 2012

Table 1 provides statistics, which is based on the analysis of 250 articles taken from the following newspapers: the New York Times, the Financial Times, the Economist, the Spectator, the Sun and The Wall Street Journal. It illustrates that the type quote-sentence prevails in newspaper articles, which may be explained by the fact that, being quite neutral and easy to employ, this structural type allows communicating particular facts and real words of a quoted person, which makes information in a news report look more objective and alive.
The quote-sentence type presents a literal logically finished utterance, without any abridgements.

e.g.:

“The initiation of baby boomers going into retirement is absolutely the primary factor that has driven this shift in focus,” says Michael Doshier, vice-president of retirement marketing at Franklin Templeton Investments. (The Financial Times, ‘Decumulation’ phase moves higher up agenda, December 7, 2012)

“They need more incentive to make the transition that they must know they need to make, from fossil fuel companies to energy companies,” Mr. McKibben said. (The NY Times, To Stop Climate Change, Students Aim at College Portfolios, December 4, 2012)

The quote-word-combination type is represented by a contracted part of a quoted text, the content of which is not altered. While this quotation type is not introduced by any words, it still logically fits the new environment, becoming a part of a sentence. The case of quotation in this type is apparent only in writing as quotation marks are used.

e.g.:

To help this timescale along, PF2 will introduce “a comprehensive suite of standard documentation”, the report promises. (The Financial Times, Doubling down: PFI becomes “PF2”, December 5, 2012)

Set out your “strategic posture” – for instance, emphasising IT as a driver or enabler of strategy. (The Financial Times, The first 100 days of a new CIO: Nine steps for wiring in success, December 4, 2012)

According to the findings of this study, which are constituent with what is known about quotation, the quote-word type is the least employed by authors, while it is also claimed to be the most expressive one. Quotes of this type are inseparably linked with the text they are introduced in.

e.g.:

The British state’s determination to chase foreign earnings while lowering public spending threatens the judicial standards that bring in international “business” in the first place. (The Spectator, Export only justice, December 8, 2012)

Having the luxury of 41 megapixels for input and only 3, 5 or 8 megapixels needed for output, the technology takes full advantage of a technique known as “oversampling”. (The Economist, Difference Engine: True to its image, December 3, 2012)

Due to their logical incompleteness and syntactic dependence on a new text, the quotes of both the word-combination and the word type are considered to be synsemantic utterances.

2.1 The correlation of language systems

One of major challenges when introducing a quote into a new text is the correlation of two language systems: the system of a quoted utterance and the one of a “text-receiver”. On general grounds, three basic variations of this correlation can be recognized:

First variation- the general meaning of a quote remains the same in a new text.

e.g.:

“Russia is a lot more bureaucratic than India or Brazil and you lose a lot more time in red tape than in other markets when founding a venture and dealing with logistics”, he says. (The Financial Times, Eastern premise, December 3, 2012)

John Rishton, Rolls-Royce chief executive, said: “I want to make it crystal clear that neither I nor the Board will tolerate improper business conduct of any sort and will take all necessary action to ensure compliance. This is a company with exceptional prospects and I will not accept any behaviour that undermines its future success.” (The Financial Times, Rolls-Royce reveals SFO corruption probe, December 6, 2012)

Eyal Gruner, a security engineer who tracked the virus at Versafe, an online security company, said: “More than 30 per cent of the EU and US banks use something similar to this mechanism.” (The Financial Times, Hackers net €36m in Europe banking attack, December 5, 2012)

Second variation- the general meaning of a quote remains the same but there are some changes in its expression, some of a quote’s components are changed to meet a language situation of a new text.
Thus Parisian taxi drivers not long ago resorted to an inventive “work-to-rule” tactic after being confronted with new regulations. (The Wall Street Journal, Disordered Liberty, December 4, 2012)

Approval of the bill immediately labelled by Russia’s foreign ministry as “theatre of the absurd”. (The New York Times, Magnitsky bill passes on trade deal, December 6, 2012)

“The more tools that are out there, the better,” he says. (The Financial Times, ‘Decumulation’ phase moves higher up agenda, December 7, 2012)

And the final one - the meaning of a quote in an authentic text and in a “text-receiver” is not identical. A quote’s semantics (its semantic meaning and a meaning produced by a new context environment) does not meet the standards of a “text-receiver”, in that case a quote is used as a kind of association or an expressive tool, for attracting readers’ attention or even as a design tool, for making a piece of writing look attractive.

e.g.:

Numerous cities have set up a “happiness index” based on everything from the number of pollution particles in the air to subjective factors for measuring municipal ecstasy. (The Wall Street Journal, The folly of ranking national nirvana, December 4, 2012)

Executives in technology, retail, marketing and other industries like to say that data is “the new oil” or, at least, the fuel that powers the Internet economy. (The New York Times, A Vault for Taking Charge of Your Online Life, December 9, 2012)

When choosing a kind of variation, authors usually target at creating a particular effect. It is a well-known fact that the quote is expected to meet the structural and semantic organization of an authentic text, the findings of the research suggest that in media discourse if authors break this rule when choosing a kind of structure and variation, they usually pursue a particular objective.

The study reveals that the first variation, which is usually structurally expressed by the type quote-sentence, is the most common one in newspaper articles due to the fact that many journalists resort to it for conveying particular facts or real words of a quoted person, which makes their piece of writing more precise and vivid. While the second variation type, being quite expressive, is more typical of newspaper headlines and used by authors to attract the readers’ attention.

The third variation type along with the second one is also used for evoking readers’ interest. By using quotes in the stylistic environment and a thematic context different from their initial one, journalists employ figurative language ¹, creating some specific effects, such as literary tropes ², which makes their writing more attention-grabbing and eye-catching.

Therefore any quotation has an additional semantic meaning, which is inherited from an initial language environment, where the quote is first produced in. (Shylezhkova, 1995, p.223) That language environment is always implicitly or explicitly reflected in a quote, introduced into a new context, creating an additional semantic meaning. According to Prof. Litvin, the understanding of that meaning may present some difficulties and requires that a person should be aware of the first language environment of a quote, where it got an additional semantic meaning. (Litvin, 1984,p.119) It is also necessary to mention that intentional changes in reported speech and the influence of a new context environment may alter the meaning of the quoted utterance.

3. The analysis of quotation semantic features

As it has been mentioned before, quotation is widely used by authors for completing various communicative tasks, and the practice of quoting among newspaper journalists is becoming more and more popular. The extraction of certain utterances from one’s speech and their introduction to a new context may have different functions, which were studied by such authors as Prof. Aleshchanova, Prof. Fairclough and linguist Nylund.

¹ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Literal_and_figurative_language
² https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trope_(literature)
In his article on the narrative functions of quotes, Nylund concludes that quotation in today's media performs a variety of functions: by using quotes, a journalist can validate, criticize, certify, evaluate the information, or even distance oneself from what is quoted. Quotation helps to make a story more alive, captivating readers and grabbing their attention. According to Nylund, quotes add a sense of presence, emotions and subjective experience to a news report. (Nylund, 2003, pp.844-851)

In contrast to several other studies on quotation functions, which mainly dwell on pragmatic aspect of this question and build their classifications basing on the communicative meaningfulness of the quoted utterance or journalists' perspectives in employing quotes, the classification offered in this research is based on the one, given by Prof. Aleshchanova in her Candidate of Science Thesis “Quotation in media discourse”, where she defines a “quote example”, a “quote opinion” and a “quote substitute” type according to the functions utterances perform in a text. These functions are described as follows: a referential one, which presupposes supplementing with details the context environment, the quote is inserted in; a cognitive one, which refers to processing, learning, remembering, storing information and to expressing cultural experience of society and an informative function, which is used for carrying out particular communicative tasks in the process of communication. (Aleshchanova, 2000) This paper aims at analyzing the peculiarities of these quote types and their interconnection with other quotation characteristics observed in the article before.

The quote-opinion type represents the result of reality comprehension by a speaker and their reaction to it, and forms a basis for its further analysis by the author of an article.

e.g.:

“We think that the MBA programme is very revolutionary and offers much more hands-on practical experience in emerging markets than most MBAs," says Valeria Pavlyukovskaya, director of the school's executive MBA programme, which includes a module in which participants start up their own business. (The Financial Times, Eastern premise, December 3, 2012)

“There is no such thing as an IT project," advises David Elton, an IT and change management specialist at PA Consulting. "There are only business projects with IT in them." This is leading, in the view of some experts, to the role of chief information officer becoming more closely allied to that of chief operating officer, and to some companies giving managers responsibility for IT alongside facilities or property management more generally. Other observers, however, believe IT remains too complex to become part of a generalist's portfolio. (The Financial Times, Spending: Cost control develops into full reviews of processes, December 4, 2012)

The quote-example type, carrying factual information, is considered as a means of explaining and proving the speaker's position. Most journalists resort to this quote type for the reason that it comprises a great amount of statistics, which makes news more objective.

e.g.:

“When people get crazy over something, they like to rationalize what they do,” Mr. Kusin added. “If a Russian oligarch is going to spend $88 million, then somehow he has to justify it. So he says it’s more than an apartment. It’s art. That’s absolutely ridiculous. At the end of the day, it’s still a piece of real estate. It’s immovable, and it needs to be maintained.” (The New Your Times, Overpriced Real Estate? Well, Maybe It’s Art, September 1, 2012)

“If the water comes up too high onto the streets of New York it could damage our equipment, it would damage our customers' equipment and there's a lot more damage if the equipment is energized, so we might be preemptively de-energizing that equipment in advance," Mr. Burke said. (The Wall Street Journal, Parts of New York City Evacuated for Hurricane Sandy, October 28, 2012)

The quote substitute type is a contextually dependent utterance, which is structurally expressed by a reduced or segmented quote. The process of introducing quotes of this type into a text does not represent any difficulty and results in a cohesive narration. Moreover the usage of this quote type makes narration more vivid and in some cases helps authors to avoid being accused of subjective information interpretation.

e.g.:

“Climate-safe” cities, if any exist, might limit their own development when confronted by flows of migrants from vulnerable areas. (The Economist, Heated Debate, December 8, 2012)

America is ‘browning’, as Frey puts it, as a result of high immigration levels from Latin America and Asia and the fact that an older white population is having fewer children than immigrants and their children. (The Spectator, Barack Obama's
It is generally assumed that all discourses and utterances are dialogical in their nature, they all carry some meanings based upon speakers’ previous usage of the same words (Bakhtin, 1986; Linell, 1998). According to Caldas-Coulthard “No speech representation is objective or simply neutral”. (Caldas-Coulthard, 1994, p.307) Even if a person is quoted word-for-word and an utterance is simply extracted from one context to another, a shift of meaning is still likely to take place. (Caldas-Coulthard, 1994; Linell, 1998).

Needless to say, that to quote somebody is to manage “the words of others to convey and serve the purpose of the writer, giving a slant to what is said.” (Calsamiglia & Ferrero, 2003, p.149). In media discourse, journalists actively make use of quotations, trying to “control the way readers process and make sense of the report” (Teo, 2000, p.14). The findings of this research suggest that newspaper authors may alter the organization of a quoted utterance, trying to achieve desired effects, which in their turn usually determine the author’s choice of a quote structural and semantic type.

4. Conclusions

Both the content of a quoted utterance and the way it is represented in a new environment play a significant role in verbal and written discourse. (Bakhtin, 1981) The process of citing presupposes that a new text somehow borrows the form and the content of a quote, where more attention is paid to a semantic aspect due to its predominance over a structural one. The findings suggest that quotation acts as a kind of mediator between two language environments: an initial language environment, where the quote is first produced, and a new environment it is introduced into.

Meeting the aim of this research, which was to analyze quotes’ structural types and their semantic features in English media discourse, the paper systemizes common knowledge and provides a descriptive analysis of quotation classifications and their peculiarities. Moreover theoretical material is illustrated with real examples, which facilitates the understanding of the given information. Therefore this study provides insights into structural and semantic features of quotation and assists readers in perceiving and analyzing information given in English media discourse.

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The European Urban Charter and the Reality of Albanian Cities

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Abstract

The Council of Europe has been implementing for several years the European Urban Charter. Its focus is the city and urban areas in Europe, relating to rights such as urban transport and mobility, environment and nature in cities, urban architectural heritage, cultural integration in the city, civic participation, urban management and urban planning. The European Urban Charter is provided by the Council of Europe in relation to urban policy. It came as a logical outcome of the European campaign for urban renewal organized by the Council of Europe in 1980-1982. The purpose of this charter is to provide a practical tool and a manual for urban management authorities. Moreover, this charter is committed to provide a business card for the Council of Europe on issues related to the environment and the act of building. After this outline of European urban space, the environment and its principles it is clearer which is the road where the Albanian society will have to walk and on what principles will be built the national plan for urban spatial planning. The development of our cities modeled on European cities is likely to be cost, not only because of the historical developments, but more for reasons of political transition in the Albanian society which continues to hold back our cities.

Keywords: European Urban Charter, reform, the Council of Europe, urban spaces, integration, urban management, urban planning, citizen participation, Albanian cities, local authorities etc.

1. Introduction

The Council of Europe, with headquarters in the building of the "Palais de l'Europe" in Strasbourg, France is the first political organization and the widest in Europe. Founded in 1949 by 10 founding members, now it covers almost the entire European continent, with its 47 member states, and thus has become a unique forum to express their concerns, hopes and aspirations of 800 million Europeans.

As clearly stated in Chapter I of its Statute: "The aim of the Council of Europe is to achieve greater unity among its members for the purpose of safeguarding and realizing the ideals and principles which are their common heritage and facilitating their economic progress and social development". Since November 1990, the acceptance of 21 countries of central and eastern Europe (the most recent Serbia and Montenegro in April 2003), has given the Council European a true dimension of pan-European, so now is the organization which represents Greater Europe. The Council of Europe supports human rights, pluralist democracy and the rule of law.

As the first European institution, the Council of Europe was conceived as an instrument for the development of joint agreements on economic sectors, legal, social and cultural, as a European platform for exchange of views. The focus of work of the Council of Europe, is today on the field of human rights and the promotion of democratization processes.

In this context, the wide range of initiatives of the Council of Europe often takes the form of conventions drawn to bring the laws of the Member States in close harmony with each other and with the standards of the Council itself.

Currently there are over 200 such conventions. The best known of these is the European Convention on Human Rights (which defines the rights and freedoms of Member States which are obliged to ensure to all individuals within their jurisdiction) without denying the importance of conventions in the relevant fields. These conventions are complemented by numerous resolutions and recommendations addressed to member states, which play a vital role in finding solutions to our common problems. One of these is the European Urban Charter.

The European Urban Charter is provided by the Council of Europe in relation to urban policy. It came as a logical outcome of the European campaign for urban renewal, organized by the Council of Europe in the years 1980-1982 and was approved in 1992 by the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe. This charter marked a
crucial stage for recognition of urban reality.1

The purpose of this charter is to provide a practical tool and a manual of urban management for local authorities and to provide the key elements for a possible future convention on the urban rights, to provide the basis for an international awards scheme for cities which sign the principles of Charter, to create a "business card" for the Council of Europe on issues related to the environment and the act of building. The European Urban Charter sets out the rights of citizens in European towns.

It gives practical guidance on good urban management, covering housing, urban architecture, transportation and mobility, energy, sport and leisure, environmental pollution and nature, cultural integration, disadvantaged and disabled people in cities, urban security and crime prevention, citizen participation, urban management and planning, health, etc.

The philosophy of this Charter relates to the authority of local government on the importance of urban development, solidarity and cooperation between central and local government, and ultimately the collaboration of European cities beyond national borders.

2. European Urban Charter 2 - Manifesto for a new urban reality2

Such an initiative for the adoption of European Urban Charter became the forerunner of a new approach adopted by all Europe marked by the adoption of basic texts in different cities, developed by other international organizations or associations of local authorities. Some are processed by the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe; some are processed by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, European Union, United Nations, and civil society associations and other territorial entities. All these texts to which we referred have reflect increased attention to significant changes in recent years.

In general they follow the European urban Charter and in most cases they are adopted by European governments. Drawn by many different organizations with a wide variety of styles, all these texts reaffirm the right that belongs to cities and highlight the unique role of the citizens, which should be the focus of urban policy. However, given the diversity of these texts the International Congress of local and regional authorities saw the need to reword some of the main principles of the European urban Charter by maintaining its original version in its full status as a reference. The purpose of this manifesto, in this century is the beginning to demonstrate the need for a new urban form.

In these 15 years, we have witnessed profound changes in our society, in our economy and culture. In the context of local and global challenges and unprecedented development of urbanization, the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe convened in a plenary session in Strasbourg, from 27 May to 29 May 2008 decided to adopt and revise some of the principles contained in the original European Urban Charter in order to update to meet them.

The European Urban Charter 2, the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities proposes a manifesto for a new urban reality, a new culture of urban life, which calls on local authorities to build a sustainable European city.

This manifesto sets out a number of principles and concepts common to allow cities and their residents face the challenges of today's urban society. The Congress calls local authorities in all their diversity and in the respect of common European values, to implement public policies, ethical governance for sustainable development and greater solidarity.

This message is optimistic and ambitious which wants to transmit this manifesto to European citizens and to all those who are involved in urban development. This Charter is like an invitation to build a sharing of values and experiences, a new urban project for European cities, enabling each of them to be completely itself and allowing everyone to support the European project, which is an inseparable mixture of humanitarian values, individual freedom, economic prosperity, social solidarity, respect for our planet.

3. The Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe

The Council of Europe has always recognized the vital importance of democracy at local and regional level. Greater freedom is a need that is felt not just by any individual, but also the nation as a whole. Local government must meet the needs of all Europeans in cities and villages, central and peripheral and beyond. The European Council took its first step

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1 Përparim Kabo “European or local in space planning?!” 16 March 2012, www.balkanweb.com
2 The European Urban Charter 2 – Manifesto for a new urban reality, Resolution 269 (dated on 29.05.2008)
towards local authority representation in 1957 and since then has spread from Iceland to Russia and from Norway to the Balkans.

In 1994, the Council of Europe established the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe, as a consultative body to replace the former Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe. The role of Congress of local and regional authorities consists in representing the voice of the regions and municipalities in the Council of Europe providing a forum where local elected and regional representatives can discuss their common problems, share their experience and express views of their governments, working closely with national and international organizations by representing local and regional government.

The Congress also organizes hearings and conferences, produces regular reports country by country on the situation of local and regional democracy in all member states and acceding to the Council, and in particular, how the principles of the European Charter of Local Self-Government are implemented and helps new member states with practical aspects of their progress towards the establishment of effective local and regional self-government. The Congress consisting of two chambers meet once a year in Strasbourg, welcomes delegations from accredited European organizations and some non-member states as special guests. Congress divides its work among four statutory committees as follows:

- Institutional Committee which has a special duty to prepare reports on the progress of local and regional democracy in Europe and is assisted by a committee of independent experts;
- Culture and Education Committee, responsible for media, youth, sport and communication;
- Committee on Sustainable Development, responsible for environmental affairs, space and urban planning;
- Committee on Social Cohesion on issues concerning employment, citizenship, migration, inter-community relations, equality between women and men and solidarity;

4. The reality of Albanian cities

Cities belong to citizens and are an economic, social and cultural good that must be transmitted to future generations. Albanian cities are not aware of their new role as a major center of initiatives and creativity. They are already the place where new ways of living, a new social familiar reality, and the flexibility of labor relations are presented. As an indicator for the measuring of urbanization is taken the participation of the population, which normally lives in cities, from the entire population. Democratization and regime change in Albania is the main factor which accelerated the process of urbanization. In western cities civilization feels consolidated with its urban development, whereas in developing countries, urbanization features are attracting the mass more than the civilization within it. The displacement of population rural areas to the city is often anarchic and uncontrolled impossible to be controlled by the state or to be regulated by norms of civilization. The urbanization of the Albanian cities has its positive and negative sides. The positive aspects of urbanization are:

- The merging of the virtues of traditional rural population into urban contemporary ones raising the cultural level of education, reduction of population growth, socialization of population etc. The negative aspects of urbanization are: greater pressure on jobs, the pressure on the stock of buildings, transport problems, air pollution, noise, alienation of people, crime, etc.

Urbanization in Albania has gone through three stages since the fall of communism. The first phase was dominated by the informal sector. The second phase was characterized by consolidation and the emergence of the informal sector to the formal sector. The third and current phase consists in strengthening the formal sector and the informal development regulation.

The main objective of the third phase government would formalize and integrate the real estate market. New construction and urbanization in the first two phases have been spontaneous and with little interference from the central government.

In this transition period, our cities have been among the first to have felt the general issues relating to the free movement of citizens, new construction, major social and economic changes; increasing social inequality, deepening unemployment, problems in neighborhoods of the city, increasing migration, aging population, mass use of vehicles etc. Another threat that is facing our cities is also the changing of the environment. In a way cities have faced and are facing major challenges.

If we would talk about good urban models of our cities, we can say that they are lacking and this is already a serious concern. The expansion of our cities in the best of cases has not considered a clear functional separation among residential areas, industrial areas; areas dedicated to leisure, etc. which has led to a massive ecological destruction of
our cities' climate. This model has increased abuse of power and weighs even more the environmental damage that is caused. It is not that we are following a “good policy” and the damage caused by it is obvious.

Local government in Albania (without denying the importance of having great central government) will have to keep in mind and implement the basic principles of European Urban Charter to have in the near future cities with a European vision.

Our cities need to rethink about compact urban forms that require minimal resources for their operation and allow citizens to have access to their residences in different structures for which they need, as well as urban services, leisure places, in natural parks and areas. Only consistency and sustainability of our cities will make urban spaces easier and more accessible for all people regardless of their social background, age or health status.

This will not only be a step towards improving the quality of our lives, but a necessary precondition for the prosperous development of our territories. Only a sustained commitment can really deliver results for future projects.

The issue of housing is of great importance, but not the only one. Population movements, which in recent years have contributed to the continued growth of our cities has resulted in many of our cities in a housing crisis, which led to increased land prices, property and residential apartments. Other issues which have not yet found the solution in our cities deal with urban transport, urban heritage, citizen participation in urban planning, public spaces and natural parks, which are almost absent etc.

From the above analysis there is a general problem associated with the size of the development of our cities today, putting us ahead not easy challenges, which have never been more important than now.

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Women Representations in Television Narrative in the Context of Popular Culture and Turkey

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Abstract

Utterances in the products of popular culture, the culture of daily life and an escape from the negative aspects of reality, are shaped and produced by hegemonic culture of the ruling powers, thus preventing reality from being noticed. Patriarchal system, generated by or thriving on sovereign ideology and handed down from one generation to another, is a part of this ideology. One means of formation and conveyance of patriarchal system is television narrative, which is the product of popular culture. The real power of television, which is capable of reaching many people and regarded as a fundamental source of information and entertainment, lies in the fact that it has the power to shape and reshape people’s points of view and that it can be the fundamental source of their thoughts and notions. With an indispensable role in spreading new radical thoughts and values, television encodes the discourses of social life into its narratives and holds its place in the integrity of the system of cultural representation which builds up the social reality by internalizing those representations. Narrations that legitimize the existing system through concrete representative strategies and the effects they have created play an important role in consolidating and normalizing the social roles of men and women by the gender representations they already possess. The aim of this study is to determine the outlook of popular television series on women, which have flourished since the year 2000 in Turkey. For this purpose, in this study, women representations in Turkish television series which rank high in ratings in Turkey and have broken viewing records in several other countries, especially in the Middle East will be investigated and it will be analyzed whether women are presented as a part of the existing ideological discourse.

1. Introduction

Patriarchal system, which advocates that sex is the biological reality of nature and that the social consequences should be regarded as normal due to this binding reality, is being regenerated through various theories and discourses. The main argument of sex regime which is based on sexual differences claims that sexes are the different and even contrasting biological formations of bodies. According to this common discourse, the body has always created sexual differences through genes and hormones, which legitimize the discourse of biological requirements (Sancar, 2009, 244). Talcott Parsons, who formulated the classical American sex role model in the early 1950s, was the key figure in the structural-functional model with his theory on sex role differentiations. For Parsons, in any social system that involves both sexes, expressive interests tend to be dominant in women, while in men, instrumental interests predominate (Carrigan&Connell&Lee, 2002, 101-102). Power, wisdom, activeness, resistance, violence, rivalry, and passion for success and risks are indications of masculinity while the opposite characteristics are regarded to be of feminine nature (Sancar, 2009, 28-29).

Just as the man is the one who gives orders at home and just as power in the site belonged to men but not to women, slaves, or children, so should everyone make their masculine characteristics supreme over their own selves. One’s being masculine against himself means ordering to those who are supposed to be ordered, forcing those who cannot govern themselves to obey, and being active against the passive or those who are supposed to be so (Foucault, 2007, 182).

According to Freud, the reason why the term “masculine” is generally regarded as active while the word “feminine” is associated with the passive is that the male sex cell is active and dynamic and chases the female cell, whereas the female egg cell remains dormant and passive (Freud, 2004, 148). The masculine role during sexual intercourse refers to an active function but the opposite is associated with the passive role of the object-partner (Freud, 2004, 153).

2. Femininity in The Context of Gender

The gender concept holds the opinion that a new born child has a biological sex but not a gender yet. The concept in this respect makes the point that gender roles are social setups caused more by social and cultural contexts than by
individual sexual traits. As the child grows up, the society provides them with rules and behavior patterns specific to their sex, and these concretized patterns and models are introduced to the child by such socialization tools as family, friends, schools, and mass media. With the involvement of various learning mechanisms, the child internalizes these behaviors and acquires the gender role besides biological sex (Connell, 1998, 255). In other words, masculinity and femininity, which are formations specific to certain historical time and place, have been categories that have constantly been reshaped, resisted, regenerated, and reconfirmed in ideologies, social institutions and practices. Those males or females who violate these boundaries are subjected to countless of sanctions ranging from ridicule to violence (Segal, 1992).

In addition, in his theories on gender, Connell claims that male-female interactions are based more on power relations than on biological differences and that gender is structured through relations and hierarchy (Lusher&Robins, 2009, 387). Connell takes the position of men and women from a different viewpoint and regards the inhibitive and still prevailing figures of understanding females as a discrimination that severs women at one whack as good girls, affectionate mothers on one hand and, on the other, as intriguing mistresses, suffocating mothers, lesbians hating males, and the ostracized with psychological disorders (Connell, 2002, 92.). According to Connell, a relatively easier admittance to the position of “good girl” brings along a disadvantage. Such feminine traps as simplicity, understanding, unconditional care and loyalty whiten females and cause them to try to be more “attractive” in line with the spiritual fantasy towards the woman. In so doing, the woman comes to think that she will have an easier access to the resident institutional structures, thereby fortifying her own imprisonment by legitimizing the semantic restriction of femininity (Connell, 2002, 101).

In conclusion, when we take the theories on history of femininity into consideration, it can be observed that some theoreticians focused on biological differences while others based their arguments on a more sociological context. An overall evaluation indicates that even if the process has functioned differently, the woman has been regarded as secondary to the man and excluded from certain places and institutions already existing in society and that biological differences and physical limitations have been used as a pretext for this.

3. Television as the product of popular culture

Expressions in popular culture, which is the culture of everyday life used to escape from the negative aspects of reality that produces artificial sources of happiness, has a deceptive character, is produced and shaped by the hegemonic culture of the ruling power, and therefore disguises the reality (Oktay, 2002,18-19). Popular culture which is produced by culture industry is build up in order to generate or enhance dominant ideology (Alemdar &Erdoğan, 1994,132.)

Means of mass media constitute one of the most important tools of the dominant ideology. Used to reinforce the sovereign belief, such stereotypes as nation, family, heroism, sense of duty, and manhood are produced in those tools which make the most effective but the most covered form of propaganda of all kind and have a function of creating new forms of awareness, so that the public can internalize them (Oktay, 2002, 34).

It is observed that the media, which, in theory, is supposed to be impartial or independent while carrying out its tasks and not take orders from the those in power or distort information about the world in such a way as to make it suit the dominant concept, has already become the essential component of the process of “manufacturing consent” and is directed within the power domain of the dominant social interest represented in the state (Hall, 1999, 122.).

On the other hand, the belief that regards viewers to be passive is an old point of view, and based on the result of most recent studies, the approach that viewers are active and interact with the message actively receives more appraisals. However, not every individual is mentally healthy or intelligent at the same level, so attention is drawn on the view that the texts created by the media should be prepared by taking every personality into consideration (Yanikkaya, 2006, 50.)

As far as the prevalence and rate of use in society are concerned, of all mass media tools, television stands as the one that must pay the most attention to this mission. The real power of television, which can reach many people and is regarded as the main source of information and entertainment, lies in the fact that it can shape people’s general philosophy of life and be the fundamental source of thoughts and notions (Burton, 1995,15).

Television narratives constitute one of the conveyance and shaping-process tools of television, a powerful tool in creating distorted images of the real world, namely illusions. Aiming at people from all walks of life by telling a set of intertwined stories with a wide variety of characters, television series also function as the bearer and regenerator of the existing ideological system. One of the domains that television series regenerate and legitimize is the viewpoints of femininity and masculinity that emerge linearly with the gender concept.
4. Women Representations in Television Series

In recent years, Turkish television series have broken many rating records in countries from the Middle East to North Africa, Turkic Republics, Balkan States, and even Vietnam. Especially in the year 2010, more than 70 Turkish television series were observed to break export records. Owing to television series, actresses receive marriage proposals, and posters and DVDs are asked for, as well as the address of the film set. In many of the Arab countries, specifically, it is observed that the destination they want to visit most is Istanbul.

The reason why Turkish television series have become so popular is accounted for by the fact that the Arab communities would like to see ‘figures that balance out the traditional with the modern’. According to Arab interpreters, ‘a modern life style that does not reject conventions’ appeals to Arabs, and for them, many new-but-not-alien elements exist in Turkish television series and with these elements, the sense that ‘they are like us’ is created. This represents a lifestyle that Arabs want but do not have (http://www.ihap.org.tr/turk-dizileri-cilginligi-254543-haber, http://www.sabah.com.tr /Ekonomi/2013/03/24/100-milyon-dolarlik-dizi-ihracati)

Turcologist-writer Amine Siljak Jesenkovic reports that Turkish television series are also highly popular in Serbia, Croatia, and Bosnia Herzegovina, besides The Middle East. She further states that this series boom started with the television series named Binbir Gece (One thousand and one nights) and adds that “People in Bosnia take more interest in Bergüzar Korel and Halit Ergenç than Angelina Jolie” and that the prejudice against Turks of Turkey has been greatly eliminated by the help of television series. (http://www.dha.com.tr/ortadogu-ve-balkan-ulkelerinde-turk-dizileri-cilginligi _273274.html)

In the light of this information, television series can be said to have a more important function in the conveyance of culture and lifestyle than simply being an entertainment tool viewed and consumed in 1-2 hours. They also have a significant function in manufacturing and legitimizing the patriarchal discourse, and therefore, the importance of woman representations in television series is now twofold. Thus, in order to evaluate woman representations in Turkish television series, the most viewed series “Muhteşem Yüzyıl” (The Magnificent Century) and “Öyle Bir Gece Zaman Kt” (As Time Goes By) were analyzed in in the context of woman representations, independently of other aspects.

The first television series was first broadcast in 2011 and directed by Durul- Yağmur Taylan. The story is centered on the life of Suleyman The Magnificent. The story starts when the shahzadah (prince) Suleyman ascends to the throne upon his father Yavuz Sultan Selim’s death and falls in love with Hurrem Sultan, a concubine brought to the royal Harem recently. However, soon events focus more on Hurrem Sultan and her affairs in Harem than Sultan Suleyman The Magnificent.

The second television series included in this study is “Öyle Bir Gece Zaman K” (As time goes by), which was directed by Zeynep Günü Tan and first broadcast in 2010 and ended in 2013. The story starts in an old neighborhood in Istanbul in 1967 and continues until 1980s. While the everyday experiences of the Akarsu family is covered on one hand, economic, social and political issues of the country are also conveyed on the other. The story is monitored and narrated by Osman, the youngest son of the family.

Both television series were analyzed under certain subtopics to provide unity in analysis. The subtopics are the ratio of the number of male to female characters, ‘personalities of women characters in main roles’, ‘effects of women on the relationship between men and on the course of events’, and ‘representation of woman characters’.

5. Muhteşem Yüzyıl

The television series “Muhteşem Yüzyıl” is a series that has been one of the most discussed series since the first time it was broadcast. The most important reason for this controversy is that the story tells the life of Suleyman The Magnificent, one of the padishahs of the most powerful period of the Ottoman Empire; and that it focuses more on the private life of the sultan. Although the story starts with the life of Suleyman The Magnificent, it then diverts towards the affairs and life of his wife Hurrem Sultan, also a highly important figure historically. The series has often been studied academically with regard to fiction-reality relation, historical texts, social memory, sacred values, privacy, etc. However, this study focused on the women and the relations in the Harem, most of which are regarded as fiction.

The scriptwriter of the series, Meral Okay (after her death in 2012, Yılmaz Şahin became the scenarist) pointed out on a TV talk show on January 6th, 2011 that the story was a fiction-drama inspired by history and a television narrative and a fantasy, but not a documentary. She also made this distinction in her words that “although the background is based on historical realities and chronology, fiction starts with the components of private life”. It is clear by the scenarist’s words that relations in the Harem and the characters of women were completely shaped by the demands and preferences of the scriptwriter and the producers.
Emotional states underlying contradictions, disputes and behaviors of the characters and feelings of everyone living in the Harem, including the padishah, are presented in detail by the film crew. In addition, the thought that concepts such as power, greed, murder, and jealousy, which are always used to attract the viewers’ attention, also existed in a place like Harem makes the events even more interesting and intrigued. The main character, Hurrem Sultan has a very suitable personality as defined by various historical narrations for the cliché “vicious, greedy, intrigued woman” sought by television series.

The other woman characters that influence the events are Suleyman’s first wife Mahidevran, his sisters, Hatice Sultan and Shah Sultan, his daughter Mihrimah Sultan, his mother Ayşe Hafsa Sultan, his private servants and concubines Nigar, Gülşah, Gülşem, Afife Kalfa and Firuze. Male characters, however, are the shahzadahs (his sons), his closest friends, statesmen, and famous victories soldiers.

5.1 The ratio of the number of male to female characters

Depending on the data in the official website of the series, there are more female figures than male characters in the series when the guests and all the women in the Harem are counted. However, as far as influential and prolonged characters are concerned, the number of the main female characters is 11, while that of male main characters is 15. As was stated before, all these male characters are men in charge of governing the state, shahzadahs, and high ranking soldiers. However, female characters are women living in the Harem or managing the Harem, or the padishah’s relatives. Almost all of the female guests are the princesses of other countries, relatives of high ranking statesmen, minorities residing in the country, or slaves.

5.2 Personalities of women characters in main roles

The central character, Hurrem Sultan is an intelligent, ambitious, passionate, and brave woman. She is an important character who can do anything for power, and she takes on an effective role in state affairs.

Suleyman’s sisters Hatice and Shah Sultan also take every risk to manage the Harem and eliminate Hurrem’s power. Lies and intrigues of all kinds are used for this end. Mahidevran Sultan cooperated too, but after she is sent to Manisa, she can only support them from outside. Their common desire is to ascend the oldest Shahzadah Mustafa to the throne and thus discard Hurrem Sultan and the power she possesses. Hurrem Sultan’s daughter, who is involved in the story at a later stage, is not different from her mother. She has the same ambition, passion, and hatred. She enters this fight at a young age and does not hesitate to take part in all tricks of any kind.

Other women characters, most of whom are either fiction or historical figures with little information about whether they really existed, are not totally different from the main characters. Almost all the women in the Harem especially and private servants do not hesitate to betray their sultans, work for the other side, or become a part of many tricks and intrigues.

5.3 Effects of women on the relationship between men and on the course of events

As is explained in the section of ‘personalities of women characters in main roles’, almost all of both real and fiction female main characters are depicted as greedy, passionate women who can be merciless and involved in all affairs of any kind just for the sake of holding power. Every way including violence and murder is viewed as acceptable in their competition and their relations with men. In order to capture the Harem, Suleyman’s sisters and Hurrem Sultan have a fierce competition, and each side kidnaps the other and applies physical violence.

However, for Hurrem Sultan, the only competition field is not limited to this arena, but she also plays every trick to intervene in the state affairs. She is historically known to play an effective role in murdering Pargali Ibrahim Pasha, Suleyman’s best friend and grand vizier, and shahzadah Mustafa. She uses many statesmen including Rustem Pasha and struggles furiously to enthrone one of her sons and therefore be the only holder of the throne. She takes every chance to tempt Suleyman The Magnificent with her tricks and intrigues and plays an effective role at the government stage of the state.

Not only Hurrem Sultan but also Shah Sultan and Hatice Sultan are involved in the same greed and intrigues. After Hatice Sultan’s husband Pargali is murdered, her hatred to Hurrem grows up to such an extent as for the two sisters to declare a war on Hurrem. Shah Sultan also makes use of her husband Lütfi Pasha for her own interest. Each side places intruders in the other’s palaces, and private servants of the other side are used for information. Every woman character in the film is forced to take one side and does not go beyond being a tool for this conflict.
5.4 Representations of woman characters

Male characters such as Suleyman The Magnificent, Pargali Ibrahim Pasha, Shahzadah Mustafa, and Shahzadah Mehmet are depicted as calm, consistent, brave, successful, good, fair, and protective and their story is concentrated on issues such as state affairs and military achievements. Even the throne fight between the shahzadahs Mustafa and Mehmet is never voiced out between them, but on the contrary, both of them often emphasize that they are brothers. However, Hafsa Sultan, Mahidevran Sultan, Shah Sultan, Hatice Sultan, and especially Hurrem Sultan are viewed as women of greed for power who tempt men with their femininity, poison them, trap them, and blackmail them only to make their wishes come true. The throne, which is not made even a matter of an innocent talk between the shahzadahs, leads to most violent intrigues between women characters. It seems as if women are depicted to be responsible for all the vicious tricks in the palace, and all evil affairs are associated with them. Hidden or exposed sexuality of Harem fantasies is used as a tool for thrill, and the viewer watches the superior achievements and conquests made by men and the harem fights made by women. Various situations of muliebrity or women’s lives and other stories that fall outside the coverage of the men’s story are excluded from the film, and the emotional fluctuations and collapse of the women are superficially depicted only around wars and other games. Women are squeezed into certain types, and the story is conveyed from a masculine viewpoint.

6. Oyle Bir Gecer Zaman Ki

Another television series that draw attention by having a high rating is “Oyle Bir Gecer Zaman Ki”. The story starts in the late 1960’s and continues until 1980’s. While the film is mainly focused on events happening around Akarsu Family, social, political and economical affairs in Turkey are also conveyed. Ali Akarsu, who is regarded as the head of family, is a sailor and falls in love with a dutch woman named Caroline and cheats on his wife. Cemile, the wife of Ali Akarsu, learns this. Great difficulties and negative conditions caused by these situations leaves its marks on Cemile, Ali and their children which will shape the rest of their lives. Ali and Cemile’s older daughter Berrin, who is studying at university, their younger daughter, Aylin, who is studying in a high school, and their son Mete, who is at the same high school with Aylin feel that trauma deeply and their life stories are shaped under this effect. The youngest member of the family, 6-year old Osman is a person involved in and affected by all this process who observes the events, and the story is narrated by him from his own perspective. In this entire trauma, man-woman relationships and relationships of women with each other also have an important place.

In general, many clichés such as overlapping disasters, misunderstandings, lovers who can never come together, and the thought that the good always wins and the bad is destroyed in the end are repeated in this series which embodies the narrative characteristics of a melodrama. Among these repeated factors is a classical discrimination that divides women as absolute good and absolute bad (Femme Fatale).

6.1 The ratio of the number of male to female characters

When characters in the film are considered in general, the number of men is bigger than that of women, excluding the guest actors/actresses. While there are 18 man characters, there are only 12 woman characters. However, the number of characters that die and quit from the film is considerable. 8 men and 3 women left the series due to their deaths in the story.

6.2 Personalities of woman characters in main roles

The character of Cemile, one of the main characters, represents a woman who gives importance to traditional family life and tries to carry out her responsibilities in the patriarchal life system as a modest, loyal, easy-going, and honest wife and a devoted mother without questioning her gender role. Cemile and her children are frequently exposed to violence by Ali; but Cemile tries to form a link between her children and husband and hold her family together by thinking that Ali is a good person at heart and all his bad manners originate from a fractious personality of a father who loves his children very much. The violence that Ali commits is naturalized with the excuses that he does it for the good of his children, that he has a strict temperament by nature, and that Cemile does not satisfy him properly as a wife. Therefore, violence against women is not defined as a social problem, but as an individual issue.

The other woman character that is considered as exactly the opposite of Cemile in all manners is Caroline. Caroline, who is depicted as “foreigner” to values and cultures of the society, seducing, and a homewrecker “femme
and meet their lovers at the end of all difficulties. However, their happiness does not last long: Aylin dies while giving birth to her daughter and Ahmet, Berrin’s husband, is assassinated. In this regard, both of them are condemned to misery.

Other woman characters in the series are not different. Berrin and Aylin, Cemile’s daughters, have literally the same fate; both of them have to marry other men than their beloved ones. But, in spite of everything, they do not give up and meet their lovers at the end of all difficulties. However, their happiness does not last long: Aylin dies while giving birth to her daughter and Ahmet, Berrin’s husband, is assassinated. In this regard, both of them are condemned to misery.

The characters Neriman and Mesude, a mother-daughter representation, introduce another sample for relationships and envy between women. Jealous of Cemile and her daughters, Neriman and Mesude exclude and leave them out on streets even on their worst days though they are relatives. They feel happy every time Cemile and her daughters are in bad condition, and they often make plans for that. Thus, Neriman and Mesude come into existence as a reflection of the understanding that reduces women relationships into envy, hostility, and hatred.

6.3 Effects of women on the relationship between men and on the course of events

As defined in the personalities of woman characters, the relationship of woman characters that are created in the concept of good-bad conflict with men and their effect on the course of events are developing in that way. As seen in many of the stories, although men easily fall in love or leave their wives and children for their love, love for woman characters turns into an emotion that can be felt only when it is defined with loyalty as long as it does not conflict with the values of society and is secondary to her patriarchal responsibilities. Although Cemile, the absolute good of the story, tries to stand on her own feet after she is separated from Ali, she always overcomes the problems with the help of a man (fisherman, lawyer...etc. participated in the series later) and has relationships with men and get married without forgetting the expected behaviors from her, especially as a mother. On the other hand, Caroline lives all the relationships after Ali to provide personal gain. Although she has a son, she lives away from him for years, and Cemile who has to overcome all hardships becomes to one to take care of Caroline’s son in spite of all that Caroline has done.

These women characters play an important role not only in relationships with each other but in relationships between men. The fisherman that comes into Cemile’s life after Ali is formerly Ali’s friend but after he feels something to Cemile, things become reversed and he becomes the most hated enemy of Ali due to jealousy. Men in Caroline’s life show a different change. Caroline leaves Ali and has a relationship firstly with Kenan and then Ekrem. While all these men have a relationship with Akarsu family and want to take revenge, this situation grows even more violent after their relationship with Caroline. The question why Caroline has a relationship with them is answered at this point. When it is assessed from this point of view, the good woman characters in the story have a positive effect on men, while bad woman characters cause a disaster or death to men.

6.4 Representation of woman characters

In the story which is framed around the love factor between man and woman, the woman characters are stereotyped and women are represented as absolute good and absolute bad in traditional patterns. On the one hand, there are merciful, understanding, good wife, devoted mother, and at the same time modern looking women, but on the other hand there are ambitious, lustful, merciless women who are able to use femininity as a weapon in all manners. Cemile and her daughters are considered in the first group, while Caroline, Mesude and Neriman seem closer to the second. The games and plots of these women who can use femininity as a weapon to reach their goals increase their evilness and they find the punishment at the end of the story. Therefore, the message of being punished sooner or later against a bad behaviour is given and the first group woman is blessed and woman is locked into specific stereotypes.

In the story, the only common point of these women separated as absolute good and absolute bad in the story is that both groups are exposed to violence. Cemile is raped by Ali, but even in this condition she is told that Ali cannot forget her and reminded of being her ex-husband and father of her children. In this way, it is implied to the audience that sexual violence is ignorable and acceptable if it is committed by an ex-husband and after a while this situation is forgotten in the narrative. Not only Cemile, but also Aylin, Berrin, Caroline and many other woman characters are always exposed to violence by men. But all this violence is legitimizied with the excuses of chastity, envy, defense, punishment, social oppression, despair, protection of family, personal problems and women are expected to be understanding and patient,
show affection, be humble, ignore all the violence of men for the unity of family, obey by accepting the situation, and tame the men. Gender is rebuilt and legitimized through these created characters.

7. Conclusion

Partriarchal structure which is reproduced with either myths or fairy tales from our childhood, or mass communication media strengthens the position of woman in the direction of male-dominated point of view and uses any kind of device to provide the continuity of the structure. In the stories leaving the audience in the dilemma of fiction-reality through fictionalized characters in television series and events, the woman image is in an area circled by man property. Although the booming television series in Turkey in recent years break rating records and have technically made great innovations and progress, when story concepts are considered, it is seen that they cannot develop a different argument than current patterns of patriarchal system. The television series analyzed in this study, “Muhteşem Yüzül” and “Öyle Bir Geçer Zaman KI”, which rank first in rating reports, are among the television series that repeat the same patterns.

“Muhteşem Yüzül” is planned to tell the life of one of the most important sultans in Ottoman History; however, after a while events focus on another historical person, Hurrem Sultan and harem life. Even though Hurrem Sultan is known by historical records as ambitious, clever, and power-hungry woman, depicting women as conspiring creatures when men are fighting in battlefield heroically or dealing with state affairs indicates that patriarchal system is adopted strongly and is repeated through the story by featuring only harem cheats, palace plots, fatal rivalry of women and power fights during fictionalizing historically real characters or creating new characters. Not only historical realities but also fictionalized lives are told through conflicts between women, and a pile of plots of intrigues, beyond a real woman story, is showed to the audience. Thus, the idea of being secondary and treacherous is reinforced through conspirator, insidious women against sensitive, clever and heroic man.

Another television series we studied, “Öyle Bir Geçer Zaman KI”, is set in the recent history of Turkey; however, the melodramatic features of the series override the features of a series of a period. The woman characters are represented as devoted mother, wife etc., as well as femme fatales. When women are emphasized in a different pattern from a “devoted mother” and "loyal, good wife", they can only exist with their male-dominated identity and this point of view presents the woman as a passive, easily-obtained, sexual-desire object to view. The woman is locked in one of two types through a continuously repeated structure totally far away from being a realistic and multi-dimensional outlook. This approach, which reinforces patriarchal system, reflects woman from male perspective and womanhood is represented with accepted values in patriarchal system. The structure that narrates these values to provide continuity of society or to objectify woman body serves only for the reproduction, normalization, and legitimization of the existing system.

References

Perceptions from the Public and Private Sector on Trust and Cooperation in the Field of Environmental Management in Lebanon

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Abstract

This paper positions trust and cooperation in the context of environmental management in Lebanon. Previous studies indicated increasing environmental problems in this area. The effectiveness of the Lebanese government to address these challenges has been reported to be constrained by large varieties of factors. While ‘trust’ and ‘cooperation’ are referred to in literature, it is not systematically studied in the case of Lebanon. This paper assumes that trust and cooperation are reciprocal by nature. It identifies trust and cooperation as a necessary condition for effective environmental management that requires multi-stakeholder cooperation. Nonetheless, we acknowledge that this trust and cooperation relationship can and has been used by stakeholders to effectively obstruct measures and institutions that could reduce environmental problems. The findings are based on 49 structured and semi-structured interviews with public and private stakeholders plus discussions with citizens. In this study, and from the perspective of public and private sectors, we find that -while cooperation between stakeholders within the public sector, and between public and private sector are considered to be generally weak – trust (or the lack thereof) features less prominent in the explanation for this poor management than expected. On the other hands, respondents state that the extent to which citizens are likely to cooperate in environmental management (in terms of participation in joint activities, compliance with regulations, and adjusting behaviors) is related to trust relations of citizens in the governmental authorities and services they provide.

1. Introduction

Implementation of public programs is not possible without trust among stakeholders (Tyler 2003; Gilson 2003; Tsang, Burnett, Hills, & Welford 2009). Scholars refer to a strong link between trust and cooperation (Ferrin et al. 2007; Lundin 2007; Woolthuis 1999; Putnam 1993; Edelenbos & Erik-Hans 2007). Therefore, it is not surprising, that trust between stakeholders is perceived to be a necessary condition to overcome disagreements in environmental management (Tennberg 2007, p: 322). Trust explains, at least to some extent, why participants in various scenarios choose to cooperate or not (Ostrom and Walker 2003); and cooperation is said to be very important in a resource management process (Ostrom 2007).

Armed conflicts represent a particular threat to the environment. Not only because of direct impacts, but also due to the break-down of trust between different sectors and stakeholders who are involved in managing the country. Lebanon provides a suitable case study area to investigate the role of trust on environmental management in times of conflict because of repeated conflict in the area and lack of literature on the sensitive issue of trust relations (Ker Rault 2009; Allen 2011). Lebanon has been (from 1975) and still is –repeatedly- affected by various armed conflicts such as Lebanese’ Civil War, the Isreali war, the Nahr-el Bared Clashes, and the ongoing clashes in Tripoli; all these has caused social fragmentation (Bazzi 2007) leading to weak institutions and increased corruption. Although well recognized locally, but rarely mentioned in academic studies, lack of trust is characteristic of interactions between various actors in
Lebanese society (Ker Rault 2009:4; Allen 2011). According to Haddad, the violations and corruptions in Lebanon had resulted in a low level of trust in government and politicians (2002).

Environmental protection is considered very weak (IMAC 2009, p: 50)\(^1\) and country has been, and still is, threatened by environmental degradation associated with armed conflict (Maler 1990 in Takshe et al. 2010); human activities; and political and institutional weakness (IMAC 2007a). Specifically, the repeated disruption of public governance by conflict in Lebanon has prevented appropriate decisions and development of environmental protection laws, thereby exacerbating the damage (Bazzi 2009, Leenders 2012). Similarly, the enforcement of existing of environmental protection regulations and implementation of programs has been lagging behind (IMAC 2009, p: 50; MOE/UNDP/ECODIT 2011, p: 347). There is no one leading agency with overall responsibility for managing the environment and its resources (Abi Saab 2012, p: 4). It is argued that the legislative and organizational structures are many times overlapping with jurisdictions of the various stakeholders who are even not well defined (Abi Saab 2012, p: 4; IMAC 2007a: 8). Also, the national authorities are believed to be highly sectorial (IMAC 2007b, p: 8). There is neither master planning in Lebanon nor there is continuity in program development, implementation or even management; specifically each ministry has its own agenda (LCPS 1996). Although in Lebanon most of the public institutions that are involved directly or indirectly with the environmental protection have developed plans, strategies or programs, yet almost all have operated individually and the complementarily work between them is almost non-existent (Habib 2012, p: 275-6). This is affecting negatively the environmental programs since many of them are a long term programs. As a result, most if not all the Lebanese areas, lack the implementation for environmental management plans or initiatives (IMAC 2009, p: 50). All these threats not only negatively affect the environment, but also public health and economic development (Sarraf 2012).

1.1 Stakeholders in Environmental Management Processes

The environmental management process is defined in this research as the development of strategies or activities with the goal “to maintain and improve the state of an environmental resource affected by human activities” (Pahl-Wostl, C 2007, p: 561). Three broad categories of stakeholders are involved in environmental management process in Lebanon, whether directly or indirectly: stakeholders in the public sector, stakeholders in the private sector and citizens.

The environmental management process is primarily in public sector hands. At a national level, the public sector consists mainly of policy makers, ministries, government and its institutes (MOE/UNDP/ECODIT 2011, p: 19). Politicians, normally outside the public sector, are key-decision makers within the ministries and therefore included in our category of the public sector of Lebanon. At the local level it is the municipality, which is charged by law to oversee and implement environmental projects benefiting communities within its area of jurisdiction (IMAC 2007b, p: 70). Nevertheless, many public institutions at both local and national levels are administratively weak and are not able to implement developmental projects or provide adequate services to the citizens (Atallah 2012, p: 1, 3). In addition, and significantly, the private sector, which is considered a secondary stakeholder, also plays an important role in environmental planning and management in Lebanon (IMAC 2007a, p: 63). The private sector is defined broadly, to include private companies, but also academic or research centers, and experts to the extent these are being paid for their services\(^2\). Private companies work as consultants for the public sector, as contractors, or as providers of specific services, such as collecting solid waste or water supply. The public and private sector are closely related and, to some extent, interwoven. Various forms of ‘cooperation’ between the public and private sector in the environmental management are: (a) cooperation in project implementation, (b) cooperation through advisory work or consultation; (c) cooperation through contracting or (d) through service provision.

A number of ‘councils and funds’ play a key role in the disbursement of funds from public to private sector; and a number of joint-stock ventures were established. These funds, councils and joint-stock ventures have played a crucial

\(^1\) The Integrated Management of East Mediterranean Coastline (IMAC) overall objective is to stimulate sustainable development of coastal zones in Lebanon with positive effects for standard of living and ecosystem health. The importance of this project is that there is rarely if not no other similar projects implemented about this topic in this area specifically and Lebanon generally, http://www.balamand.edu.lb/english/IMAC.

\(^2\) In Lebanon, the academic and research centers and experts have a role also in the environmental management process. In fact, these centers play a role mainly as a consultation and implementing studies. Also experts, who work in private companies or Ngo’s or individually participate in environmental studies and work as consultant to both public or other private stakeholder.
role in rehabilitation and reconstruction of major infrastructure, and thereby have an impact on the environment. Last but not least, citizens can play a crucial role in the environmental management process through complying with laws and regulations, by volunteering in environmental initiatives, or by resisting new plans. The role of Environmental NGOs is still very limited in the North of Lebanon, and therefore not included as specific category.

2. Objective

The main objective of this article is to identify the perceptions of trust and cooperation relations (a) among the stakeholders in the public sector and (b) between the stakeholders in the public and private sector. Respondents are stakeholders in the public and private sector. Additionally, we identify their perception of citizens’ cooperation mainly the citizens’ compliance with laws, regulations and their participation (volunteering) in environmental initiatives. We explicitly relate this to trust. The research also aims to understand the main reasons behind these findings. There are two assumptions in this article. The first is that lack of trust among the stakeholders in public sectors or between the stakeholders in public and private sectors who are involved in the environmental management process is leading to low level of cooperation and constrains progress of planned projects, and sometimes removal or stopping of some projects (IMAC 2007a,p: 13). Second, is that lack of trust of citizens in the stakeholders of public or private sector is leading them to lack of compliance with environmental laws and regulations and to lack of participation in environmental activities. This also leads to many problems in implementing environmental management plans and programs. The outcomes will allow us to understand trust and cooperation relations in Lebanon, in the main sectors involved in the environmental management process, from the stakeholders of public and private sector viewpoint. This research identifies trust and cooperation as a necessary condition for effective environmental management that requires multi-stakeholder cooperation; keeping in mind the fact that some stakeholders in Lebanon successfully circumvent environmental regulations. These stakeholders use the “wasta” or links that is basically relying on their trust and cooperation with public authorities to effectively obstruct measures that could reduce environmental problems.

A total of 49 interviews containing both structured and open questions were implemented with the stakeholders of public and private sector involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon starting from September 2011 till December 2012. The paper is organized as follows. The next section 2 outlines general theories of trust and it relation to cooperation. The methodology is contained in Section 3. Section 4 presents and discusses the results to elucidate, from the public and private stakeholders’ perception, the trust and cooperation relations. The final section of this paper draws conclusions and recommendations.

3. Theoretical background

3.1 Definition of trust

In literature, there are many definitions for trust. A systematic review of academic literature on trust by Fulmer and Gelfand (2012, p: 1171) shows three dominant conceptualizations. Those that refer to ‘positive expectations of trustworthiness’, those that refer to a ‘willingness to accept vulnerability’, and those that refer to both. According to Fulmer and Gelfand, the positive expectations of trustworthiness are related to “perceptions, beliefs or expectations about the trustee’s intention and being able to rely on the trustee” while “willingness to accept vulnerability [which] generally refers to suspension of uncertainty (Möllering 2006) or an intention or a decision to take risk and to depend on the trustee” (Fulmer and Gelfand 2012, p. 1171). This study adopted as a conceptual definition of trust that of Morton Deutsch that could be applied for various actors mainly the citizens, public and private sectors: “To trust another person/organization to produce a beneficial event X [add:] or to provide a service, an individual/organization must have confidence that the other individual/organization has ability and intention to produce it” (adjusted from Deutsch 1960, p: 125). Although this definition may seem to be outdated, we found it is still valid and applicable on the various stakeholders involved in the environmental management in Lebanon. This definition was communicated with the people who were interviewed. This definition focuses on specific expectations of trustworthiness, as it refers to ability, to benefits (the event or service provided), and to the intention of the trustee (benevolence to do well). It refers to expectations of trustworthiness (the first dominant conceptualization), but not to the willingness to accept vulnerability (the second

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3 Stakeholders involved in environmental management
dominant conceptualization).
This definition can be positioned within Social Exchange Theory (Axelrod 1984; Deutsch 1958): citizens are willing to comply with rules and regulations, to adjust their behavior, if and when they have confidence in private or public sector organizations to be able to produce a beneficial event or to provide beneficial services. According to this research one of the means to have confidence is to build trust relations. Similarly, actors in the private sector are willing to invest in cooperation with organizations in the public sector or with actors in the political domain, when they expect this relation will be beneficial on the short, medium or long term.4

3.2 Trust and cooperation

Trust and cooperation are reciprocated by nature. Scholars have stated that trust, at various levels, enhances cooperation (Ferrin et al. 2007; Lundin 2007; Woolthuis 1999; Edelenbos & Erik-Hans 2007, etc.). One of the reasons for that is that parties recognize and feel bound by certain values such as fairness, cooperation, and reciprocity; this will encourage these parties to have more cooperation among each other (Koeszegi 2004; Parkhe 1993). In other word, a party who has earned another’s trust will feel bound to that trust and will work to honor it and as a result will behave cooperatively rather than competitively toward the other (Ferrin et al. 2007, p:477). On the other hands, as observed by Ferrin et al, one of the means to develop mutual trust perceptions can be based on cooperative behaviors. These behaviors are said to play a significant intervening role by transmitting one party’s trust perceptions to another (Ferrin et al 2008, p: 171). In other words, according to Ferrin et al, there is clear evidence that cooperation “is a critical intervening variable in the development of mutual trust perceptions between individuals and groups” (2008, p: 171). This research shows that in order to improve the environmental management in Lebanon, it is vital to improve the trust relations between the stakeholders involved; thus leading to more cooperation and reciprocity. This in return will develop the mutual trust perceptions among these multi-stakeholders.

3.3 “Wasta” concept and its relation to trust

In Lebanon as in many other Middle Eastern societies, ‘cooperation’ has two faces: one that improves chances of successful implementation of policies and programs; and one that seems to achieve the opposite. The cooperation between some stakeholders takes also place through a practice that is referred to as ‘wasta’: an “implicit social contract, which obliges those within the group to provide assistance (favorable treatment) to others within the group” (Barnett et al 2013, p: 2). Smith et al. describe it as “the process whereby one can achieve goals through links with key persons in positions of high status (Smith et al. 2012, with reference to Cunningham & Sarayrah 1993). Barnett et al. argue that, in the Middle East, “it [wasta] is deeply embedded in the fabric of these societies and visible in everything from the way in which governments interact with businesses to the way in which public policy is formulated” (Barnett et al. 2013, p: 41). Similar to trust, wasta lowers the transaction costs and improves chances of successful cooperation – also when this is counterproductive for environmental protection5. According to Cunningham & Sarayrah (1993) the wasta is not limited to a particular sector of human interactive. In other words, this paper distinguishes between the trust and cooperation relationship that is positively affecting the environmental management, and by the fact that some stakeholders use the “wasta” which is based on trust and cooperation relations with public authorities, to successfully circumvent environmental regulations. Thus, this can reflect the negative manifestation of trust and cooperation relationship on the environmental management in Lebanon.

3.4 Trust and endurance of organizations:

As stated by Barnard, it is mentioned that cooperation is considered crucial for the endurance of organizations (1938). Also, it is stated by scholars such as Kounzes and Posner, that trust which is at the heart of collaboration is a crucial and central issue in relationships within and outside organizations (2002, p: 244). Organizational trust in organizations can

4 Other theories that explain trust across organizational levels are: social information processing theory; attribution theory; embeddedness theory; social identity theory, cultural theory and performance based theory. We refer to Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) for a discussion of these theories.

5 Many of such examples are described in Leenders, 2012, in particular on the quarry industry, waste management and reconstruction.
reduce transaction costs, increase the willingness to cooperate and ensure continuous cooperation. It enhances partnership performance, and encourages innovation. At the same time, however, it can also result in ethnically questionable transactions (Fulmer and Gelfand 2012, p: 1181-1183). This research shows that trust and cooperation are both important and crucial for the relationship within and outside the public and/or public organizations that are involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon. It identifies trust and cooperation as a necessary condition for effective environmental management that requires multi-stakeholder cooperation.

In short, many scholars have discussed the relationship between trust and cooperation. This research will use these theories to explain the results found and will stress on the importance of this relation among the various stakeholders involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon. The next section will explain the methodology and method used in this research.

4. Methodology

Most of the data used in this article is gathered from a primary source. Only few are from secondary data and literature. The primary data gathered is from 49 interviews conducted with public and private sector stakeholders who are involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon.

4.1 The Interviews:

To begin with, most of the interviews made were personal, only few were made by email. To schedule the interviews, all the interviewees were contacted either by phone or by email. A letter was sent to all of them either by fax or email to explain the purpose of these interviews and a draft of the interview questions was attached. Then a follow up contact was made with each interviewee to schedule the time, date and place of the interview based on the interviewee’s preference.

The interviews were both structured and semi-structured interviews. To begin with, in the structured interviews, first all the interviewees were asked the same questions and in the same order. The answers were in the form of rating scales mainly 5 likert scale measurement for example: ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Sometimes in the analysis phase, these 5 scale measurements were summed up into 2 scale only example: 0 (disagree) and 1 (agree). These predetermined answer-rating scales increase the reliability across interviews and the objectivity of judging the interviewee’s responses (Campion et. al 1988, p: 28). Also to justify the content validity of assessment procedures, it is crucial to make the scoring system explicit (Sackett 1987). In other words, the structured form interview insures that all the interviews are assessed accurately. Also, to enhance consistency, the same interviewer was used in all these interviews. All the questions asked in these interviews were to study to what extent the interviewees believe there is trust and cooperation between the various stakeholders involved in the environmental management process.

The semi-structured interview was selected as the mean to collect the remaining data for the following reasons. First of all, this method is said to be well suited for exploration of the perceptions and believes of the interviewers regarding sensitive and complex issues (Barriball & While 1994) such as trust. Also it allows searching for more information and clarification of answers by asking open ended questions such as why there is or isn't trust between the public and private sector involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon? Etc. Also by asking same questions that is with the same wordings and sequence to all the interviewees we can be sure that the differences in the answers are due to difference opinions among the interviewees and not due to the differences in the questions asked (Barriball & While 1994, p:330). This research also made sure that all interviewees have shared a common vocabulary and meanings for the key words. This is very important for the researcher not to misunderstand the interviewees answers and thus to analysis better in an objective way especially if we want to compare the perception of different interviewees (Denzin 1989), as this article is doing, on a complex issue like trust which can have many meanings.

Before the interviews were conducted, a pilot test was implemented. Accordingly, some of the questions of these interviews were amended and adjusted for accuracy and simplicity as to have its final form. From the 49 interviewees that were contacted, only few interviews were not implemented due to refusal or lack of interest of the interviewees. In general, the data was collected by sectors starting from September 2011 till December 2012. In the public sector, the main stakeholders that were interviewed were representatives of the municipalities, ministries, and public institutes that are involved in the environmental management process. There were 24 interviews conducted with presidents or
representatives of presidents of the municipalities from the target area. Also interviewed were conducted with representatives of seven ministries that are mostly involved in the environmental management in Lebanon: ministry of Environment, ministry of Interior and Municipality, ministry of Energy and Water, ministry of Agriculture, ministry of Health and ministry of Public works and Transportation. As for the public institutes, only few were interested in having an interview; those were the Council for development and reconstruction, High Relief Council, & Tripoli Environment & Development Observatory.

On the other hand, in the private sector, the main stakeholders that were interviewed were representatives of the private companies, academic and research centers, and experts in environment. As for the private companies these mainly included the consultant companies and the ones that provide services. Five interviews were conducted with the following: Lavajet, ECODIT, MORES, ELARD and CRI. In addition, this research tried to interview some industrial factories (five companies) since it is believed that the industrial sector is one of the important sectors that are having a negative impact on the environmental of the area (IMAC 2007a, p: 35-36). Nevertheless, only one accepted to have an interview. As for the research and academic centers, interviews were conducted with only three centers that accepted to do interviews: Water Energy & Environment Research Center at NDU, The Energy Research Group at AUB and CREEN at USJ. Also experts in different environmental issues were interviewed. Twelve have been contacted but only six accepted or were interested to do interviews. It was generally noticed that some private sector were not willing or able to participate in the interviews; according to some the data they have is confidential.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Trust and cooperation relations among stakeholders of public sector:

The interviewees were asked to give their opinion about the following statement: “From your experience, how can you evaluate the cooperation among the public stakeholders involved in the environmental management process (local and national)?” the following results were found. To begin with, in the public sector, 22 out of 34 public stakeholders stated that the cooperation among the public stakeholders involved in the environmental management process is a weak one (15 out of 24 municipalities, 5 out of 7 ministries and 2 out of 3 public institutes). Similarly, all of the private stakeholders’ interviewees perceive that this cooperation is also weak (6 private companies, 3 academic and research centers and 6 experts). One the other hands, literature has mentioned the important role of cooperation in developing mutual trust between groups (Ferrin et al 2008, p: 171), in endurance the public institutes and organizations (Kounzes and Posner 2002, p: 224), and in improving resource management process (Ostom 2007). According to the perception of stakeholders of public and private sector this research reveals that there is a weak cooperation among the stakeholders of public sector and this is affecting negatively the trust relations, the endurance of the public institutes and the environmental management process of this area.

5.1.1 What are the reasons behind this weak cooperation?

When the interviewers were asked an open question why they believe there is a weak cooperation within public stakeholders? The following reasons were stated. To begin with the public sector, the main reasons that were mentioned by the ministries were the lack of trust among the different parties involved, lack of continuous cooperation only limited to specific projects, lack of good citizenship, the absence of monitoring, weakness of government, and lack of budget and human resources. Also as for the public institutes, only one has answered this question by stating that the lack of planning for the future and the personal interest are the main reasons behind the weak cooperation among the public stakeholders . On the other hand, from the private sector perception, according to the private companies the main reasons that were stated were the war and conflicts, lack of communication, exchange of knowledge and enforcement of applicable regulations, the conflict of interest in terms of responsibilities, effect of private interests of certain decision makers, and the conflicting mandates and the political tensions. As for the academic and research centers, the main reasons that were stated were the conflict, competition on powers and the lack of implementations of laws by some stakeholders. Also different experts have stated different reasons. Some has stressed on the long history of weak cooperation to be one of the factors that are leading to this weak cooperation. This point is also confirmed by many scholars (Ferrin et al 2007p:480; Pilisuk & Skolnick 1968). Also other reasons were mentioned by other experts mainly the consideration of certain ministries to be of higher power than other stakeholders, the desire of every stakeholder to be the first in charge of any plan, project, strategy and decision , the lack of team work spirit, the overlapping in authorities or terms of references between stakeholders, the personal interest, the corruption and the different political affiliation, and
the lack of commitment and responsibility within the employees in the public institutes.

Therefore, both the public and private stakeholders have mentioned many reasons behind this weak cooperation, one of which is trust. To focus on this point, the interviewees were asked to state their opinion about the following statement: “Do you agree that this cooperation among the public stakeholders involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon is related to trust relations?” the following results were found. First of all, according to the stakeholders of the public sector 22 out of 34 of the public stakeholders stated that they agree that the cooperation is related to trust relation (15 out of 24 municipalities, 5 out of 7 ministries and 2 out of 3 public institutes). This answer can be confirmed also by many scholars (Ferrin et al. 2007; Ferrin et al. 2008, p: 168; Koeszegi 2004). Thus, one of the factors that able us to have more cooperation is by working on building more trust.

On the other hand, the data analysis showed that the private sector perception regarding this issue was somehow different. In fact results showed that 2 out 6 private companies “agreed” and 3 out of 6 “disagreed” and one answered “don’t know”. Also, 2 out of 3 academic and research centers and 4 out of 6 experts answered that they disagree on this statement. In other words, data analysis showed that 9 out of the 15 private stakeholders disagree that the cooperation among the public sector stakeholders is related to trust. In fact many of the private interviewees as shown before, from the information gathered in the interviews, related weak cooperation to other factors such as war, private interests of the decision makers, political tensions, lack of implementations of laws, overlapping in authorities, corruption, etc. Although trust feature less prominent than expected in the explanation of the weak cooperation and thus poor management, yet this research shows that some of these other factors mentioned can be directly or indirectly related to trust. For example, in literature scholars state that there is a strong link between war or arm conflicts and trust (Takshe el al. 2010).

5.2 Trust and cooperation relations between stakeholders of public and private sector:

The interviewees were asked to give their opinion on the following statement: “From your experience, how do you evaluate the cooperation between the stakeholders of public and the private sectors involved in the environmental management process?”, and the following results were found. First from the stakeholders of public sector’s perspective, 23 out of 34 public stakeholders stated that the cooperation between the public and private stakeholders involved in the environmental management process is a weak one (18 out of 24 municipalities, 2 out of 3 of the other public institutions, and 3 out of 7 ministries). On the other hand, according to the private sector interviewees, results showed that 10 out of 15 private stakeholders perceived that there is a weak cooperation between the public and private stakeholders involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon (3 out of 6 private companies, 3 out of 3 academic and research centers and 4 out of 6 experts). Thus, the perception that there is a weak cooperation between the public and private stakeholders involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon was confirmed from both the public sector and private sector interviewers. This research reveal that this weak cooperation between the stakeholders of the main sectors involved in the environmental management process is affecting badly the environmental management process; this idea is confirmed in literature (Ostrom 2007). Why is that? This research shows that this weak cooperation is affecting negatively the trust relation between stakeholders of these two sectors since it is claimed that one of the means to develop mutual trust perceptions can be based on cooperative behaviors (Ferrin et al. 2008). This is reflected badly on the environmental management’s programs and plans in Lebanon.

5.2.1 What are the reasons behind this weak cooperation?

When the interviewees were asked as an open question to state why they believe there is weak cooperation between stakeholder of public and private sector, the following reasons were stated. To begin with the public sector, the main reasons that were stated by the ministries were mainly the weak administration and moody in dealing in the public sector, the fact that the private sector is stronger nowadays than the public sector, the lack of compliance of laws by some sectors, the limitation of cooperation to specific projects, the lack of trust of the private sector in the public sector, and the lack of budget and human resources in the public entities. As for the public institute, only one of the interviewees has an answer to this question; and the main reason for this weak cooperation according to it was the lack of agreement among the various stakeholders. On the other hand, from the private interviewees’ perception, according to the private companies, the main reasons were the deficiency and weakness in the municipality organization; the lack of cooperate with the request and demands of this private company, and the lack of trust of the private sector in the public sector. As for the academic and research centers, the main reasons mentioned were the fact that there is no real environmental management process in Lebanon, the lack of trust of the private sector in the public sector, the lack of expertise in human resources or financial resources in public sector, the lack of willing of the public sector to cooperate with the private sector.
sector. Furthermore, the experts perceived the main reasons to be lack of trust relations, the bureaucratic system and the lack of motivation among the public sector, the slow pattern for work movement in the public versus the fast pattern along the private sector, the availability of profession and know –how in private sector which is not corresponding available in many cases in the public sector. Nevertheless, still some experts believe that there is a strong cooperation between the public and private sector mainly because of common interest. It is stated that public funds and consult private sector for better skills, and private sector cooperate and work with the public sector for money and to open network.

In other words, the answer of the public and private stakeholders to the open question explained many reasons behind this weak cooperation, one of which is the lack of trust. To focus on this point more, the interviewers were asked to give their opinion on the following statement: “Do you agree that this cooperation between the public and the private sectors involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon related to trust relations?”, and the following results were found. To begin with the public sector interviewees, 16 out of 24 municipalities and 5 out of 7 ministries agreed on this statement; while 2 out of 3 public institutes answered that they “don’t know”. In total, 21 out of 34 of the public stakeholders stated that they agree that the cooperation between the public and private stakeholders is related to trust relation. On the other hand, from the private sector stakeholders’ perception, the results showed that 9 out of the 15 private stakeholders also agreed on this statement (3 out 6 private companies, 2 out of 3 academic and research centers and 4 out of 6 experts). In other words, both the public and private sector interviewees agreed that the cooperation between the public and private stakeholders involved in the environmental management in Lebanon is related to trust relations. This result can be confirmed by many scholars (Ferrin et al. 2007; Lundin 2007; Edelenbos & Erik- Hans 2007; Koeszegi 2004; Parke 1993). Thus, based on the public and private stakeholders’ perspective, this research claims that building trust relation between the public and private stakeholders is essential for having more cooperation among these multi-stakeholders and thus having a more successful decisions, developmental plans or environmental projects. This research agrees with Kounzer and Posner that trust is crucial for relationships within and outside organizations (2002). Also this article reveals that trust and cooperation are both central for the relationship within and outside the public and/or public organizations that are involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon.

There are two other statements asked in the interviews that were used to confirm this idea. The first is “from your experience do you agree that the more we have trust, among the public and/or private sectors involved in the environmental management process, the more we will have cooperation between them?” And the second is “if you have trust and cooperation among the stakeholders involved in decision making, then more and better decisions will be taken regarding environmental management process in Lebanon”. In both statements 34 out of 34 public and 14 out of 15 private interviewees answered that they agree.

5.3 To what extent the citizen cooperation with the environmental management initiative is related to trust?

When the interviewees were asked to give their opinion about statement: “Do you agree that the level of cooperation of the citizens involved with an environmental management initiative is related to the extent of trust between the citizens and the implementing agency (entity)?” the following result was found. To begin with the public sector perception, 17 out of 24 of the municipalities, 7 out of 7 of the ministries and 2 out of 3 of the public institutions agreed on this statement. On the other hands, in the private sector 5 out of 6 private companies, 2 out of 3 academic and research centers and 4 out of 6 experts also agreed on this statement. Thus, the majority of the public stakeholders (26 out of 34) and the private stakeholders interviewed (11 out of 15) agree that the level of cooperation of the citizens involved with an environmental management initiative is related to the extent of trust between the citizen and the entity that is implementing this initiative. This result can be explained again by many scholars who claim that there is a link between trust and cooperation (Ferrin et al. 2007; Woolthuis 1999; Edelenbos & Erik- Hans 2007). In other words, this research shows that in Lebanon, it is essential to develop more trust relations between the citizens and the public or private sectors involved in the environmental management process, in order to have more citizen participation in the environmental management activities.

Moreover, when the interviewees were asked to reply to statement: “From your experience, do you agree that the decisions that are given by a person that people trust are implemented more often than when given by a person that people doesn't trust?”, a common answer was found between the public and private stakeholders. In fact, all the 49 interviewees agreed on this statement. In other words, based on the public and private interviewees’ perspective, this research agrees with the Social Exchange theory and deduced that in order to make the citizen cooperate and comply the environmental laws or decisions, we need to work on building more confident and trust relations between them and the decision makers. This research stress the importance of citizen cooperation for improving the environmental management process in Lebanon mainly in terms of participation in joint activities, compliance with regulations, and
adjusting behaviors.

5.4 Trust and cooperation’s negative effect on environment management:

This research also acknowledge that this trust and cooperation relationship with certain public authorities can and has been used particular by some stakeholders to effectively obstruct measures and institutions that could reduce environmental problems. When doing interviews with the ministries’ representatives, some of the interviewees stated that it is known that some citizens or private sectors usual use their “wasta” to make policemen turn their eyes on their disobedience or lack of compliances for a certain laws. This is a good example that illustrates how trust and cooperation can be used because of a common interest to obstruct measures that could reduce environmental problems. This point was also confirmed by other scholars who also talked about the wasta concept and how it is embedded deeply in the fabric of many Middle Eastern societies one of which is Lebanon (Barnett et al. 2013, p: 41). In fact, literature also mentions other examples of the negative manifestations for trust and cooperation relation on the environmental management in Lebanon. The solid waste management can be a good case to illustrate this issue. Although some reports claim that Beirut city can collect its own waste about half the coast charged by the private companies, yet these reports were chosen to be ignored (Antoun et al. 1998, p: 79; Wakim 1998, p: 157). Leenders has mentioned that some private companies that deal with solid waste management in Lebanon use their trust and cooperation relationships with some Lebanese political leaders or public institutes to get a certain agreement with the government or to renew its initial agreement (2012 p:55,56). In fact, according to Michael al Murr, a previous interior minister, 70 % of a certain company went as a commission to top leaders in the government (Daily Star 21 July 2003 in Leenders 2012,p: 56). Sometimes these private companies give the leaders a controlling stake in the companies too (Leenders 2012, p: 57). In other words, the private companies that deal with solid waste management trust the leaders, because of personal interest and financial benefit, to cooperate with them and assist them in taking certain agreements and contracts with the government. This was confirmed by a manager of a private company who stated that politics goes very well with garbage business you have to build trust and close relations with politicians in order to enter that area and they want a service from you in return (Daily Star 13 April 1999 in Leenders 2012, p: 57).

6. Conclusion

To sum up, this article shows that in Lebanon, the stakeholders of public and private sector perceive that there is weak cooperation among the stakeholders of public sector and between the stakeholders of public and private sector involved in the environmental management process. Also many reasons were found to affect this weak cooperation. This research found that lack of trust is perceived mainly by the private sector to be less prominent than expected in the explanation for the weak cooperation especially that is found among the public sector. In fact, many of the private sector interviewees linked the weak coordination to other different reasons such as corruption, overlapping authorities, lack of implementation of laws, war, etc. Nevertheless, this research argues that some of these factor can be linked directly or indirectly to trust. Also this research showed that both public and private sector interviewees agree that the level of cooperation of the citizens involved in the environmental management initiatives is related to the extent these citizens trust the implementing agency or entity. In other words, this research identifies trust and cooperation as a necessary condition for effective environmental management that requires multi-stakeholders. Nonetheless, this research acknowledges and shows that this trust and cooperation relationship has been used by some stakeholders to effectively obstruct measures that could reduce environmental problems. This issue was also support in literature.

Because of the repeated conflict in the area, Lebanon is considered to be an interesting case study to investigate the role of trust on the environmental management in times of conflict. Rarely academic studies have mentioned the lack of trust although it is believed to be characteristic of interactions between various actors in Lebanese society (Ker Rault 2009:4; Allen 2011). Nevertheless, in Lebanon information about lack of enough environmental protection and weak environmental management process do exist (IMAC 2007a; Abi Sab 2012; Sarraf et al. 2004). This researched has reveals that trust and cooperation relationship between the various stakeholders involved in the environmental management process in Lebanon is one of the factors that are affecting this environmental management process.

This article agrees with Mwangi who argues that the possibility to tackle environmental problems requires trust and cooperation between different actors (2000, p: 78). Both the assumptions raised in this article were proven to be right. In other words, based on the perception of public and private interviewees, this article shows that lack of trust, whether it is within the stakeholders of public sector, between the stakeholders of public and private sectors or by the citizen toward the stakeholders of public or private sector, is affecting negatively the environmental management process in Lebanon.
Thus, in order to improve the environmental management, it is vital to work on enhancing the trust and cooperation relations among the various stakeholders involved in this process. Nevertheless, this article recommends these various stakeholders to keep in mind what some scholar argues that trust is slow to grow and easy to break (Beratan 2007; Gray et al 2012). This research doesn’t claim that trust and cooperation relationships are the only reason behind lack of environmental management process in Lebanon; nor does it argue that trust is the only reason that boosts cooperation. However, this article reveals that according to the public and private interviewees, trust indeed can have a vital effect and play a significant role in the environmental management process in Lebanon. This article is part of a larger research which is generally studying the trust relations and its effect on the environmental management process in Lebanon from different perceptions. It recognizes itself as a pilot test suggesting and encouraging future researches in the same field to conduct similar researches or comparative perspective on multiple areas studies not only in different area in Lebanon but also in other countries.

References


Corruption as a Barrier for Foreign Direct Investment

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Abstract

Corruption is a horrible negative phenomenon which affects directly states economical development and every populations social prosperity. Corruption is found specifically in those states in transition and in those states that are dealing with unstable political stability. Seeing Kosovos current economical situation, which is not a glorified situation, and the obligatory need for foreign investments, i find it reasonable to contribute through this work for solving this problem and to attract as much as possible foreign investors.

In this work i will try to answer these questions:

- In what kind of forms is corruption shown in Kosovo?
- How is this phenomenon affecting at foreign investors?
- How do we fight this phenomenon and how do we attract these foreign investors that are so important for our states development?

The main purpose of this work is my personal concern about Kosovos actual economical state and foreign investors departure as a consequence of corruption. I will try to present some recommendations for the solution of this problem. For this work i will insure researches from conversations with some local business, different official institutions and some compatriots who are interested to invest in Kosovo. I will try to give this work theoretical and practical values, and to make it as more convenient and feasible as possible for all those who are interested to give even the smallest help to fight the corruption in general and to attract Foreign Direct Investments in our country, as a good chance toward enhancement and states economical development.

Keywords: Corruption, Investment, Economy, Economical Development.

1. Foreign Investments in Kosovo

"With Direct Foreign Investments we understand the capital investments in economic subjects outside our country that intend to direct and control the entrepreneurship of these subjects", says (Berisha, 2000). Kosovo is an appropriate place to invest and it has a lot of subterranean fortune, but same as a lot of countries that are in transition, we dont have the financial and technological equipments to process and use these fortunes. Kosovos government is inviting and trying all the time to create appropriate conditions to other countries which has known Kosovo, to motivate they business to invest in Kosovo. Recently our country is being supported by Turkey in the economical field. Turkeys support is really important because as we know some turkish well-known companies are part of Kosovos projects as: Bechtel-Enka, that is building the Ibrahim Rugova highway, then the International Airport of Pristina “Adem Jashari”, which is the only one in Kosovo and it is managed from turkish company Limak-Lion, also the winner of KEK-s distribution is the turkish company Çalik-Limak. So, Turkeys support is present in every section, from the bank section then to the agricultural section, turism and at last the cooperation between Kosovo and Turkey has resulted with “the agreement for the protection of investments” and we wait soon for the agreement of the “Free Comerce” between Kosovo and Turkey. However Kosovo still needs foreign investments and this has to be achieved by presenting and creating the appropriate conditions to the foreign potential companies for investment which our country offers in different sections of economy.

2. The importance of direct foreign investments in Kosovo

The direct foreign investments have a very unique and specific importance for Kosovo takin into account the actual state of economy and the conditions in which the economical development of Kosovo has to be realised.

Even though the statistics show an increasment of Kosovos economy, the high scale of unemplyement, the lack of the function of factories and the lack of budget for capital investments in our country shows that we need to work hard to
motivate foreign investments. (Kristo, 2002) says that: “In lack of self accumulation, through direct foreign investments, we assure the necessary capital for the realisation of different developmental projects”. Foreign investments have an important role in the economical developmental of Kosovo, watching the lack of financial, technical and technological equipments. According to (Kristo, 2004), “The role of foreign investments is seen in the technological transfer which includes not only the insertion of softwers in the market, but also the technical and the habits of its use.”

Except the increasment of the number of employees, it is also important the advance of our employees and their preparation to work in our country with Europian standards. From these investments also the local companies can develope cooperating with these firms and by using them as an exemple of work and modern managment and by practising that form of managment in their companies.

According to (Musabelli, Kërqini dhe Bejko, 2012), "Through practise of modern management the local companies increase their chance to entrance in the international market because the directors of the high levels increase the opportunity of companies success. "This can best seen from Kosovo’s governments projects for the building of the highway in which is working the foreign company “BECHTEL-ENKA SH.P.K” which except the high number of kosovarian employees,these companies have become the model of work and management for a lot of local business. Watching the big importance of foreign investments in the economical development of our country, i think it is time for our institutions to work more for the promotion of Kosovo as an appropriate state for investment which creates every condition for the attraction of foreign investors.

3. Factors that prohibit Foreign Investments in Kosovo

Except the importance that direct foreign investments have in our country, we still have a lot to do to create the appropriate conditions to attract these foreign investors.

According to the report (Central Bank Of Kosovo, 2013), the financial crisis in a lot of countries in Europe, has affected in the decrease of direct foreign investments in Kosovo. However, it is not only the global crisis that has reflected in the decrease of investments. According to experts of economy, in this decrease has contributed also the lack of law and the high level of corruption and organised crime.

During a conversation with compatriots who are known for their activity mostly in Germany and Switzerland i saw that exist more negative factors that are prohibiting their investments in Kosovo. The main factor which is prohibit foreign investors to choose Kosovo to invest their fortune, it is the high level of corruption and organised crime, because they don’t want to risk their self and their money. Other negative factors are: high takses, political stability, unfaithful competition, high duties, the bad execution of laws to protect the investors, problems with energy etc.

According to (Progress report for Kosovo, 2011) “Corruption in Republic of Kosovo, for five years of independence as a state, it is very diffused and its affecting very bad in the economic, politic and social stability”. Corruption as a negative factor for investment, is being mentioned almost everyday from top brass of government, but they are not doing anything concrete to fight this phenomenon. Concerning it is the fact that in every institution is being discussed for a high level of corruption, however, no one is being prosecuted for this and not knowing who is corrupted. According to (Latifit, 2011) all these facts impose the thought that “The country maybe by tolerating and not fighting the corruption, becomes a total corrupt system, and this kind of crime not only “legalizes” it , but also protects the mecanisms of the state”. The report of the Central Bank of Kosovo, shows that from the year 2011 until the end of the year 2012 foreign investments have decreased from 53.4%. This decrease of foreign investments represent a very big preoccupation knowing that a lot of investors are leaving Kosovo, while sendin their investments in neighbor countries of Kosovo.

Kosovos authority must engage and show as more political motivation as possible to fight corruption and organised crime, phenomenon which on contrary is being amplified in the north Kosovo. This phenomenon is reflecting bad in our country, and prohibiting every process and the economic development from which depends the stability and the future of our country.

4. How and when appears corruption in Kosovo

Corruption as a negative phenomenon is very complicated, and it appears in every section of social-state section in our country. Almost in every institution of Kosovo you can meet very easy corrupted top brass. This is an ugly disturbing truth, but in my opinion it is even more disturbing that in one way Kosovos population accepts it and helps corruption to develop every day, while making a habit to finish their duties by corrupting different officials. Recently it became almost legalized for business of Kosovo to apply on different projects and to calculate 10% for the officials, or else it was very difficult to win. As regards employment in public institutions, you can only watch how many people are hired by giving bribe and who
have familiar persons in positions and how many are rejected even if they have the right criteria for the job. This shows that corruption and organized crime is suffocating the economic development of the country and it is the main reason which is putting away foreign investors in Kosovo.

The most usual forms in which corruption appears in Kosovo are: taking bribe, the acceptance of different gifts in exchange of official services, officials taking profits from projects, the profits of fortunes, money purification etc.

According to the recent report of (Freedom House, 2013) the level of corruption in Balkanic places, especially in Kosovo has increased obviously. From this report we can see that Kosovo needs a very strong dedication to fight this phenomenon in every institutional sector. There can be a cooperation between justice organs, police, civils by not only rejecting corruption but also by reporting it to the competent organs.

To fight the corruption in our country we are being supported also by international organisations that act in and outside the country, especially recently Eulexs mission, addressed in Kosovo from year 2008 that is competent and is monitoring the feasibility of law, is investigating and judging penal acts of corruption in Kosovo, that is caused from top brass of our institutions.

5. Conclusions and recommendations

By everything that is said we came in a conclusion that there are many factors that are prohibiting direct foreign investments in Kosovo. The main factors as corruption and organised crime that are prohibiting direct foreign investments in our country, are strongly advanced that has become very hard to fight it. Now that Kosovo needs urgently foreign investments and we know the problem why they became stuck, i think, it is time that the government of Kosovo together with Eulex and other independent institutions to act seriously to fight the corruption and the organised crime to create safety and good conditions for foreign investors.

Disturbing is the fact that in Kosovo you assume that international organisations that fight corruption are not doing their job by lasting their consecutive mandate and by rationalizing their posturing in Kosovo with the reason that they need to execute the law in our country.

I think that if there were a good motivation of these international organisations of anticorruption in Kosovo there wouldnt me to this negative phenomenon for our economy and society in general. This thought is because International Organisations of anticorruption have different experiences from other Europe countries that have crossed the transition, and they can easily use the same most succesful model of one of these countries, to help Kosovo for a healthy economical and political development.

We as a population need to become aware of one's self if we want to have a developed state and economy we shouldnt have corruption in our society, we need to bring or create a loyal judgemental process to fight this bad phenomenon that is suffocating our economical development. The lack of strategies to fight corruption is causing prohibitons and delays in defining and eliminating this phenomenon of our society, the neglection of the enormous number of cases is not so good for Kosovos future.

I think that the best thing that our government can do to support the Foreign Investments in Kosovo is to improve the general climate of investment, while offering services and by motivating foreign investors to invest in Kosovo, while removing the duties for different investments in machineries that are brought from outside the country, while offering social lands with good conditions for investors to invest for different factories, while making it safe and by protecting their investments, by reducing the takses in general for foreign investors also for small local business because this way it will motivate companies to pay the takses, by holding on to the convenient politics and by promoting Kosovo as an appropriate and safer place to invest.

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Social Media and Marketing: Viral Marketing

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Abstract

Due to increasing competition during the late years organizations find themselves in need of creating new marketing technics. Companies try to find out how to keep competing in the Internet age. Now communication skills more important than marketing itself. Therefore most of the leading companies realized that marketing and marketing methods have to change and they started to use interactive technics while they releasing new products or service to the market. In the globalized world, the change in the life styles, social, economical and political conversions, technological developments lead the marketers to use viral marketing effectively in the search of new medium. The way people used to communicate has completely been changed and it became easier for consumers to share their experiences about products, brands and services through internet. Nowadays, conducting more efficient marketing activities by organizations is direct proportionate to their compliance with technology and marketing approaches. Especially, the emergence of internet and consumers’ desire to have a word have directed marketing experts to digital environment as an alternative platform. In this study, the viral marketing technics, supported by different examples, are emphasized.

Keywords: social media, marketing on internet, viral marketing, e-word-of-mouth

1. Introduction

Technological developments have changed people’s life styles. Many differences and features have started to come out in line with the diversification in the field of media. Therefore, marketing communication, which composes of activities that lead customers to buy new products, has gained importance.

As Internet has become widespread, word of mouth marketing has created several new concepts of marketing communication. One of the new advantages brought to marketers by this technological innovation or opportunities is viral marketing practice. Viral marketing is a type of word of mouth communication on Internet, which is the newest platform.

As social networking sites have a significant impact on consumers’ decision-making process and behaviors, these sites cannot be disregarded by brands of which the target audience actively uses digital channels. This study focuses on the meaning of social networks for marketing communication and how these networks are used.

2. Social Media Concept

Today Internet usage is growing day by day and individuals’ dialogues together with their posts on Internet constitute social media. Social media offers many opportunities to Internet users.

Social Media “is a term used for online tools and web sites that offer a chance for mutual interaction through information, opinions, interests and sharing”. As also stated in its definition, social media mediates in creating communities and networks by encouraging participation and being interested (Sayimer: 2008: 123). In Web2.0 development where a participation culture started to attract attentions, users should play the role of a creator or participant (Tosun, Levi, 2010:95). Thus, it created not only a new consumer (user) but also platforms where they manage information and contents. Everyone can create, share, exchange, direct, send, affect, examine and use limitless contents on created collective media (Alikilic, 2011:14).

It would not be wrong to say that social media enables companies to communicate with their customers and also customers to exchange ideas directly with each other. The timing and frequency of consumers’ communication on social media are managed by consumers, not managers. This contrasts with traditional marketing concept. For this reason, social media can be considered as an important change in terms of marketing (Tosun, Levi, 2010:94). As social media has become practical and cost effective, many brands started to use social networks.
3. Viral Marketing

Viral marketing is a type of word of mouth marketing technique used on Internet (Quoted from Snyder, 2004 by: Dahan, 2012). Viral marketing concept, which was first used by Steve Jurvetson and Tim Draper (Pelphs vd.), is defined as “a word of mouth marketing technique used in relation to a brand, product or service similar to the spread of viruses on social networks on electronic media” (Quoted from MindComet, 2006 by: Dahan, 2012). It is a part of electronic word of mouth marketing because it is a part of electronic media and the main reason of its separation is that the starting point of this activity is known or thought to be companies. Dialogues related to services or products started with individuals’ own will are observed in viral marketing activities. In this activity, companies create interesting contents about which individuals can talk and share between each other and this content spreads like a virus (Quoted from Wilson, 2005 by: Dahan, 2012). In line with this information, viral marketing can be defined as various online word of mouth marketing practices that use brand, product or service related contents created by companies in a way that encourages interpersonal communication in a wide range of applications (Quoted from Eckler and Rodgers 2010, Golan and Zaidner 2008 by: Dahan 2012).

Word of mouth marketing is regarded as the oldest known marketing communication medium. It is considered to be the most reliable type of advertisement, as the source communicating the message from mouth to mouth is a known and reliable character. For this reason, word of mouth marketing has attracted the attention of many researchers. The importance of sincere conversations between consumers in increasing sales was first noticed in 1960s (Kalpaklioglu, Toros, 2011). According to the definition given by Word of Mouth Marketing Association / WOMMA, word of mouth marketing is “the transfer of marketing related information created by consumers to other consumers”. Moreover, word of mouth marketing “also covers the efforts of the organizations to lead consumers to create marketing related contents and communicate these contents to other consumers” (Quoted from http://www.womma.org/content/womma_term_framework.pdf by: Kalpaklioglu, Toros, 2011).

Viral marketing spreads thanks to people’s natural motive to communicate and inform other people in their networks about the things they find interesting or useful. Viral marketing is a tactic that aims to communicate the planned contents to a specific target audience in the most effective and sincere manner by using communication channels. Interactive applications and especially videos, advergames, pictures, audio files, presentations and even text contents are the most important tools of viral marketing. These products become marketing tools with the addition of commercial messages. A viral ad can be categorized into two: The first one is a video film, which is created by a user and creates a positive impact incidentally on a brand and shared by this user with other users on social media. The second one is a company having a professional team to make and spread a viral advertisement. However, what is important here and what is different from traditional commercial films is that the viral ad is created in a way that seems to be created by an amateur user (Quoted from Eckler, Bolls, 2011 by: Uraltaq, Bahadirli, 2012). These video films interest and are shared by users. Thus, brand name starts to be known by other users.

People talk to each other in daily life to share their opinions and comments about a product (Kalpaklioglu, Toros, 2011). The effect of people on other people is nine times more powerful than the effect of an ad on a magazine, newspaper or TV channel (Quoted from Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1955:9 by: Kalpaklioglu, Toros, 2011).

The difference between viral marketing and other activities is that it has an authentic content that provokes individuals. Individuals share this creative content due to its authenticity on electronic social networks and thus, this content reaches millions of people by being communicated from one individual to another on social networks (Quoted from Wilson 2005 by: Dahan 2012). This content, which spreads like a virus very fastly from one individual to another, increases awareness even if it does not affect the sales of the related brand, product or service instantly (Quoted from Davis and Khanazchi 2008 by: Dahan 2012)

As the success of this marketing communication activity depends on the communication of the content by individuals, it is extremely important to understand the motives of individuals to share contents on electronic media (Quoted from Eckler and Rodgers 2010 by: Dahan 2012). Succeeding to motivate individuals to share this content can only be possible if the preconditions to target the right group of people and offer a creative content are fulfilled just like all the other marketing communication activities (Quoted from Phelps vd. 2004 by: Dahan 2012).

Internet is considered as the “fifth channel” following TV, radio, newspapers and magazines (Quoted from Cutler, 1990, s. 25 by: Alexander, 2006). It continues to grow as a useful communication channel that enables individuals and companies to share information fastly (Quoted from Townsend, 2001 by: Alexander, 2006) on an interactive and one-to-one media (Quoted from Anderson, 2000 by: Alexander, 2006) (Alexander, 2006). Internet has revolutionized communication technology by enabling consumers to interact with each other fastly and easily. The efficiency and distribution of WOM has been increased and accordingly, a new concept known as electronic WOM has come out
Informational communication networks brought by modern communication technologies have surely changed the image of WOM. In today’s “networked” world, not only a few competent people but also people from all levels with different effects and connections share word of mouth communication (Quoted from Smith v.d. 2007 by: Taylor, 2010). Electronic WOM (eWOM) covers customer comments in emails, text messages, online videos, Web sites; computer-aided channels such as social networking site like Facebook, MySpace and LinkedIn and other electronic communication channels. Even though each tool has its own features, their common feature is the capability to distribute information very fastly to a very wide range of customers in different locations. Like the Susan Boyle example we just mentioned, if WOM reaches a critical level – defined by Gladwell (Quoted from 2000 by: Taylor, 2010) as “tipping point” – and spreads to wide communities, then it becomes “viral”. Although this “process of becoming viral” is not fully understood by marketers, it is found to be very effective (Taylor, 2010).

According to a research conducted by White House Department of Consumer Relations, 90% of unsatisfied consumers state that they will not buy the product of the same brand anymore. Each unsatisfied consumer shares his/her negative experience with at least 9 people and 13% of these consumers share it with more than 20 people. On the other hand, satisfied customers share their satisfaction with 5 people (Quoted from Misner, 1994:27 by: Toros, 2011). 74% of people who hear those negative opinions prefer another brand (Quoted from Millward Brown, 2005:4 by: Kalpaklioglu, Toros, 2011) and 74% of the purchasing decision criteria depend on advices. Considering that one person communicated with approximately 25 different people every day, it is obvious that positive or negative opinions can
spread very fastly (Quoted from Wilson, 1994:25 by: Kalpaklioğlu, Toros, 2011). This is the proof of viral marketing power.

The term of viral marketing was first used by Harvard Business School lecturer Jeffrey Rayport. He wrote an article named “The Virus Marketing” in 1996. Viral marketing concept was defined as “network-oriented word of mouth marketing” by Juvertson and Draper in 1997 and launched to announce Hotmail’s free of charge email service (Quoted from Juvertson, www.djf.com/cgi-bin/artman/publish/printer_steve_tim_may97.html by: Kalpaklioğlu, Toros, 2011). The number of users went up from 500,000 to 12 million in just one year after the “get your free email” message was placed below each email sent by Hotmail (Quoted from Godin, 2001:66 by: Kalpaklioğlu, Toros, 2011). Today, many international brands such as Tupperware, Microsoft and PepsiCo use viral marketing as their main marketing strategy.

Recently, Burger King launched an online promotional campaign on its interactive web site which can be accessed at www.subservientchicken.com where consumers can visit and give commands to a man in a chicken suit. Moreover, site visitors can also inform their friends about this funny site by clicking the “tell my friend” link and providing the email address (Quoted from Eaton, J., www.docs.com/docs/42444246/e-word-of-mouthmarketing by: Kalpaklioğlu, Toros, 2011).

What is important here is that it is more likely to be adopted if it is very innovative and interesting. On the 1st of April, Workopolis MSN.ca provided its Web site visitors the chance to send fake press releases to their friends. There were several templates including CEO, TV newsreader or supermodel that can be selected by the sender. The viral campaign gained more than expected success (Quoted from Sweeney, MacLellan & Dorey, 2006:67 by: Kalpaklioğlu, Toros, 2011).

4. Viral Marketing Techniques on Online Social Networks

As a result of being a basic need for people, social networking sites were created to make the social network perceived, edited and announced to everybody. Thus, they were adopted by millions of people in a very short period of time (Quoted from Boyd, Ellison, 2007 by: Varnali, 2012). Most of these sites enabled the existing social relations and/or social networks to be transferred to Internet. People socializing as crowded communities on digital platforms and this socialization becoming a norm have lead to many significant developments. As the most penetrable networks are generally the networks created by people in the same socio-economic group with similar interests, the contents transferred through digital social networks is spread in a targeted manner because the desire to fastly access information is one of the main reason of people frequently visiting digital social sites (Varnali, 2012).

Creating social networks on online platforms has become very popular between various disciplines. Online networking sites such as Facebook, Twitter and LinkedIn continue to add more than 100,000 users in a day. The fastest growing group on Facebook, which has more than 500 million active users, is the group of people aging 35+. Globally, more than 11.7 million hours per month are spent on Facebook and more than 200 million users access Facebook by using their mobile devices. Social media has also become popular among big hospitals and pharmaceutical companies. There are nearly 1,100 hospitals nationwide on Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, LinkedIn or blogs. Various information ranging from recent developments in health sector to ongoing organization events are transferred among hospitals through these sites. Pharmaceutical companies have developed many social networking sites including disease support pages and special product information (Kukreja, Sheehan and Riggins, 2011).

Fortis Turkey has realized its first brand application on Facebook, which is a social networking site. 4.500 users in the first three days and 20.000 users in the first month joined “Fortis Turkey Cup Guessing Game”. The application was started before group matching and users were allowed to guess game scores according to the league table. Those making the best score guess were listed at the end of each game week (Quoted from http://www.pctime.com.tr/habergoster.asp?id=599 by: Kalpaklioğlu, Toros, 2011).

British Airways, created a link between New York and London by using Twitter and designing Metrowin web page. The web page contains recommendations about where to go, what to eat and where to stay. Twitter is becoming more popular in Turkey day by day. Turkish Airlines and Pegasus Airlines send information about new destinations and sales promotions via Twitter (Quoted from Odabaşı, 2009 by: Kalpaklioğlu, Toros, 2011 24:6).

As seen, now brands and companies gather with consumers directly on social media. Social networking sites like Facebook, Twitter and MySpace have started to change companies’ product marketing methods and ways of communication with consumers. It is important to know how to effectively use these social sites that offer new opportunities in terms of marketing.
5. Conclusion

Marketing concept is based on people's needs and today this concept has developed in line with the diversification of needs. As technological developments cause changes in people's needs, product variety is offered to fulfill these needs and tactics have been developed to sell products. This approach has given marketing concept a new dimension.

Today, it is getting hard to reach consumers by using traditional methods. As consumers are more informed about the things they purchase and consume, the job of marketers is getting harder. Characteristics, preferences and favorites of consumers are fastly changing. The methods of accessing information in globalizing world have also changed. Today, viral marketing that is based on “recommendation” has become a new trend for companies to enable their target audience/consumers to read, watch, see the given messages and adopt the brand. When it was realized that “recommendations” are effective for marketing, it started to be used as a marketing method.

Playing a significant role in marketing communication, the power of persuasion becomes more powerful with viral marketing, as the recommendation is received from a third party. Companies understanding the power and effectiveness of viral marketing use this communication technique while conducting their advertising, public relations and personal sales activities.

It is believed that viral marketing practices will become more powerful and develop more in the future. However, it is also stated that this process should carefully be used and monitored even though viral marketing messages are effective.

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Miscommunication between Members Belonging to Different Subcultures

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Abstract

Based on theoretical perspective of some distinguishable authors in the field of sociology of communication, it will be intended to defend the hypothesis that non-communication between individual and social groups during socializing processes produces problems related to psychosocial nature. Here, it is not the case that the actors of communication, such as “provider” and “recipient”, face organic difficulties to capture or make their message accessible, but the fact that they do not understand the codes through which they transmit messages and therefore misunderstand the roles as a result of miscomprehending these messages. Exactly, this discrepancy between roles and codes of communication along the socialization process produces a state of “stagnation” of social conventions and confusion of roles. Analyzing the phenomenon in this perspective tends to contribute to the understanding of the Albanian context, as frequent demographic changes during last two decades, inside and outside the territory, have led to difficulties for some social groups or individuals to be integrated into new social realities.

Keywords: Typology, Identity, Code, Psychopathology, Autism, Transition

1. Introduction

According to Max Weber (1920), the analysis of social groups takes an important place in the sociological perspective of the world and especially of the mankind. From the author’s point of view, there are double and reciprocal relationship and particular links between the individual and the social group, as well as certain rapports between the group identity and sorts of mentality and social conscientiousness. The collective subjectivity provides an identity to any of the social groups and at the same time, the nature of a social group offers its own special features to the mentality of different individuals.

To his judgment, the same social group, but appearing in different times and in different places of the social space, through particular history and lives, shapes its own social identity in different ways following different criteria. From this standpoint, it is worth studying typologies of social groups and interaction scale in the Albanian context in order to understand the situation and find out the barriers which may impede the normal development of their interaction.

The analysis of this dimension is of a particular importance in the Albanian context due to the fact that in the last two decades, we have faced a massive rural exodus and a considerable demographic concentration in some of the main cities of the country. As a consequence, this social mobility has led to the creation of a multicultural reality which is demonstrated during socializing processes. Precisely, these aspects are well demonstrated - better than in any other city of Albania – in the capital city, which has been noticeably “affected” by migratory movements of the last two decades.

2. Migratory movements in suburban areas

According to data published by the Statistical Institute of the Republic of Albania, during the years 1991 - 1999 the urban population is increased 11.2%, reaching 47.1% (INSTAT, 2000:8), and this trend continues in the last decade, reaching 53.7% in 2011 (INSTAT, 2011:16) Central regions (prefectures of Tirana and Durres) and coastal regions (the regions of Fier, Lezha) have become the main destination of this migration, while northeastern and southeastern regions are affected very little by internal population movements.

Tirana being a city with greater employment opportunities, education and entertainment, preferred more compared to Durres. According to the census in the Municipality of Tirana show dramatic increase in population from 238,057 inhabitants in 1989 to 343,078 in 2001. The same intensity observed during the period 2001 - 2009, where the city of 148,000 added in 2012 reaching number 702,380 inhabitants. However, it should be noted that in these areas over the past two decades have not only migratory movements from different areas of Albania moves towards the capital but also internally within the Tirana. Let’s refer to data of year 2005 regarding this demographic dynamism.

Based on official data (INSTAT,2006), it results that during that year 46.024 inhabitants coming from mountainous
and lowland regions out of this district have settled there, 49,470 people have changed locations within Tirana district and 7,226 inhabitants have moved out of the district. This movement has occurred only in one year 2005. (INSTAT, 2005)

How about the movements in 20 years? It is worth emphasizing that a detailed record of data for all the post communist era is still incomplete for reasons we already know. That is why we have chosen 2005, as one having the most complete data for migratory movements. But we cannot say that this year is the “peak” of demographic movements, because we know that higher intensity movements occurred during 1993 – 2000.

Anyway, in this analysis we are not going to identify factors leading to such various demographic movements from one year to another, but we will analyze the psychosocial aspects which produce such realities from the viewpoint of communication sociology.

Turning back to the analysis, we may underline the fact that the origin of inhabitants having settled in the capital is: 39% coming from north and 38% coming from south of the country (Karagumi & Dumani, 2005). The majority of these inhabitants are settled in the suburban areas of Tirana and more concretely in local government unit no. 4 (Allias), unit no. 6 (Kombinat), unit no. 11 (Lapraka). From the development point of view, those areas are estimated as the poorest in Tirana district. Such estimation is related to several factors such as low level of consumption per capita, high coefficient of general poverty, high level of unemployment and low level of education. (Karagumi & Dumani, 2009)

Therefore, there are certain similarities between neighbors not only in terms of territorial point of view, but also whole demographic, economic and social developments. It is obvious that this entire panorama enables the approach of identities between the new inhabitants, but at the same time, as a consequence of this identity, it differentiates them from the autochthon population.

Under those new circumstances, many social groups that use to live in “silent” and “remote” nooks of society felt the need to be repositioned in the social structure. To some, this process is not easy at all, because they need to adapt themselves to new social and cultural realities and at the same time keep their tradition and norms of the past. As Fuga (2000:212) describes them with much realism, this dilemma interposes them between country and city, between rural life and urban life, between past and present, between survival and misery, between self-personification and transition towards another group identity. As a result, the moral criteria which inspire the moral norms of society, the behavior patterns of individuals and different groups of the society, go through a quick process of decomposition and disequilibrium.

But, at the same time, there are cases of the consolidation of existing values because of the uncertainty of abandoning them.

Meunier & Peraya (2009) view this duality through the normal functioning logic for each individual or social group that set up a special cohesion between them by excluding other groups considered as “foreign”. They wish to be socialized, take part in the same actions, belong to the same group and at the same time, need to be differentiated, discriminated and excluded. In this case, exclusion is displayed in different levels varying from physical violence (physical exclusion of the other) to fine nuances, such as behavior, language, etc, while they display cohesion as a way of unifying their own ego with the group. Concerning this aspect, the above mentioned authors say: “The man, as an individual, wants to unify his ego with himself – this is narcissism, his ego with another person’s ego in a couple – this is narcissism of the couple, and his ego with the others’ ego – this is group narcissism” (Meunier & Peraya, 2009:274). Following this dynamic, the social layer is fragmentized in opposite communities.

Edgar Morin (1977:178) holds the idea that each system is at the same time unitas multiplex, a link between the singular and plural, ensemble and types - according to cultures and historical moments. If we were to borrow a quote from Jacques Derrida, a postmodern philosopher, this link serves in many cases to create anybody’s identity. More specifically, this author says: “Everyone’s identity is built based on something different of him, as another’s identity is.” (Morin, 1977:54)

The communication certainly describes their effect in those movements and at the same time it helps or impedes the interaction between them in terms of accepting or refusing the identities they represent. Martin & Nakayama (2010:108) argue that these identities emerge when messages of the communication are exchanged between individuals. And by free will they choose to negotiate, create together, reinforce or be challenged through communication. To them, communication represents an essential value in displaying their identities and creating new ones. Stefano Zecchimi shares the same opinion and outlines that: “Communication is always the origin of the society’s identity; it is an expression of difference. Understanding this communication enables the knowledge of features of the society using it.” (2006:9)

The attempt to be adapted to everyone’s features during messages transmission and at the same time the interest to be differentiated to keep the identity become normal processes of communication. Time after time, these processes bring to light the lack of desire to put oneself in the others’ position in order to understand their points of view in the final stage of compiling the message, because there is a conviction that it is not necessary. However, to Jean Piaget (1995), when there is a lack of such will, we come across problems in understanding the message and exclusive and
marginalizing tendencies towards others. This warning of Piaget is supported by arguments of David Morley and Stuart Hall. According to these authors, there are problems with the meaning of the message itself, which does not depend only on the content of the message, but depends more on the scale of its interpretation and the latter is conditioned by the traditions in his background. In many cases, lack of acknowledging this tradition causes misunderstandings in the stage of deciphering the message.

In this semantic perspective, there is a conviction that the majority of words – symbols don’t have any similarity with the object they represent. Eric Fromm writes: “What kind of link exists between the word “table” and the object “table”? (1998:11) Is there any relation to one another? Of course not, is the author’s answer. The sole reason that this word symbolizes this object, is the fact that, as a result of a socializing period of time, the community has accepted that this object be called by this special name. Since childhood, this convention is fixed in out brain through repeated experience of hearing this word labeling this object. Such symbols are frequently designated as conventional ones. Thus, communicating does not mean only generating and distributing information, but it also means being attentive to the conditions in which the recipient receives, accepts, objects, reforms, restructures the message depending on his cultural, political philosophical horizon. In this case, communication bridges are consolidated between members who share the same communication codes and others that are different to them are excluded. Members of the group “weld” their unity, creating an entity in which each member is recognized and identifies himself, and at the same time noticeably weakens the relations with other different individuals.

That is why Paolo Alto (1951) considered communication “the matrix of all human activities” where the language, as one of its elements, has a primary importance. Thanks to it, people are able to transmit specific meanings to the other individuals included in the communication, while the latter have the possibility to interpret it and find out the answer based on those interpretations. Following the same line, George Ritzier says: “The meanings and the symbols offer distinguishable features to the social action (which contains a sole actor) and to the social interaction (which contains two or more actors included in mutual social actions).” (2009:371)

In our country, many subcultures that once were developed in areas and regions relatively separated and isolated, as a result of the domestic migration, are included in the same urban spaces. But we have to specify that the common physical space does not imply the unification of lifestyles, beliefs, traditions and behaviors carried from their past. The movement from isolated social areas with fixed moral codes or norms minimizes their capacities to perceive another world, which is different to the one they use to live. Once they come out of this reality for different reasons, they are faced to unknown situations, they don’t get involved in society or cut links to the exterior reality, living in their past. Certainly, it is possible for new meanings and new meaning lines. This behavior is related to the problems arising from the communication during the socializing processes. The capability of adoption in the interactive processes and more specifically, the misunderstanding or the lack of necessary codes is determined by the communication.

Inability to understand the previously unknown codes - or their misunderstanding - is simply related to a difficulty of organic kind, where for “the giver” as well as for “the receiver”, it is impossible to decipher the meaning of their code or to know new ones. They don’t understand the codes through which are transmitted the messages or don’t have the appropriate coded to enable their transmission. As a result, their ideas are not properly articulated due to lack of authentic expressing words. In this case, using a figure of speech, says that we are in a situation when “the thought suffers”. It tries to find what it needs, it murmurs, but it remains incomplete, defective and linguistically empty, because finding the correspondent word is not easy at all. The message can’t to be fully expressed, because “the source”, as well as “its receivers” do not own that codified system of signs, which enable its semantic content to be freely expressed. All this is influenced by what is rightly underlined by Pierre Bourdieu (1977:82), which is the cultural heritage. Thanks to this component, they are provided with a series of embedded schemes, which influence on the scale of perception and estimation of the social world, which is transmitted through communication. In most of the cases, they become victims of these schemes.

Under these circumstances, it is possible that the individual or specific groups become unities “withdrawn” society - without a real communication with others. Thus, they are transformed into isolated unities, having contact only with themselves, inside their own world. (Fuga, 2010:276) In an individual level, the self is set in the center, obviously according to the ego of the person himself, and from here, there are efforts to introduce it to other people or to create a descriptive picture on the world surrounding us, starting from the self or putting ourselves in the center of it. The individual does not make any effort to recognize oneself through the other, as suggested by representatives of symbolic interaction (Cooley,1902. Mead,1934, Blumer,1969). Therefore, the man - trying to recognize oneself without any other intermediary agent - creates a much idealized imagination of his personality, because he puts himself in the center of the world. We can’t exclude that cases of such psychosis can be manifested at group level.

For Jurgen Ruesch, (1998) forms of deviant behaviors vary depending on the ways the “other” is perceived. The
author holds the opinion that “the communication network defines our psychiatric universe.” (p.16) Symptoms of psychopathological disorders are very often caused by deformations and defaults in the functioning of the communication system, during the transmission of messages in three levels: communication of the individual with himself, communication with others and communication between large social groups. This is the infrastructure of relations created through transmitting messages, designated as “social matrix of communication”, which serves to find the deepest roots of the phenomena and of the psychopathological disorders which induce and keep alive a large part of deviant behaviors.

During communication, people affected by such symptoms, the author says, do not dialogue with the others, but it seems like they talk to themselves, and thus lose what the psychotherapists call self-correcting capability. In a certain way, they pull back into themselves - into their own reality - and interrupt relations to the external reality. Therefore, paranoiac personalities arise from such situations. Mainly, these individuals with paranoiac personalities have a tendency to think that their ideas are the right ones and exclude other options. So, they do not take into consideration any other alternative during social discussions, but want at any price to impose to others and give authoritarian orders at home, at school etc. As soon as they are faced to the minimum objection of the others, such individual is inclined to get angry, quarrel or cause conflicts.

3. Conclusions

Referring it to the Albanian reality, we may say that individuals or social groups settled in large urban centers are frequently secluded within conventional symbols. The movement from isolated social areas with fixed moral codes or norms minimizes their capacities to perceive another world, which is different to the one they use to live. Once they come out of this reality for different reasons and are faced to unknown situations, they don’t get involved in society or cut links to the external reality, living in their past.

Despite the desire to be socialized, take part in the same activities, belong to the same group, they need to become differentiated, discriminated and excluded because of the communication. In those circumstances, social conflicts not only are not mitigated, but on the contrary, they gain new forms which continue to be present even when old social disunions have lost their former ground. Now, new social conflicts take place in a society of interaction, differences and communication. Communication is one of the important components producing them. As it seems, values and criteria by which the individual tries to get to know himself, seeing himself as in a mirror, before becoming norms of point of views, are words of a specific language and have a signification only in the framework of their linguistic content. Those words, their meaningful content, the way we use them, are not defined by none of the individuals taken separately, or in his intimate solitude. They are social products created during a prolonged socializing process and it takes time to change them.

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Popullisia e Shqiperise, INSTAT, Tirane, 2005
Capital Flows and Policy Reforms in Turkey After the Crises

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Abstract

Capital flows are a key aspect of the global monetary system and have increased significantly in recent years. Capital flows can have substantial benefits for countries, including by enhancing efficiency, promoting financial sector competitiveness, and facilitating greater productive investment and consumption. Capital flows can also carry some risks; their size and volatility can also cause policy challenges and they can reduce discipline in financial markets and public finances, tighten financing constraints by restricting the availability of foreign capital. The global financial crisis has caused the swings of capital flows in financial markets and lead to policy reforms in developing countries. The aim of the study is to analyze the capital flows and policy reforms in Turkey after global financial crises.

1. Introduction

The 1970s witnessed a remarkable boom of capital flows to emerging economies. The dramatic surge in international capital flows was triggered by the oil shock in 1973-1974, the growth of the Eurodollar market and the remarkable increase in bank lending during 1979-1981 (Kaminsky, 2005, p.2).

Capital flows are a key aspect of the global financial system. They can have substantial benefits for countries, including by enhancing efficiency, promoting financial sector competitiveness, and facilitating greater productive investment and consumption.

If capital flows don’t properly managed, they can cause economies to overheat, increase exchange rate volatility, and lead eventually to large outflows (Lopez-Mejia, 1999). Large capital inflow may also lead to excessive money supply changes and consequent pressures on prices, the exchange rate, and deterioration in the current account balance. There may be other associated dangers of foreign investment: currency appreciation, reduced scope for independent macroeconomic policy action, greater exposure to external shocks, demands for protection in local markets, some loss of control of foreign owned domestic industry, disruption of national capital markets, asset inflation, increased volatility in financial and exchange markets etc. (World Bank, 1995).

The global crisis that started in mid-2007 brought an abrupt stop to the sustained rise in international financial integration over the previous decade. Global capital flows had steadily increased from less than 7 percent of world GDP in 1998 to over 20 percent in 2007 (Milesi-Ferretti and Tille, 2010, p.2).

The global financial crisis has also caused the swings of capital flows in financial markets and lead to policy reforms in developing countries. In this context, the study is aim to analyze the capital flows and policy reforms in Turkey after global financial crises. In order to achieve this aim, this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 examines capital flows to developing countries. Section 3 describes the global financial crisis and Turkey. Section 4 outlines capital flows and policy reforms. Last section provides a conclusion.

2. Capital Flows to Developing World

The developing world has become more closely integrated with the global financial system especially over the past two decades. This integration is due to both pull and push factors; ‘pull’ factors include continuous liberalisation of capital accounts and domestic stock markets as well as large scale privatisation programmes, while ‘push’ factors include the increasing importance of institutional and the spread of depositary receipts, and cross-listings (Cali et al, 2008, p.2).

Increased financial integration of developing countries increased economic growth rates, but also increased the speed and the number of channels through which financial crises in general, and the current financial turmoil in the specific case, propagated across the developing world. Indeed, crossborder capital flows between developed and developing countries are sensitive to macroeconomic and financial conditions not only in developing economies but also in mature markets, and the transmission of shocks through these financial channels is much quicker than through real
channels. For example, a shock in income growth in a developed country have a gradual impact on a developing country through trade channels, but could have a much quicker effect on economic activity of that country through correlations in stock market fluctuations (Cali et al, 2008, p.2).

An important feature of capital flows is quite to be volatile. The figure 1 shows the private financial flows to emerging and developing economies. As the figure shown, there have been swings in capital flows between in 2005 and in 2012 in emerging and developing economies.

**Figure 1. Emerging Market and Developing Economies: Private Financial Flows 2005 -2014 (Billions of US dollars)**

![Chart showing private financial flows to emerging and developing economies from 2005 to 2014](chart)

**Source:** IMF, World Economic Outlook, April 2013.

Capital flows can go to developing countries in a different way: foreign direct investment, portfolio investment and other investment like credits. The figure 2 shows the composition of the private financial flows in developing and emerging economies. Foreign direct investment is the larger component of capital flows between in 2005 and in 2012. By contrast, portfolio investment and other investment are going less than the foreign direct investment.

**Figure 2. The Composition of the Private Financial Flows**

![Chart showing composition of private financial flows](chart)

Most of the capital flow was concentrated in Asia, Latin America and Central and Eastern Europe (fig. 3). After global financial crisis, the private financial flows decreased all regions. Although the financial flows started to increase again in these regions, financial flows couldn’t reach the pre-crisis level except Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America. Especially, Asia experienced a significant decline in 2012. Latin America and Caribbean only experienced a better increase in financial flows than the others. This result shows that financial flows are not addressed yet fully.

**Figure 3. Private Financial Flows by Regions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central and Eastern Europe</td>
<td>103.6</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>183.8</td>
<td>157.1</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>83.1</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>66.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commonwealth of Independent States</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>130.2</td>
<td>-98</td>
<td>-63.4</td>
<td>-25.4</td>
<td>-64.9</td>
<td>-57.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Asia</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>83.4</td>
<td>197.1</td>
<td>68.2</td>
<td>206.2</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>311.9</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>85.8</td>
<td>84.9</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>128.9</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>136.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East, N. America, Afg. and Pakistan</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>77.2</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>-43.8</td>
<td>-35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>-14.7</td>
<td>-1.7</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** IMF, World Economic Outlook, April 2013.
3. The Global Financial Crisis and Turkish Economy

Turkish economy had felt the effect of global financial crisis as in other developing countries. However, Turkish economy is more resilient to external shocks than it was a decade ago for two reasons: (i) financial institutions in Turkey have had less exposure to the United States subprime mortgages and structured credit products than those in other parts of the world; and (ii) in Turkish economy, improvements have been made to financial regulation and to macroeconomic management since the 2001 financial crisis.

The global financial crisis has affected Turkish economy via trade channel. The decline in trade in the rest of the world led to fall the Turkish foreign trade by reducing the firms ability on production capacity. Thus, the crisis has started to influence on real sector in Turkey instead of the financial sector (Terzi, 2010, p. 254).

Turkey experienced a strong and sustained period of economic expansion after the 2001 recession, with gross domestic product growing at an average annual rate of 6.8 per cent between 2002 and 2007. However, the global financial crisis has led to a significant slowdown in economic activity in Turkey as in other developing countries. A remarkable tightening in lending conditions and a surge in interest on loans were experienced during the worst period of the financial crisis (Yılmaz, 2009). Declines in external demand and internal demand of Turkey have negatively affected her growth. As a result, Turkey’s economy experienced a significant decline in GDP in 2009. After that, although there is an increase in GDP, it doesn’t reach pre-crises level in Turkey (Fig. 4).

Figure 4. Growth Rate in Turkey, %, 2001-2012

Source: TURKSTAT

Global financial crisis has also affected the balance of payment in Turkish economy. Following figure shows the current account in Turkish economy. The current account deficit has declined since November 2008 (Fig 5). This can be seen a positive situtation for Turkish economy. However, the reason of this decline is a decrease on both exports and imports. This is a feedback of global financial crisis. The decrease in trade of the rest of the world countries has led to a decline in foreign trade in Turkish economy (Terzi, 2010, p.250).

Figure 5. Current Account Deficit in Turkey, 2001-2012 (Million USD Dollar)

Source: CBRT

As mentioned above, Turkish economy experienced a decline in both export and import in 2009 (Fig.6). The sharp decline in the value of Turkish exports resulted from falling volumes as well as falling prices. The developments in global trade shows that (i) the volume of Turkish exports has closely followed the falling volume of world imports, but (ii) export prices of Turkey have fallen more than the global import prices (Uygur, 2010). Although measures have accommodated signals of the diminishing effect of the crisis and the start of recovery in trade in 2010, these signals still remain weak. While recent data on trade indicates that the situation is moderate, the recovery is slow. An appreciation in Turkish Liras also causes a slower recovery in export in Turkey because of the competitiveness.
The decline in trade in the rest of the world led to fall the foreign trade and this also reduced the firms capacity on production. Industrial production index decreased in 2009 (Fig. 7). However, as a result of measures, industrial production index started to increase again in Turkish economy.

The labour market felt the impact of the shock through rising unemployment. As demand fell, the unemployment rate, which averaged about 10 per cent in 2006-2007 increased to 11 per cent in 2008 and 14 per cent in 2009 (Fig.8). Some of those who lost their jobs due to the contraction in industrial output turned towards work in the agricultural sector. There are signs that the measures taken in 2008 and 2009 have helped to bring a partial recovery in the employment situation, which had deteriorated due to the global economic crisis.

Turkey has gone through three crises since it opened up its capital account in 1989. The first instance was 1994, when a misguided attempt to keep domestic interest rates low led to a sudden capital outflow. The second was in 2001, when a minor political crisis threw the sustainability of an exchange-rate-based stabilization program into question and led to a massive withdrawal of funds. And the third happened in 2008 as a result of the global flight to safety that the US sub-prime mortgage crisis sparked (Rodrik, 2012, p.44).
The financial crises have affected on private capital flows in Turkey, negatively. To clarify the effects on capital flows in Turkey, Turkish economy is analyzed two separate periods: the period of 1989 and 1999 and after 2000.

4.1 Capital Flows between 1989 and 1999 in Turkey

During 1990-2000 period, instabilities in the global economy increased significantly. When this period is analyzed, it is seen that developed economies, other than the USA, have an unstable and low growth performance. Emerging economies experienced major financial crises which had reflections on global scale. Furthermore, negative impact of the Gulf Crisis in 1991 deeply affected the economies of that region, mainly the Turkish economy. In the mentioned period, global capital flows accelerated and Turkish economy was often exposed crisis (BRSA, 2010, p.7).

After the financial liberalization, the Turkish economy’s performance became heavily dependent on highly volatile short-term capital flows with costly ramifications. Given its domestic weaknesses, the Turkish economy has failed to capitalize during this period on the growing volume of foreign direct investment directed towards emerging markets. In addition, by the Gulf Crisis, Turkish economy was hit by negative external shock and the market experienced a sudden international capital reversal. Moreover, as a result of domestic weakness, Turkey encountered its first crisis in 1994. The crisis of 1994 was an important setback to the Turkish economy and also capital flows. After crisis, capital flows has continued to fluctuate (Fig.9).

Figure 9: Capital Flows in Turkey, 1989-1999, Million USD

![Capital Flows in Turkey, 1989-1999, Million USD](source)

Source: CBRT

By the end of the 1990s, with fiscal deficits and high rates of inflation, there was growing awareness that the Turkish economy was on an unsustainable course. This led to the signing of a stand-by agreement with the IMF in December 1999 which involved a combination of measures aimed at fiscal adjustment and medium-term structural reforms. IMF program failed to provide sufficient protection, and the Turkish economy remained highly vulnerable given the broad extent of adjustment and the weak commitment on the part of the coalition government to some of the key components of the program such as privatization and the regulation of the banking system. Therefore, the Turkish economy experienced in November 2000 and February 2001 crisis. With the crisis, there was a reduction in capital flows (Fig. 13).

4.2 Capital Flows and Policy Reforms after 2000 in Turkey

November 2000 and February 2001 financial crises led to a process of restructuring of the Turkish banking sector as a result of which banks and financial institutions started to operate in a more efficient way. In 2000, Banking Regulation and Supervision Agency (BRSA) was established in order to undertake the task of auditing the sector in single hand. The aim of the Banking Regulation and Supervision Agency is to regulate the principles and procedures of ensuring confidence and stability in financial markets, the efficient functioning of the credit system and the protection of the rights and interests of depositors (BRSA, 2007).

Reforms implemented after the financial crises experienced and the political stability obtained after 2002 have provided a significant improvement in fundamental indicators. As a matter of fact, with also the effect of global developments, within the period of 2002-2005 distinctly from previous periods a stable improvement was experienced in macroeconomic framework. Alongside with the high growth performance in the 2002-2005 period, the inflation was decreased to single digit levels, the short-termed policy interest rates were decreased below 20% and the share of public debt within national income was also decreased. The improvement of Turkish economy and the increase of the interest of global capital have caused a strong capital entry oriented directly to country and formed as portfolio investment and
foreign direct investment (BRSA, 2010, p.8).

To ease the negative effects of the global crisis on Turkey, a series of measures were adopted by the authorities and organizations. Within this framework the Central Bank took many measures. The Banking Regulation and Supervision Agency, on the other hand, adopted certain measures aimed at preserving the financial strength of banks and containing the effects of abrupt changes in the financial asset prices on banks’ capital adequacies. The Government also announced some measures in order to ease the effects of the global financial crisis. Additional measures were continued to be implemented also by various organizations in the first months of 2009 as the global volatility continued to affect the markets. These measures included liquidity supports, tax and premium incitements, credit and guarantee incitements through production and exports, financing supports. These measures are summarized following figure 11.

**Figure 11. Measures taken by authorities in Turkey**

| Central Bank | • resumed its activities as an intermediary in the foreign exchange deposit market until the removal of uncertainties in international markets;  
• raised its transaction limits by twofold to USD 10.8 billion and extended the lending maturity to 1 month from 1 week in the foreign exchange deposit market;  
• adopted a strategy to use foreign exchange reserves to primarily support the foreign exchange liquidity need of the banking system. The reserve requirement ratio was unchanged at 6 percent in TL liabilities, but it was lowered to 9 percent from 11 percent in foreign exchange liabilities.  
• increased the exports rediscount credit limit by USD 500 million to USD 1 billion in order to contain the effects of the global crisis on industry sectors. Additionally, the rules and principles applicable to the exports rediscount loan limit were rearranged for rendering the use of these loans easier.  
• The Central Bank cut its interest rates and extended the maturity in foreign exchange deposit market in order to prevent a possible foreign exchange squeeze in the financial market. |
| Government | • consumption tax applied to durable goods and automobiles to be lowered for a period of 3 months,  
• value added tax applied to real estates to be lowered to 8 percent from 18 percent for a period of 3 months,  
• an additional subsidy of TL 75 million to be extended to SMEs,  
• resource utilization support fund to be cut by 5 percentage points,  
• capital of Eximbank to be increased,  
• discounted night tariff for pricing the use of electricity in industry sector that applied to weekdays only to be extended to cover also weekends and other public holidays.  
• the Government sought authorization from the Parliament for increasing and determining for a period of two years the deposit insurance coverage, which was TL 50,000.  
• introduced a new package of measures including implementations in the crisis environment for companies, employees and the retired people; the term for the “short term employment compensation” implemented over Unemployment Fund was extended to 6 months from 3 months, and the sum of compensation was raised by 50 percent. It was adopted that no seizure could be levied on retirement wages, and effective term of the incentives for 49 provinces was extended by 1 more year. |
| BRSA | • required banks to get permission for distribution of the 2008 earnings;  
• allowed banks to reclassify the securities in their balance sheet from trading portfolio to investment portfolio for once only;  
• allowed banks to restructure the loans apparently posing no problems in order to ensure smooth functioning of the loan relations between banks and non-financial institutions. |
| Other measures | the Finance Ministry introduced tax advantages for sectors. Accordingly, payment of the tax dues which became payable before 1 September 2008 was decided to be deferred to December 2008 and with 18 installments. Within the framework of other measures package announced on 25 March 2009 the Government reduced the rate of Vat received from the sale of offices and other workplaces to 8 percent, the public fee in real estate purchases to 0.5 percent from 1.5 percent, the rate of Vat imposed on furniture, certain industrial and work machines used particularly by SMEs, information technology products and office furniture to 8 percent from 18 percent to be effective for a period of three months. |

**Source:** BAT, The Banks Association of Turkey, “The Financial System and Turkey”, October 2009, Istanbul.

Measures were also taken on capital flows in Turkey. Measures taken by authorities to promote capital flows are as follow:
Figure 12. Measures on Capital Flows in Turkey

- In November 2008, the parliament adopted an “Asset Peace Law” under which there would be a tax amnesty for all unrecorded assets, including cash, securities, other capital market instruments and real estate, if they are declared. No tax inspections or reassessments would be made on the declared assets. Only a 2% tax would be imposed on assets of foreign origin if they are repatriated or declared for repatriation. The tax rate would be 5% for domestic assets declared. The law was applicable till March 2009, but was extended again till 30 September 2009.
- The withholding tax on credits obtained from foreign creditors was reduced to 5% from 15% in March 2009.
- Foreign fund management companies that are not subject to corporate taxation would need to pay income tax only for those incomes they earned through their portfolio management companies set up in Turkey.
- Incomes generated from (i) sake of shares of legal entities established outside of Turkey, (ii) dividends of legal entities established outside Turkey, and (iii) commercial activities conducted abroad, would be exempt from taxation provided that these incomes were transferred to Turkey by 31 May 2009.

Source: Uygur, Ercan.(2010), The Global Crisis and Turkish Economy, TWN Global Economy Series, Malasia.

Generally, above measures on capital flows focused on tax amnesty and tax exempt for foreign companies and foreign creditors. As seen from the figure 13, with the measures on capital flows, declining capital flows in global financial crisis have tended to increase again (fig.13). The confidence of foreign investor to Turkish economy has increased and continued their investment. Surely, recovery on capital flows can not directly connect to the improvements in tax. The development of capital flows should be thought by other measures in financial market.

Figure 13. Capital Flows in Turkey, 2000-2012, million USD dollars

Source: CBRT

5. Conclusion

In this paper, I will try to analyze the capital flows and policy reforms in Turkish economy after crisis. Global financial crisis has affected both developed and developing countries. The crisis also influenced the direction of the capital flows. With the global financial crisis, capital flows tend to flight from developing countries like Turkey. In Turkey, capital flows generally have followed a fluctuating condition since liberalization of capital account and it has decreased with the crises. Capital flows in Turkey decreased after the global financial crisis as they did before. However, it has continued to increase as a result of moderate measures. Measures implemented since 2001 has affected financial stability, positively. Therefore, the decrease in capital flows didn’t spread to very a long period and capital inflows has continued to proceed beyond pre-crisis level.

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Neo-Partyism, Post Colonialism and the Surreality of Poverty Reduction Efforts among Bette Rural Communities In Nigeria

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Abstract

African nation states emerging from the burden of western colonial rule developed a propensity to heap the blame of their malfunctioning economies and political systems on the experience of colonialism. During the first few decades of the post colonial era (1950-1980), it was fashionable to devote full symposia, conferences and workshops to outlining the debilitating effects of western colonial rule, while using the same excuse to solicit political power from unsuspecting but enthusiastic voters desirable of improved conditions of living, especially in an era of self-rule. While this scenario played out, there was a gradual emergence of a bourgeois class, resplendent in perpetuating the very socio-economic/political divides that characterized the era from which the masses desire to escape. This situation was accompanied by a rising call for democratic rule, administered through the instrumentality of political parties, themselves, a collection of often strange bed-fellows, lacking in ideology and principle, and far removed from the yearnings of the masses. This paper examines the paradox of ne-partyism, post colonial fixation and the insincerity of so-called people-oriented poverty reduction efforts among the Bette people of Obudu in Cross River State of Southern Nigeria. The paper argues that poverty reduction efforts has simply become another instrument of political manipulation intended to whip the masses into perpetual servitude and subjugation. The paper concludes that the post-colonial experience of African nations is far worse than its pre-cursor, and that unless there is a revolutionary change in leadership, rural Africa will continue running round in circles, and hence remaining in abject poverty.

1. Introduction

As African nation states installmentally emerged from the experience of colonial, neo Pan-Africanist insisted on branding that era as the Dark Age. A growing consciousness among the few elites lucky enough to be such at the damn of an era of self rule struggled with the daunting crisis of identity, strung between choosing to remain the white man in black casing, or jettison the identity that western education had enabled them to acquire. This scenario was reflected, to varying degrees, in all spheres of the new African life. Having all of political and economic power trusted upon them, the elite Africans found suddenly that they have to confront the task of defining the future of their newly liberated nations. The period of the Pan-African fever was over, and the moment of truth was here. As this groping in the dark continues, there gradually emerged – to the utter disillusionment of the masses – a noveau – rich class of a bourgeoisie who despised everything that could bring personal and collective development to the African citizens. As Igwe (2012) puts it, in his book “How Africa underdeveloped Africa” the only interest of the bourgeoning elite was to amass stupendous wealth from the resources of their countries. This is possible because African countries have become the personal estates of official criminal gangs whose avowed aim is not the development of their countries, but the siphoning off of national resources into foreign banks.

While this is going on, the lowest of the low in Africa continued to live in abject poverty. It is against this back drop that this paper attempts to assess the emergence of the political elite side by side their focus on poverty reduction effort and how they have impacted on the lives of African and the Bette of Obudu.

2. Conceptual Clarification

Several concepts have been utilized in the course of this discussion and they need to be operationalized.

Neo-partyism – This is an African or post colonial party formation where a majority of the ideology is the emergence of new African elite who wrestled power from the departing colonizer and create a tone for a new African state. This phenomenon is characterized by conqueror occupier mentality of winner takes all.
Post-colonialism is a period after colonialism. It is an era of sovereignty among African states. It is a period that heralded freedom, emancipation, political self-delineation etc.

Poverty as used here is a condition where an individual finds it extremely difficult to meet the basic and essential needs of life that differentiate him from an animal. Such needs as food, shelter, clothing, medical care, basic education.

3. Neo-colonialism: European Patrons and Local Elite Clients and Poverty in Africa

After Africans finally “won” the fight for their liberation from the alien dictatorship of colonialism, many nationalists were later upset to find that the economic, political and cultural exploitation of the continent actually continued in what became known as neo-colonialism (Mwaura, 2005: 5). Nkawme Nkrumah, a leading author and opponent of neo-colonialism was amongst one of the first Africans to decry the continued stronghold of the colonizers in the newly independent states. Nkrumah (1975: 415) observed that even though these states were independent, their economic system and eventually their political policies were indirectly formulated by the colonizers. Neo-colonialism operated in varying ways in post-colonial Africa: control over government in the neo-colonial state through foreign financial support for this state or through the presence of foreign consortium serving and upholding foreign financial interest. Whichever way one analyzes it; neo-colonialism resulted in the exploitation of the African states such that the foreign capital entering the state to foster development instead “promoted” underdevelopment (Nkrumah, 1975: 415). In some cases, neo-colonialism has gone as far as using troops of the colonizing nations to control or support the government of the neo-colonial state. For example, French troops remained present and active in French colonies long after independence: In May 1996, French soldiers in support of Central African Republic government fired at national soldiers protesting against their government for failing to pay them their salaries (New York Times, 24/05/1996). Neo-colonialism survived because the West had established a dependent economic and political structure on the continent which was inherited and never changed by the new leaders. These “ambassadors” of the colonizers as Mwuara (2000: 6) describes them, promoted foreign interest over domestic interest, maintaining the economic and political structures of the colonizers. They got involved in “brainwashing” their followers to support and uphold neo-colonialism. The mass brainwashing of post-colonial rulers and their successors, which has sustained neo-colonialism to the detriment and underdevelopment of the African people, meant that the “wrong” political culture was instilled into the minds and brains of the elites. Deji Odetoyinbo (1994) chooses to describe the instilling of the neo-colonial political culture into the African leaders as “brain-dirtying”. According to Odetoyinbo, brainwashing forces up the understanding of “cleaning or make pure” in one’s mind which is far from being the case with neo-colonialism. In opposition to this understanding, the minds of Africans “have been deeply and thoroughly sullied by their contact with Europeans”, Odetoeyinbo continues, including all “contacts, past and present, willful and enforced, intimate and casual, malicious and well intentioned”. This idea brings back the thought of the kind of political culture that has resulted from colonialism and its successor: neo-colonialism: that is, a political culture of rulership for the good of the ruler to preserve power, enrich himself including his supporters and followers at the detriment of the people and the nation-state. Finally Odetoyinbo (1994) draws the conclusion that, the “brain-dirtying” process which continues even today strips Africans of:

"the vision which they need to perceive the absurdity of our economic situations; the mental clarity to forge more lasting solutions that would be more beneficial; and the self-regard and determination Africans need in order to move their minds and actions to the hard and painful places where these solutions could be found."

The consequence of neo-colonialism is the resultant permanent client-patron relationship that existed and still exists in some cases between ex-colonial powers and the ruling elitist governments. The external dependence, propagated and supported by neo-colonialism, renders African states permanently dependent as resource-based economies, unable or unwilling to assert their independence and develop their nations. The patron-client relationship between ex-colonizers and the neo-colonial elite rulers serves as a foundation, that is, structural bases for the enforcement of neo-patrimonial rule for and in the neo-colonial states. African leaders like Ghana’s Nkrumah and Guinea’s Sekou Toure openly opposed neo-colonialism because of the nefarious economic and political outcome it had on African states. Peter Schwab (2004) thus classifies these two men as belonging to the radical group of African post-independent leaders but describes assimilated “French-Citizens” like Houphuet-Boigny as the “French client in Ivory Coast” and Sedar Sengor’s Senegal as the Francophile nation.
4. Economic Interest, Conditioned Aid and Its Consequences on African States

Africa suffered great economic and political losses under the exploitative and brutal colonial rule. This destruction was so intense that after colonial rule the continent was in no position to develop itself without foreign assistance. The raw materials and other natural resources which aroused European interest had been ruthlessly exploited without consideration for the local African population. In 1953, with formation of the European Community (EC) and the increasing unpopularity of the colonial rule, many European masters sought means of retaining their economic control and interest in Africa, following an eventual independence. Leading colonizing countries like France and Belgium did not want their overseas colonies to be left out of consideration in any European Community because of the economic advantages and resources that they provided the colonizers with. The particular colonial relationship of some European nations to Africa and other overseas colonies was regulated following pressure from France and Belgium under an “associative corporation” (Art. 182 – 187 EEC Agreement) in the agreement of the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1958 in Rome (Monar, 2002: 123). Through the associative corporation, the ex-colonial masters succeeded in maintaining economic relations with the ex-colonies within the EC. After independence, the colonial masters continued what they called development politics for the ex-colonies, based on their intention to secure the control of resources, the economy and politics of the ex-colonies (Monar, 2000: 119). Development politics as it was introduced by the colonial masters during the formation of the EC was intended to make good the destruction that Europe had caused in Africa through colonialism. Development Aid thus started as a mechanism to provide help to develop the new nations. The EC created the European Development Bank which provided funds to ex-colonies for the development of their countries. According to the EC agreement, development politics had to promote sustainable economic and social development to the underdeveloped nations as well as foster democracy and the rule of law in these countries (Monar, 2000: 119). In addition, Europe and the rest of the West (herewith after described as the Western nations) did not want to lose hold of Africa for fear that it could fall in the hands of the communist Eastern bloc that presented a political, economical and military threat to the capitalist West. With development aid, the EC hoped to reduce or stop the influence and spread of communism from the Eastern bloc to these new and underdeveloped countries. More than half a century after independence, with the supply of economic aid coupled with the resources in Africa, the continent is still the poorest on earth (UNDP, 2007/2008; World Bank, 1989; 1995): what is wrong and what has been the role of foreign aid in promoting or hindering development of states on this continent?

Many reasons responsible for these failures have been propagated by western and local African authors and experts already, all of which could be categorized under international factors that influence politics in Africa. Before engaging in an analysis of the de jure purpose and the de facto impacts of Western aid on Africa, a definition as well as an explanation of Western aid to Africa by one of Africa’s recent strong opponents of Western aid could be helpful. According to Kenyan born James Shikwati (The African Executive, 01/10/2008):

In the aid industry, there are well meaning and well intentioned motives that drive some of the operatives. History however, points to the fact that the Western incursions into Africa were also clothed in good intentions, to ‘civilize’ and help ‘preserve natives’. Having given the genuinely well intentioned individuals latitude of respect; let us go forth and define Foreign Aid as it is.

Foreign Aid is a bribe given to poor countries by rich nations to enable the latter access resources, and markets cheaply. It is also a bribe to poor nations to prevent the migration of poor people to rich nations. It is a bribe to poor nations meant to address rich nation’s interests. We may all know what bribes (aid) do to our police force (governments), the police get fatter but the crime and traffic-offense related highway accident rates go up (under development of people). To the robber who bribes a policeman to ensure he/she is not caught – bribery is a good thing that promotes the looting industry! But if one were to ask the citizenry whose relatives perish on highways and their property get looted by thugs – a future without bribery is what they will go for. In line with Shikwati’s explanation and definition on aid the good intentions of the West (de jure purpose of aid) have resulted to a de facto “looting” of the resources of the Africa people by the West through the accomplice of African leaders who analogically represent the corrupt police forces in their countries. In this regard the role of aid in bringing development in Africa tends to be very doubtful. Thus the verisimilitude of development (conditioned) aid and the cold war contribution to political developments in African are exposed by the varying but most often clearly negative overall and varying consequences. The analysis of the role and consequences of foreign aid and the cold war could be divided into: (i) aid and politics of tyranny, (ii) the impact of the West as a consequence of the Cold War, and, (iii) the “disembedding” of the democratic debate from within national borders on the continent and “re-embedding” within the international arena between national leaders and Western powers.
5. Western aid and Politics of Domestic Tyranny:

Besides the need for funds to build the new and crumbled nations that emerged after colonialism, the new nationalist governments were very often responsible for economic failures due to mismanagement and leadership flaws (Alemazung forthcoming). The bad governance of tyrants and autocrats led to a continual economic decadence and increasing growth in poverty level until, “by the mid-1980s most Africans were as poor or poorer than they had been at the time of independence” (Meredith, 2005: 368). These bad governments, after crumbling their countries, turned to their ex colonial masters and international organizations like the European Union, the IMF and the World Bank for funds. Considering the establishment of the “economic association”, the ties with the EEC and the creation of the European Development Bank (EDB) which all provided funds to these states for their development, it is an astonishing paradox that the economic and political situations in these countries only grew worse over time. While it could be considered that colonial ties and neo-colonial relationship led to the transfer of development funds to bad governments and dictatorial regimes until the early 1980s, the introduction of conditioned aid still did not record any reasonable positive score (Easterly, 2006). When the Structural Adjustment Program – SAP was introduced in the late 1970s, the intention was to “force” bad rulers to implement policies that would bring improvement in their countries. Senegal became the first country to receive a “structural adjustment” loan in 1979 and in the subsequent years many more African countries qualified for these loans (Meredith, 2005: 369). However the situation only got worse and the crisis in these countries became permanent (Meredith, 2005: 375). A good reason why the crisis became worse and permanent could have been the fact that bad governments, which were responsible for these failures, were still in command. According to William Easterly (2006: 133), foreign aid was simply transferred “from being spent by the best government in the world to being spent by the worst”. Why then would the “best governments” in the world continue to finance the worst governments and allow this counter-productive effect which contradicted all the reasoning behind shifting their “tax-payers” money abroad?

African leaders realized that failure to make a radical break with the past and implement “revolutionary” policies that would liberalize the state and their economies, were never responded to with any penalties. Thus, the purpose of the money transfer like its name “development aid” which was to foster development in the receiving countries instead produced the counter-effect and underdevelopment because of bad governments which were not confronted with sanctions in case of misuse of conditioned aid. In Kenya, for example, the government agreed to carry out the same reforms many times in the 1980s and failed to reduce its civil service and liberalize its economy, yet this government received grants which rose from one per cent of the gross domestic product in 1986 to three per cent in 1990 (Meredith 2005: 373). Just as oil and democracy makes a good government less likely—the “natural-resource curse”,—Easterly (2006: 135) writes that “more recent studies have found that there is also an ‘aid curse’”. Most often, corrupt leaders receiving huge aid revenues vigorously oppose democracy to prevent more equal distribution of aid resources—the “aid curse” effect (Easterly, 2006: 135). According to Steve Knack of the World Bank, increased aid “worsens bureaucratic quality and leads to violation of the rule of law with more impunity and to more corruption” (as quoted by Easterly 2006: 136). While Western nations continue to support tyrants and dictators in Africa, because their leadership does not pose any threat to the resource and commodity base economy of Africa which supplies the Western world and their markets, Easterly, concludes that “bad governments attract aid providers just as sinners attract evangelists”, thus if one carries out a thorough control, it is certain that, “donors make government worse”. One of the tyrant rulers who benefited from Western aid at the cost and detriment of his people and country, former Central African Republic ruler Jean-Bedel Bokassa sums up the donor relationship between the West and African rulers with the following words: “We ask the French for money. We get it, and then we waste it” (Der Spiegel, 07/04/2005).

6. The impact of the West as a consequence of the Cold War

West and East rivalry, (that is, the Cold War) was greatly felt on the African continent. While cold war encouraged the interest of the West to spread its democratic ideals, this led to the “evangelization” of Africa by the West during the cold war, and in doing so, encouraged the support for tyrants on the continent. Nevertheless, to push the spread of democracy as the major reason for Western support for Africa would be misleading considering the fact that this support has continued even after the Cold War came to an end. It shall stated that if the intentions are good but the means are not bad, then the result would be bad and this would annul the goals of the good intention. Support for Africa by the West in the form of preserving good relations with tyrant leaders is not only counter-productive but raises a big question about the genuine character of Western support for Africa.

Nevertheless, support for dictators has continued in Africa in different forms even after the end of the cold war. Cold War or not, economic dominance and control continues on the part of the west and with democratically elected
leaders who work towards the superordinate goal of the common good of his people. Thus the West have continued to support or ignore the atrocities of dictators like Theodore Obiang Nguema of Equatorial Guinea. Recently, there have been protests from within and out of Equatorial Guinea to stop UNESCO from instituting a research price bearing the name of this president. The price name, “UNESCO-Obiang Nguema Mbasogo International Prize for Research in the Life Sciences” would honour a president in the likes Idi Amin of Uganda and Mobutu of Zaire like Obiang Nguema for life. This could set precedence for other tyrant to follow. That is, they can commit all the atrocities, deny the people of their right to rule themselves, oppress the people, steal state resources and siphoned state money. All they need is to use an insignificant percentage of the stolen money to institute a “philanthropic” program or award and they will be remembered for their “good work” for forever. Moreso, using the name of a credible and international institution like the UNESCO. In a letter to Ms. Irina Bokova, Director-General of UNESCO, Equatoguinean and international scholars and professionals are asking UNESCO to reconsider its decision to establish the UNESCO-Obiang Nguema International Prize for Research in the Life Sciences, and abolish this award named for and funded by President Teodoro Obiang Nguema Mbasogo of Equatorial Guinea (Pambazuka News, 26/02/2010). As noted in this letter and by other opponents (Lynch, 29/04/2010) of this prize worth some US $ 3,000,000, Equatorial Guinea with a population well under one million (633,441 according to CIA World Fact book 2009 estimate) and the fourth highest oil producer in Sub-Sahara still spends the least on Education despite the country’s very high GDP per capita (according to CIA World Fact Book 2009, it has 30 best GDP per capita in the world). Supporting their arguments on United Nations Development Program report of 2009, scholars and professionals from Equatorial Guinea argue that educational standards in the country is amongst the lowest on the continent and amongst the country’s of the 2009 UNDP report the government of Equatorial Guinea’s spending on education was the lowest of all the countries included in the report from 2000 to 2009 (Pambazuka News, 26/02/2010). From this recent move by the UNESCO the needs of the African people as much as it is ignored by their rulers is not the concern of the West. On the contrary, these leaders can put their name of the world stage through a “misappropriation” or “wrong allocation” of state funds for their private benefits and to the detriment of their states: all this with the “aid” of the West.

7. Neo-Partyism, Post-Colonialism and Poverty in Nigeria

The post colonial state of Nigeria has witnessed a snail-pace progress towards a sustainable good governance and development. There is widespread disillusionment and this is exacerbated by the increase in ethno-religious violence and terrorism. This situation is pervasive in most developing nations. This is because one quarter of the world’s people continues to live in absolute poverty, unable to meet their most basic needs and surviving on less than a dollar a day (UN, 2010). Over one hundred million children of school age are denied the right to a basic education and in Sub-Saharan Africa, the absolute and proportionate number of children out of school is rising. Each year, half a million women die in child-birth because they have no access to simple and affordable antenatal health care. Many children who are under five years die from malnutrition, malaria, measles and other preventable diseases.

Using poverty indicators such as literacy levels, access to safe water, nutrition, infant and maternal mortality and the number of people living on less than one dollar a day, Nigeria ranks among the 25 poorest countries in the world below Kenya, Ghana and Zambia (World Bank 2002). This is still the case despite successive governments efforts and resources devoted to fighting poverty.

Different scholars have given definitions of poverty. For instance, Watt (2005) defined poverty as a state of being in which one is unable to meet their needs. Baratz and Grisgby (1992) defined poverty as a condition involving some deprivation and adverse occurrences that are closely (but not necessarily exclusively) associated with inadequate economic resources. Edozien, (1975) perceives of poverty as inadequacy of income to support a minimum standard of living.

There is absolute and relative poverty while absolute poverty is a situation in which people are barely existing, where the next meal may literally be a matter of life or death as the cumulative effects of malnutrition and starvation enfeeble all, particularly children, whose weakness given them the tragic distinction of having the highest mortality rate for any group anywhere in the world in the world. Relative poverty is opined by Townsend (1979) as: Individual, families and groups in the population can be said to be in poverty when they lack the resources to obtain the types of diet, participate in the activities and have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or at least widely encouraged or approved in the societies in which they belong. Their resources are so seriously below those commended by the average individual or family that they are in effect, excluded from ordinary living patterns, customs and activities. (Townsend, 1979:31).
The first attempt at measuring poverty in Nigeria was in 1980 by the Federal office of Statistics (FOS). It was shown in the report emanating from this exercise that 27.2 percent of the population or 18 million people were classified as poor (Kahlid, 2009). By 1985, the Federal Office of Statistics estimated that about 46 percent Nigerians live below poverty line. This rate surged to 66 percent in 1996. Survey and the total at close to 70 percent or 90 million people.

The phenomenon of poverty appears to be more concentrated in the rural than in the urban areas of the country. According to the World Bank Report (1999), the number of rural poor is roughly twice that of the urban poor. Of the extremely poor, 85 percent live in the rural areas and more than two-thirds lived on farms. The distribution of the population has a geographic bias.

There are several explanations for poverty. One school of thought holds that poverty comes as a result of personal failing. This presupposes that people are poor because of personal trait. These traits in turn have cause the person to fail. These traits range from personality characteristics such as laziness, to educational levels. This follows that persons are poor because of the individual’s personal failure to climb out of poverty. This assertion is anchored on meritocracy and Newman (1994) is of the view that those who are worthy are rewarded and those who fail to worthy of rewards must also lack self worth.

Another school hinges its argument on structural failing – this posits that key social and economic structural failing contribute heavily to poverty. This manifest in form of the failure of the job market to provide a proper amount of jobs which pay enough to keep families out of poverty.

Yet another school holds that poverty was a cultural characterization. This school outlines twenty cultural factors which depending on the culture’s view of each can be indicators as to whether the cultural environment is favourable or resistant to development. These factors are values, mental models, etc.

Poverty is also a label – this means that the way poverty is approached, defined, and thus thought about play a role in its perpetuation. Maia Green (2006) explains that modern development literature tends to view poverty as agency filled. When agency is prescribed agency, it becomes something that happens to people. Poverty absorbs people into itself and the people in turn become a part of poverty, devoid of their human characteristics.

Poverty is also perceived as a restriction of opportunities where a person’s life in the environment determines daily decisions and action based on what is present and what is not. The poor’s daily practice of navigating the world of poverty generates a fluency in the poverty environment but a near illiteracy in the environment of the larger society.

8. Poverty Eradication in Nigeria

Different governments in Nigeria have tried different policies and programmes geared towards reducing the level of poverty in the society through a number of ways – through the activities of ministries and agencies, collaborating with international agencies and through the establishment of agencies equipped solely to fight rising poverty in Nigeria. These agencies include among others:

- National Directorate of Employment (NDE)
- People’s Bank of Nigeria (PBN)
- Nigerian Agricultural & Co-operative Bank Ltd
- Nigerian Agricultural Insurance Corporation

9. Poverty in Cross River State and Bette

Several decades ago, a development specialist opined that the framework for measuring development in any community is anchored on three structures: The state of absolute poverty, the rate of unemployment and the degree of inequality. If these parameters are improving, then development in this area is on course and if it is dwindling, then there is no improvement.

Consequent upon the foregoing, the effect of neo-partyism, neo-colonialism side by side poverty reduction in the study area is assessed based on the three basic questions raised by a Dudley See as quoted by Todaro and Smith, 2005).

The poverty level of Cross River State and Bette has remained unchanged showing no signs of decline. This is in spite of the fact that copious sums of money and loud noises are being made about public relations. These programmes have simply become political instruments rather than real desire to address poverty. This is attributed according to Inqine (2009) that the governments of the state and the local government failed to target poverty reduction and unemployment within their jurisdiction. Moreover, the culture of implementing development and poverty reduction programmes without
evidence (information produced by analyzing data) and as a result the area failed to improve on its poverty level because of their inability to apply existing socio-economic evidence to plan. There is existing evidence of gross poverty and unemployment resulting in under-employment, economic stagnation, declined, valuelessness have remained at a high level since 2004.

Persisting poverty in Cross River State and among Bette manifests in a recent reliable official statistics of 2007 revealing that unemployment and under-employment was at a very high level. The national composite unemployment index/rates remained unchanged between 2002 and December 2006 (NBS, 2007). The total under employed youth aged 15 years and older was 12.0 percent with males forming 15.2 percent and females constituting 9.0 percent (National bureau of Statistics, 2007).

Other indicators have also shown that there is enormous poverty in Cross River State. For instance, in 2007, there was a high rate of child labour in the state. Children aged 5 to 14 years who worked in family businesses were 59.8 percent compared to only 3.2 percent in Bauchi State (Nigeria, 2007).

It has also been shown that there is a persistence of poverty in the state. A large proportion of the state’s population is energy poor because a disproportionately large number (536) households in the state in the South-South region (74.9 percent of households in the state resorted to using solid fuels (a description of unprocessed and health risky wood, frequently wet and poor combusters, waste of animals and plant matter, such as cow dung, charcoal and so forth) for cooking (Nigeria, 2007). This tragic scenario turns out to be interesting because the government within the same period promised reliable and stable electricity supply that could have prevented the large scale use of dirty and dangerous energy sources (Inigne, 2009).

The factors responsible for this scenario are multifaceted. On one level, there is very limited participatory planning, this is because stakeholders are only invited to make comments as members of the public after major planning actions and decisions have been taken. This is usually with a handout mentality especially during electioneering campaigns and such other dubious political activities particularly for the purpose of soliciting for votes and political patronage.

There is also the structural and institutional weakness in the state planning commission replete in the lack of a platform for collaborating with stakeholders. Another dimension is the lack of government’s appreciation of and willingness to offer finance and material support to deliberate efforts at reducing poverty levels in the state.

10. Recommendations and Concluding Remarks

The discussion on poverty reduction and its failure in African States has been illuminating and has shown that many factors are responsible for this state of affairs. The colonial experience and the emerging new neo partyism and neo-colonialism has created a situation whereby the emerging African elites make very large and bifurcated noise about poverty reduction, meanwhile, both rural and urban areas of Nigeria remain very poor and backward. It is recommended that the entire structural profile of poverty reduction beginning from needs identification, prioritization of such needs, planning and implementation of poverty reduction programmes must be all inclusive and participatory laying great emphasis on the target clientele-the poor.

Beyond this, poverty reduction efforts must be de-politicised, removed from the whims and caprices of political players who no doubt will prefer to use these programmes as instruments for political bargaining. Poverty reduction can be assigned in the realm of ‘real’ judiciaries that are seen to be impartial arbiters and insulated from political manipulations.

Above all, mass actions and mass participation must be cultivated and encouraged at all cost a way of resisting the continued internal colonization and subjugation by pseudo – colonialist strapped between sane western civilization and primordial greed for power and affluence.

In doing this, the masses will be empowered to demand explanations and answers to pertinent questions and paradoxes of State mis- governance. Perhaps, this way the Bette people, to wit the rural African poor could be moving slowly out of abject poverty.

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Virtual Reality as a New Approach to Assess Cognitive Decline in the Elderly

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Abstract

Brain aging is a natural process that leads to a change in cognitive functions. Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI) is a condition in which a person has cognitive functions that are below normal for his age. However, these deficits are not pronounced enough to confirm for the diagnosis of dementia. It is therefore important to develop new ways to assess cognitive functions in the elderly. This would indeed lead to a better identification of the cognitive losses that are related to normal or pathological aging. The objective of this study was to investigate the relevance of virtual reality as a new evaluation approach in psychology. To do this, 10 elderly people with Mild Cognitive Impairment, and 20 elderly people without cognitive problems, were compared using tests of prospective memory that were presented in a traditional way and in virtual reality. The diagnosis of MCI was made using the Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA). Significant differences between the two groups were noted in virtual reality. Nevertheless, no difference was observed between the two groups with the traditional task. A significant positive correlation between the virtual reality task and the MoCA, but not between the traditional task and the MoCA, was observed. An evaluative approach based on virtual reality seems more sensitive to cognitive impairment associated with aging than an approach based on traditional neuropsychological tests.

1. Introduction

1.1 Cognitive aging

Like the rest of the body, the brain is affected by the effects of aging. This phenomenon is a natural process that causes changes in cognitive functions. However, several intra-individual and inter-individual differences make difficult the description of a typical profile of the natural decline (Christensen, 2001). Throughout the aging, several cognitive domains are affected, some before others. We know, for example, that knowledge “crystallized” (eg vocabulary or general knowledge), is resistant to aging into old age and begins to show a decline very late. In contrast, memory and psychomotor speed showed a continuous decline since the end of adulthood (Christensen, 2001).
Cognitive aging is a field of research increasingly studied and gives rise to new concepts. Among them, the concept of "Mild Cognitive Impairment" (MCI) is an important step in the diagnostic level. The MCI is a zone between normal aging and dementia. It refers to people who get results below the norms on neuropsychological tests, but without matching the diagnostic criteria for dementia (Petersen, 1999). They also remain independent in activities of daily living. The rate of conversion of MCI to dementia is between 10 to 15% for MCI compared to 1-2% for non-MCI (Geda et al., 2008; Geda et al., 2004; Muangpaisan et al., 2008; Peters et al., 2008).

1.2 Aging of the prospective memory

In recent years, researchers have begun to pay more attention to the decline of prospective memory in aging. By definition, prospective memory is memory that allows us to remember to do what we have to do (Ellis, 1996). It is the memory of daily activities, which for example allows us to remember to go buy bread when we go home after work.

Prospective memory is particularly vulnerable to age-related decline due to the greater contribution of internal control mechanisms to succeed in this kind of tasks (Luo & Craik, 2008). Self-initiation needed to accomplish a task of prospective memory would be greater than in a retrospective memory task. Indeed, a significant effect of age on self-initiation processes has been observed in the literature (Einstein et al., 2012).

Prospective memory difficulties are also present in MCI, and may be a good indicator of early cognitive decline. Indeed, Huppert and Beardsall (1993) showed that prospective memory is particularly affected in very early stages of Alzheimer's disease and prospective memory tasks are more sensitive to detect people at the beginning of this disease. Recent studies have found that people with MCI had more prospective difficulties in comparing control groups (Kazui et al., 2005; Troyer et al., 2007). Costa et al. (2010) also indicated that prospective memory was affected in MCI.

1.3 Evaluation Approaches

Traditional neuropsychological assessment is based on "paper and pencil" type tests. For the evaluation of MCI, the main tools are the Mini-Mental Test (MMSE-Folstein et al., 1975), or the Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA-Nasreddine et al., 2005). These screening tools determine the presence or absence of cognitive impairment. Within these tests, which are administered quickly within 10 to 20 minutes, we find memory, naming, abstraction, attention, visuo-construction and mental flexibility subtests.

On prospective memory, few standardized tools remain available for neuropsychological assessment. Those that exist are often self-assessment questionnaires, or questionnaires completed by patients' relatives.

Despite the fact that these traditional tests are used by the majority of neuropsychologists and are very useful when making diagnoses, they have some limitations.

Ecological validity, which is defined as the degree of similarity between the lives of the participant and evaluation requirements, remains relatively limited. With the advancement of knowledge in neuropsychology, ecological validity is increasingly a factor to consider. Greater ecological validity of a test, the easier it is to predict the function of the person in his daily life. Some memory tests with greater ecological validity are available. The Rivermead Behavioral Memory Test (RBMT) (Wilson et al., 1989, 2000) is an interesting alternative to traditional tests in assessing memory. The RBMT is an ecological tool, since it evaluates various aspects of everyday memory (making appointments, leave a message, face recognition, etc.). Despite the fact that this tool allows a comprehensive assessment of memory and, more specifically, prospective memory, this test does not, however, present all aspects of real life. There is still much work to be done to improve the ecological validity of neuropsychological assessment tools and it is important to consider this factor in the development of new assessment techniques.

1.4 Virtual reality

Virtual reality is a technology that allows a user to navigate and interact in real time with three-dimensional objects and computer-simulated environments (Pratt et al., 1995). This technique has an ecological character. It is therefore possible to develop assessment tools that greatly resemble everyday functioning, which could correct in part the limitations of traditional tests. In addition to its ecological character, virtual reality has several advantages. It allows immersion in environments without risk of injury. It is a dynamic environment that fosters motivation participant. Finally, it offers a high level of control for the assessors, both in terms of the presentation of stimuli and for recording scores.
2. **Objective and Hypothesis**

In summary: elderly population is steadily growing, which results in a proportional increase in some cognitive problems. MCI is an intermediate zone between normal aging and dementia processes. The development of a new assessment tool would allow early detection of MCI and faster care for patients. The evaluation using virtual reality could provide a complement to traditional neuropsychological tests providing a more ecological and more sensitive tool to detect cognitive decline related to age.

The purpose of this study was to demonstrate the relevance of virtual reality as a new evaluation approach in neuropsychology.

It is expected that the task in virtual reality show greater sensitivity to deficits associated with MCI than the traditional task of prospective memory, because of the ecological nature takes virtual reality.

3. **Method**

3.1 **Participants**

Group 1 consisted of 10 people diagnosed with MCI. They were 8 men and 2 women whose average age was 64.80 years (SD = 2.50 years). Group 2 consisted of 20 participants with no cognitive problems. These 11 men and 9 women formed the control group. The average age of this group was 63.25 years (SD = 2.98 years). There was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of age (t (28) = 1.41, p > .05) and gender (X2 = 1.90, p > .05).

3.2 **Instrument for the diagnosis of MCI**

The diagnosis of MCI was made using the Montreal Cognitive Assessment Test (MoCA), which was developed by Nasreddine et al., (2005). The MoCA was designed to assess mild cognitive dysfunction. It evaluates the following functions: attention, concentration, executive functions, memory, language, visuoconstructives capabilities, capacity for abstraction, calculation and orientation. This test takes about 10 minutes. The maximum number of points is 30, a score of 26 or above is considered normal. MoCA has good values in terms of its validity and fidelity. All participants in Group 1 had a score of 25 or less. All participants in Group 2 had a score of 26 and over.

3.3 **Instruments to assess prospective memory in traditional condition**

Prospective memory in traditional condition was based on the most commonly cited ecological neuropsychological tool in the literature: the Rivermead Behavioural Memory Test (RBMT-Wilson et al., 1989, 2000). The participant's first task was to ask the experimenter for a business card, halfway through the assessment; the external cue was given by the experimenter. In the second task, having lent the experimenter a personal item, the participant had to ask for it back at the end of the assessment; the external cue was given by the context, i.e. the end of the experimentation. Before proceeding with the experiment, each participant had to correctly state what the two prospective-memory tasks were. The variable used for analysis was the total score on these two subtests. The maximum score was 13 points. A high score indicates good performance in traditional prospective-memory tasks.

3.4 **Instrument for assessing prospective memory in virtual reality**

The prospective-memory assessment in virtual reality began with a scenario designed to render the task more realistic to everyday life. During the briefing, the participant was informed that he/she would soon have to move to a new apartment in a new city. The task was to visit two apartments (one small and one large) and choose the one he/she would rather live in. The participant was informed that his/her voice would be recorded during the visit and that he/she must give opinions on the apartments based on his/her personal tastes and needs and on practical housing considerations. Over the course of carrying out this task (which we designate here as the ‘ongoing task’), the participant was also responsible for performing three prospective-memory tasks: picking up a lease in the smaller apartment and not in the larger apartment; feeding a fish (while saying “I am feeding the fish”) upon seeing that the clock showed 11:41; and turning off a fan (while saying “click”) in the master bedroom of the large apartment. The maximum score was 14 points. A high score indicates good performance in virtual prospective-memory tasks.
3.5 Materials and procedure

The virtual-reality experiment was conducted using a personal computer (Dell XPS M1530, operating system: Windows Vista) equipped with an nVidia 8600M graphics card GTO supporting video-game environments as well as an eMagin Z800 immersion lens (resolution: 600 x 800) with an integrated head tracker (360 ° horizontal and 60 ° vertical). Movement in the virtual environment was controlled with a standard Logitech mouse. The virtual environments used in this study were created by Bouchard et al (Cyberpsychology Laboratory, University of Quebec in Outaouais http://w3.uqo.ca/cyberpsy), and inserted into the video game Max Payne™. Participants had to visit a virtual city (learning phase) and then visit the two virtual apartments. The results were directly compiled into a database using FileMaker Pro 8™ software.

The study procedure was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of Quebec at Trois-Rivières.

4. Results

The presentation of results is done in two parts. The first part presents the results of comparisons of means tests for traditional and virtual prospective memory. These analysis were designed to verify that Group 1 participants were distinguished from Group 2 participants in each of these tests, using t-tests. The reader can find the results of the two groups in Table 1. The second part of this section focuses on the links between traditional and virtual tests of prospective memory, using Pearson correlations.

4.1 Group comparisons to traditional and virtual tests of prospective memory

The t-test applied to the results of the two groups on the total score of prospective memory in the traditional task showed that there was no difference between the two groups (t (28) = -0.63, p = .53).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Prospective Memory Task (Total</td>
<td>MCI</td>
<td>9.65</td>
<td>2.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score /13</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>10.30</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virtual Prospective Memory Task</td>
<td>MCI</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Total score /14)</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>3.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the t-test applied to the results of the two groups on the total score of prospective memory in the virtual task showed a significant difference between the two groups (t (28) = 2.73, p = .01).

4.2 Correlations between traditional and virtual tasks of prospective memory and diagnosis of MCI

The following analyzes were designed to investigate the relationship between the two types of prospective memory tasks (traditional and virtual) and diagnostic test of MCI. The results showed a significant correlation between the prospective memory task in virtual reality and the MoCA (r = .45, p = .01). However, there was no correlation between the traditional task of prospective memory and the MoCA score (r = -.06, p = .76).

5. Discussion

First, the results of the present study support the findings of previous studies that had demonstrated impaired prospective memory in MCI participants (Costa et al., 2010; Beardsall & Huppert, 1993; Kazui et al., 2005; Troyer et al., 2007).

Secondly, the results of this study support the hypothesis that an evaluative approach based on virtual reality is more sensitive to the effects of MCI than traditional neuropsychological tasks. These results can be explained by the ecological nature of virtual environments. These would require more cognitive resources to perform the tasks. Situations of everyday life are more complex than the tasks typically used in neuropsychological assessment. Virtual reality seems to reach a level of complexity that better reflects the functioning of the person in real life. Moreover, the team of Werner et al., (2009) also demonstrated, using a complex task presented in virtual reality (the virtual action planning supermarket),
that MCI participants had performed significantly worse.

However, it is important to be cautious in interpreting the results. Indeed, other aspects of the ecological nature of virtual reality can explain the results. For example it is possible that other traditional tasks of prospective memory, more complex than that used, may allow to observe similar results to those obtained in virtual reality. It is also possible that the results in virtual reality depends not only on the ability of the prospective memory of the participants but also their ability to operate the equipment. Virtual reality still seems promising in the neuropsychological evaluation of several neurological pathologies (Klinger et al., 2006; Nolin et al., 2012; Rizzo et al., 2000), and represents a complementary tool to traditional neuropsychological assessment. It therefore seems important and appropriate to continue research in this area.

References


The Economic Effect of the Fertilization of the Increment of the Production and on the Amelioration of the Quality of the Tobacco

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Abstract
Combination utilization of nitrogen- phosphates and potassium fertilization in the studied proportions has a direct impact on the production increment and in the amelioration of the quality of the tobaccos. Fertilization maintains a weight proportion between the carbohydrates and proteins, which should be 1.5 – 2 favouring the carbohydrates. The best proportion is in the variant N40P60K40-60. Tobacco reacts toward soil fertility and the fertilization by assimilating nutrient elements, which are in them to complete its biological indispensable requirements. It has been determinate that 1 kv tobacco product should assimilate 4.1 kg N, 1.6 kg P and 7.0 kg K. The augmentation of the production quality is very important in the tobacco cultivation because on this depends its use value, to be as much aromatic as possible, testily and as little as possible harmful for the consumer. In this study was proved the combination of doses of nitrogen, phosphate and potassium fertilization in each other's background, in determined proportion among them. The doses of nitrogen fertilization from 40kg/ha to 90kg/ha active nitrogen were studied in the background of 60kg/ha phosphor, 60kg/ha background of 40kg/ha active nitrogen and 60kg/ha active potassium; phosphor doses of 40-90kg/ha are also studied in details, while the effects of potassium fertilization was determinate in the background N40 P60kg/ha.

Keywords: Consumer benefit, product quality, direct impact, used value.

1. Introduction
In this paper we present a scientific way and on the basis of data processing, greater economic importance of tobacco production that represents and influence in our country. This matter arising as a result of great potential that we have to produce and to reduce the levels of imports and negative impact on the Albania economy, based in production and consumption of tobacco.

Combination utilization of nitrogen- phosphates and potassium fertilization in the studied proportions has a direct impact on the production increment and in the amelioration of the quality of the tobaccos. Fertilization maintains a weight
proportion between the carbohydrates and proteins, which should be 1.5 – 2 favouring the carbohydrates. The best proportion is in the variant N40P60K40-60.

2. Material and Methods

Tobacco reacts toward soil fertility and the fertilization by assimilating nutrient elements, which are in them to complete its biological indispensable requirements. It has been determined that 1 kv tobacco product should assimilate 4.1 kg N, 1.6 kg P and 7.0 kg K. The augmentation of the production quality is very important in the tobacco cultivation because on this depends its use value, to be as much aromatic as possible, testily and as little as possible harmful for the consumer.

In this study was proved the combination of doses of nitrogen, phosphate and potassium fertilization in each other’s background, in determined proportion among them. The doses of nitrogen fertilization from 40kg/ha to 90kg/ha active nitrogen were studied in the background of 60kg/ha phosphor, 60kg/ha background of 40kg/ha active nitrogen and 60kg/ha active potassium; phosphor doses of 40-90kg/ha are also studied in details, while the effects of potassium fertilization was determinate in the background N40 P60kg/ha.

3. Results and Discussion

The plant’s measurements show that the effect of fertilization is different regarding the bio –metric endears as are plant’s length, the leaf’s number and their dimensions (Table 1). In the variant where 90kg/ha active nitrogen matters are used, plants are 55 cm longer then in control sample and 15 – 20 cm higher than in the variants when phosphor and potassium is used, while in variants without phosphate, plants are less grown. The combined nitrogen, phosphate and potassium fertilization directly influences the productivity and the amelioration of tobacco qualities (Table 2).

It is indispensable that for the production of high quality tobacco, the content of nicotine shouldn’t be higher the 1 - 25 % and that of nitrogen shouldn’t be higher 2 – 3 %. When the dose of phosphor and potassium was increased from 40 to 90 kg/ha, the content of carbohydrates was increased 8.1 – 9.3 %. The same trend is noticed regarding proteins, which are increased when the quality of nitrogen fertilization is increased from 5.3 to 6.7 %.

Table 1. Biometric indexes of plant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Variants</th>
<th>Plant growth</th>
<th>Dimensions of leaves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Highness cm</td>
<td>Augmentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Towards control cm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>P60K60</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>P60K60N40</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>P60K60N60</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>P60K60N90</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>N40K60</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>N40K60P40</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>N40K60P90</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>N40P60</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>N40P60K40</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>N40P60K90</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Tobacco plants by Albanian farms
Table 2. Productivity and quality of tobacco

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Variants</th>
<th>Productivity</th>
<th>Augmentation towards control</th>
<th>Quality of I – III class %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1985</td>
<td>1986</td>
<td>1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>P60K60</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>P60K60N40</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>P60K60N60</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>P60K60N90</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>N40K60</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>N40K60P40</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>N40K60P90</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>N40P60</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>N40P60K40</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>N40P60K90</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the analyses of variable, tobacco production and quality indicator shows that the average yield (for 3 years) is: DMV = 0.01 – 2.3.

4. Production and Marketing of Tobacco in Albania

Based on the important results of the case study that which suggest great economic importance of tobacco production in the country we find very important to make an analysis of the production of tobacco in the last 20 years.

Since 1991, the market of tobacco today is very different. At that time there were only a distribution company. While other brands of cigarettes supplied by different vendors. Then, begins to rise as the domestic industry producing cigarettes "English Tobacco", which started its operations in 1994 with a production capacity of 1000 tons. But this factory production gradually decreased until it closed its doors in anticipation of a foreign investor. The same fate also suffered Cigarette Tobacco Factory in Durres, which has dozens of years of tradition, the first years ’44. She has been leading cigarette factory in Bangladesh.

Almost all state factories came from year to year and consumption is declining gradually replaced by imports, although in Albania as factories, as well as tobacco. About 50000 families working in tobacco cultivation in hilly and mountainous areas that have had little income. Only tobacco industry employed 5,000 people and produced until '91 25000 tons of cigarettes per year. Our country at that time cigarettes consumed about 5,000 which and 20000 tonnes were exported mainly to other Eastern countries, not excluding the West with an amount several thousand tons.

Until 1999 it was the differential excise domestic production and import it, and reflect the percentage of the market value had cigarette packages. Until this year, Customs has been over 40% for imported cigarettes except excise was very high, 40% of the value, which was and some protection of domestic production. Other states still have to this day still very high.

There were large differences in market prices do not exist. Until 1999 Excise and occupied 135% of the cigarette package that came from imports. In this year he became the reduction of excise and customs duties, this burden does not take more than 40-50% of the value and of course it is in favor of imports. So the market was oriented towards the latter. Actually consumed only imported cigarettes. While growing tobacco is only for export. Albanian Tobacco collected from two Greek companies abroad in order to recover.
Almost all companies have had a decrease in the number of customers at the time of cigarette packs wrote “Tobacco seriously damages health” and other inscriptions like these. They claim that when it is introduced in the market inscription in Albanian, the customer is the impression that the package is produced only for Albania. Production of cigarette factories in other countries is the same quality for all countries, companies say. Only cardboard printed in Albanian, so therefore the quality is the same.

Consumer mentality has to do with the selection of a product without stamp. Starting from children to sell roads, premises or waiters and other trading items, the opportunity to buy a pack of two choices conditioned, with or without stamp, creating the impression that the product is not original stamp and stamp it with is false. The fact that the extent of such smuggling have been in 2000 does not mean that it is just a matter of control and marketing, but is also a matter of mentality of the market, where consumers prefer to choose the product of uncontrolled ultimately may be very old or fake. A product that can be produced in plants authorized, may have circulated through commercial channels for a very long time getting old.

This product may have 5 or 6 years. So, perception and mindset is very important.

About 40 percent of the cigarettes sold in Albania in the years 200 enter the market through smuggling. Scandalous figures emerged in a study conducted by several universities recognized experts, under the Center for Tobacco Research and Monitoring (England), with funding billionaire “Microsoft” Bill Gates. The higher figure refers to some other countries with emerging economies, such as Bolivia, Uzbekistan and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The highest level of smuggling results have state of Georgia, with about 50 percent. Another concern for researchers, in addition to declining revenue from tax evasion is linked to the health of consumers. According to the study, smoking introduced in the market through smuggling is poor quality and cheap cost, causing death every year about 132 thousand people. Foundation funded by Bill Gates does not provide the trade of cigarettes in Albania, but notes that the bulk of their entering smuggling are not of good quality.

Some time ago, “English” published the latest figures on the level of clearance of cigarettes at customs for the period January-April 2011. Official data from the Directorate General of Customs show a collection at up to 12.5 million dollars, for the period January-April 2011. In quantity, customs clearance reports a level about 954 tons, about 200 tons less than the first four months of 2010. As market value, turnover tobacco imports about 25 million dollars, with half going to taxes, as a result of increased excise taxes in 2009.

Another project funded by the Americans, it turns out that 4000 people were asked in rural and urban areas of different ages, which indicate that tobacco consumption is higher than what is stated, as about 27 percent of smuggled tobacco in country avoiding all fiscal obligations and increased risk for Albanians. Every year in Bangladesh 3800 premature deaths occur from tobacco consumption.

5. Conclusions

The case study conclusion

- The use of N40 – N90 kg/ha nitrogen dose in the background of P60K60 kg/ha, increases the tobacco productivity up to 19.4, obtaining an augmentation of 5.3 higher than the background.
- The use of 40 up to 90kg/ha active matter phosphate in the background of N40P60 kg/ha interfaces of N40P60 kg/ha the use of potassium dose of 40 – 90 kg/ha active matter increases the productivity 17.1.
- The use of 40 -90 kg/ha active matter potassium dose in the background of N40P60 kg/ha interfaces the productivity up to 18.5,obtaining an augmentation of 8.7 higher then the control sample.
- The use of potassium fertilizers in nitrogen- potassium background, improves the tobacco quality and the other indicators such as burn, aromatic herband its pleasantness.

In Albania in 2013 for the tobacco market consists of distributors world-famous parent companies. Who have divided between them the domestic market? Each of these companies has brought to Albania more than two types of marks, with the result that consumers find different flavour cigarettes.

With a tough fight to claim as many smokers among Albanians market, companies use various forms of marketing. Now coming back to the tradition of offering packages in public places, where in some cases they are even free.

Referring to data excise stamps from the Directorate General of Taxation Currently, half of the cigarette market is divided between two large companies, while the rest of the market belongs 4 small companies. But according to the amount of excise tax paid by distributors of cigarettes, in 2012, were circulated over 15 billion All, by selling different brands of cigarettes.

Based on the important results of the case study and the results of the Albanian market research we find very
important economic indicators that suggests us that we should produce and manufacture this plant in Albania.

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Emerging Challenges to Global Governance in 21st Century

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Abstract

Global governance— the collective management of common problems at the international level—is at a critical juncture. Although global governance has been a relative success since its development after the Second World War, the growing number of issues on the international agenda, and their complexity, is outpacing the ability of international organizations and national governments to cope. Power shifts are also complicating global governance. If global governance structures and processes do not keep up with the changes in the balance of power in the international system, they run the risk of becoming irrelevant. Emerging powers are suspicious of current institutional arrangements, which appear to favor established powers. Without adequate frameworks to bring order to an international system in flux, disorder could prevail, fueling greater instability. The mix of old and new challenges generates new requirements for collective problem-solving: more international cooperation and innovative approaches. The United States’ National Intelligence Council (NIC) and the European Union’s Institute for Security Studies (EUISS) have recently projected the long-term prospects for global governance by the mid-21st century. Two important documents have emerged out of this exercise. One is Global Trends 2025: A Transformed World. The other is The New Global Puzzle. What World for the EU in 2025?

1. Introduction

Global governance – the collective management of common problems at the international level – is at a critical juncture. Although global governance institutions have racked up many successes since they were developed after the Second World War, the growing number of issues on the international agenda, and their complexity, is outpacing the ability of international organisations and national governments to cope. With the emergence of rapid globalisation, the risks to the international system have grown to the extent that formerly localised threats are no longer locally containable but are now potentially dangerous to global security and stability (NIC, 2011). China, India, Brazil and other fast-growing economies has taken economic interdependence to a new level. The multiple links among climate change and resources issues, the economic crisis, and state fragility – ‘hubs’ of risks for the future – illustrate the interconnected nature of the challenges on the international agenda today. The shift to a multipolar world is complicating the prospects for effective global governance. The expanding economic clout of emerging powers increases their political influence well beyond their borders. Power is not only shifting from established powers to rising countries and, to some extent, the developing world, but also towards non-state actors.

At the beginning of the century, threats such as ethnic conflicts, infectious diseases, and terrorism as well as a new generation of global challenges including climate change, energy security, food and water scarcity, international migration flows and new technologies are increasingly taking centre stage.

The multiple links among climate change and resources issues, the economic crisis, and state fragility – ‘hubs’ of risks for the future – illustrate the interconnected nature of the challenges on the international agenda today. Many of the issues cited above involve interwoven domestic and foreign challenges. Domestic politics creates tight constraints on international cooperation and reduces the scope for compromise. Diverse perspectives on and suspicions about global governance, which is seen as a Western concept, will add to the difficulties of effectively mastering the growing number of challenges.

2. Systemic Risk in the 21st Century

Recent decades of globalisation have created a more interconnected, interdependent and complex world than ever witnessed before. While global policy has focused on facilitating integration, the implications of growing interdependence have been largely ignored. While the acceleration in global integration has brought many benefits, it has also created fragility through the underlying production of new kinds of systemic risks. It is essential to conceptualize the systemic risk
in the 21st Century and examine the challenges it poses to global governance regimes. The 2008-2009 financial crisis illustrates the failure of even sophisticated global institutions to manage the underlying forces of systemic risk, and this is symptomatic of institutional failure to keep pace with globalisation. The lessons from the financial crisis highlight the real threat of systemic risk to other 21st Century challenges, but more importantly, they expose the profound shortcomings of global institutions to manage global systemic risks in the future. The failure of the most developed and best-equipped global governance system, finance, to recognize or manage the new vulnerabilities associated with globalisation in the 21st Century highlights the scale and urgency of the challenge.

3. Policy Implications

- The rise of systemic risk requires a systemic response. Effective global governance and policy development has never been so necessary and urgent.
- The financial crisis illustrated that current global financial institutions are inadequate in their policy response to systemic risk and cannot keep pace with innovation and increasing system complexity in global finance. Deeper structural changes are required, including with respect to regulatory reforms.
- The institutional rigidity and profound shortcomings of global institutions applies not only to global finance, but to other looming systemic risks in the future. Neither the current global governance system, nor the planned reforms, meets the test of addressing new global systemic risks.
- Global governance requires radical structural changes in existing institutions and the development of new global institutions that reflect the realities of new global power balances and address the forces of systemic risk in the 21st Century. (NIC, 2011)


The report “Global Governance 2025: At a Critical Juncture” was a collaborative effort between the two allies and could serve as a harbinger of greater coordination in the future that is forward-looking and pro-active rather than merely in response to a particular crisis.

The report submitted on 20 January 2011 refers to the United States' National Intelligence Council and the European Union's Institute for Security Studies which recently concluded that current governance frameworks will be unable to keep pace with looming global challenges unless extensive reforms are implemented.

India's rise has not only made investors across the globe happy but has also been acknowledged by the "Global Governance 2025" jointly issued by the National Intelligence Council (NIC) of the US and the European Union's Institute for Security Studies (EUISS, 2006) ranking India as the third most powerful country in the world after the US and China and the fourth most powerful bloc after the US, China and the European Union.

Global Governance 2025 is the result of an inclusive process, enriched by wide-ranging consultations with government officials; as well as business, academic, NGO, and think tank leaders; and media representatives in Brazil, China, India, Japan, Russia, South Africa, and in the Gulf region (the UAE). The diversity of the comments and insights, which we have included in the body of the text, testifies both to the richness of the debate and to the difficulty of reconciling different interests and standpoints when reforming global governance. A number of experts, acknowledged elsewhere have contributed to the success of this project and to the high quality of this report. The Atlantic Council of the US and the Transatlantic Policy Network have been partners in supporting the project. Global Governance 2025 provides an important step with a view to future joint projects on matters of common interest.

5. Major Reccomendations

It provides an important step with a view to future joint projects on matters of common interest. Global governance—the collective management of common problems at the international level—is at a critical juncture. Although global governance has been a relative success since its development after the Second World War, the growing number of issues on the international agenda, and international organizations and national governments to cope. Power shifts are also complicating global governance.

Some progress has been made to adjust international institutions and regimes to meet the new demands and to create workarounds, if not new frameworks. Such efforts are unlikely to suffice, however. If global governance structures and processes do not keep up with the changes in the balance of power in the international system, they run the risk of
becoming irrelevant. Emerging powers are suspicious of current institutional arrangements, which appear to favor established powers. Without adequate frameworks to bring order to an international system in flux, disorder could prevail, fueling greater instability. The mix of old and new challenges generates new requirements for collective problem-solving: more international cooperation and innovative approaches. Much will depend on leadership and political will.

The term “global governance” as used in this paper includes all the institutions, regimes, processes, partnerships, and networks that contribute to collective action and problem solving at the international level. Global governance does not equate to world government, which would be virtually impossible for the foreseeable future, if ever.

It provides an important step with a view to future joint projects on matters of common interest. Global governance—the collective management of common problems at the international level—is at a critical juncture. Although global governance has been a relative success since its development after the Second World War, the growing number of issues on the international agenda, and international organizations and national governments to cope. Power shifts are also complicating global governance.

6. Major Changes in Global Institutions in 20th Century

Some progress has been made to adjust international institutions and regimes to meet the new demands and to create workarounds, if not new frameworks. Such efforts are unlikely to suffice, however. If global governance structures and processes do not keep up with the changes in the balance of power in the international system, they run the risk of becoming irrelevant. Emerging powers are suspicious of current institutional arrangements, which appear to favor established powers. Without adequate frameworks to bring order to an international system in flux, disorder could prevail, fueling greater instability. The mix of old and new challenges generates new requirements for collective problem-solving: more international cooperation and innovative approaches.

7. Emerging New Structural Changes

Global governance—the collective management of common problems at the international level—is at a critical juncture. Although global governance institutions have racked up many successes since their development after the Second World War, the growing number of issues on the international agenda, and their complexity, is outpacing the ability of international organizations and national governments to cope. With the emergence of rapid globalization, the risks to the international system have grown to the extent that formerly localized threats are no longer locally containable but are now potentially dangerous to global security and stability.

Interdependence has been a feature of economic globalization for many years, but the rise of China, India, Brazil, and other fast-growing economies has taken economic interdependence to a new level. The multiple links among climate change and resources issues; the economic crisis; and state fragility—“hubs” of risks for the future—illustrate the interconnected nature of the challenges on the international agenda today. Many of the issues cited above involve interwoven domestic and foreign challenges.

8. Changing Perceptions of Some Emerging Nations

Brazilians feel there is a need for a redistribution of power from developed to developing states. Some experts believe, Brazil is tending to like state-centered multilateralism.

Many of our Chinese intellectuals see mounting global challenges and fundamental defects in the international system but emphasize the need for China to deal with its internal problems. The Chinese envisage a “bigger structure” pulling together the various institutions and groups that have been established recently. They see the G-20 as being a step forward but question whether North-South differences will impede cooperation on issues other than economics. (NIC, 2006)

The Indians believe that existing international organizations are “grossly inadequate” and worried about an “absence of an internal equilibrium in Asia to ensure stability.” They felt that India is not well positioned to help develop regional institutions for Asia given China’s preponderant role in the region.

Russian intellectuals see the world in 2025 as still one of great powers but with more opportunities for transnational cooperation. The Russians worried about the relative lack of “transpacific security.” The United States, Europe, and Russia also have scope for growing much closer, while China, “with the biggest economy,” will be the main factor in changing the world.

The South Africans conceive that globalization appears to be strengthening regionalization as opposed to creating
a single global polity. They are worried that the losers from globalization increasingly outnumber the winners.

In addition to the shift to a multi-polar world, power is also shifting toward nonstate actors, be they agents or spoilers of cooperation. On a positive note, transnational nongovernmental organizations, civil-society groups, churches and faith-based organizations, multinational corporations, other business bodies, and interest groups have been equally, if not more effective than states at reframing issues and mobilizing publics—a trend we expect to continue. However, hostile non-state actors such as criminal organizations and terrorist networks, all empowered by existing and new technologies, can pose serious security threats and compound systemic risks.(Global Policy, 2013) Many developing countries—which are likely to play an increasing role at the regional and global level—also suffer from a relative paucity of non-state actors, that could help newly emerging states and their governments deal with the growing transnational challenges. Global governance institutions have adapted to some degree as new issues have emerged, but the adaptations have not necessarily been intentional or substantial enough to keep up with growing demand. Rather, they have been spurred as much by outside forces as by the institutions themselves.

The emergence of informal groupings of leading countries, such as the G-20; the prospects for further regional cooperation, notably in East Asia; and the multiple contributions of non-state actors to international cooperation—although highly useful—are unlikely to serve as permanent alternatives to rule-based, inclusive multilateral institutions.(6) Multilateral institutions can deliver public goods that summits, non-state actors and regional frameworks cannot supply, or cannot do so in a reliable way. Our foreign interlocutors stressed the need for decisions enjoying universal legitimacy, norms setting predictable patterns of behavior based on reciprocity, and mutually agreed instruments to resolve disputes and redress torts, such as in trade matters. One can assess that the multiple and diverse governance frameworks, however flexible, probably are not going to be sufficient to keep pace with the looming number of transnational and global challenges absent extensive institutional reforms and innovations. The capacities of the current institutional patchwork will be stretched by the type of problems facing the global order over the next few decades. Numerous studies indicate the growing fragility of many low-income developing states and potential for more conflict, particularly in cases where civil wars were never fully resolved.

Although one can expect increased political and economic engagement from rising powers—in part a reflection of their increasing global interests—emerging powers have deep-seated concerns about the consequences of the proactive management of state fragility.

Prevention, for example, often can require direct political intervention or even the threat or use of military force as a last resort. Efforts to prevent conflict have often been slowed by reluctance and resistance to intervene directly, potentially overriding another country’s sovereignty. Many experts in emerging states thought their governments probably would be particularly leery of any intervention if it is driven by the “West.”

Another cluster of problems—the management of energy, food, and water resources—appears particularly unlikely to be effectively tackled without major governance innovations.

(Global Policy, 2013) Individual international agencies respond to discrete cases, particularly humanitarian emergencies in individual countries. However, no overall framework exists to manage the interrelated problems of food, water and energy. The stakes are high in view of the impact that growing scarcities could have on undermining the open international system. Resource competition in which major powers seek to secure reliable supplies could lead to a breakdown in cooperation in other areas. Moreover, scarcities are likely to hit poor states the hardest, leading in the worst case to internal or interstate conflict and spillover to regional destabilization. Other over-the-horizon issues—migration, the potential opening of the Arctic, and risks associated with the biotechnology revolution—are likely to rise in importance and demand a higher level of cooperation. These issues are difficult ones for multilateral cooperation because they involve more preventive action. Under current circumstances, greater cooperation on those issues in which the risks are not clear-cut will be especially difficult to achieve

9. Changing Mode of Interdependence

The multiple links among climate change and resources issues; the economic crisis; and state fragility—“hubs” of risks for the future—illustrate the interconnected nature of the challenges on the international agenda today. The shift to a multipolar world is complicating the prospects for effective global governance. The expanding economic clout of emerging powers increases their political influence well beyond their borders. Power is not only shifting from established powers to rising countries and, to some extent, the developing world, but also toward non-state actors. Diverse perspectives and suspicions about global governance, which is seen as a Western concept have sharpened the differences and difficulties of effectively mastering the growing number of challenges.
References

Evidence of a Housing Bubble in Beijing

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Abstract

The price of residential housing in Beijing has increased at an annual nominal rate of 20 percent for the past decade. This rapid growth has happened in a period of rapid urbanization where rural people have moved to cities and towns and there is a rapid and sustained growth in per capita income. This paper reports on the findings from a purpose-designed survey administered to a total of 420 households in 16 districts in Beijing on the determinants of house prices. Our analysis reveals that housing prices in Beijing have deviated above the norms in terms of expectation and affordability. Economic fundamentals in the form of income growth and low interest rates on home-loans are able to explain just 12 percent of the inflation in house prices. The remainder is due to speculation which is another reason for the bubble in house prices. Policies, in the form of interest rate hikes, reduced loans to purchase second and third homes, and limits on the purchase of additional homes have been introduced to slow the growth of the bubble. Respondents to the survey doubt the effectiveness of these policies in slowing the growth of price bubble, both in the short and the long term.

Keywords: housing bubble; housing policy; Beijing housing market; marriage;

1. Introduction

The recent boom in the housing market in Beijing, capital of China, provides a good opportunity to assess the evidence for a bubble and find reasons for its formation. Over the last decade, residential prices in Beijing have increased at an annual nominal rate of 20 percent. Figure 1 shows the monthly percent change of housing prices from 2005 to 2012 in Beijing. The growth rate of housing prices kept increasing during most of the time after 2007, but fell sharply into negative territory in 2008 as a result of the global financial crisis. It revived and reached a new and record high in 2009 as China started to recover from the crisis, but decreased in the first half of 2012. Supply of housing has increased with demand but the rising prices suggest that the growth in demand has outstripped the increase in supply. This is demonstrated by what happened in Tongzhou, one urban district in Beijing: it had 1.87 billion square meters of living space under construction in the first quarter of 2010, 36% more than in the first quarter of 2009; however, prices in Tongzhou in the same period still increased by 20.8%.

Figure 1: The housing price index monthly growth rate in Beijing from 2005 to 2012

The favorable economic growth promotes the prosperous development of housing market in Beijing, given the income growth and rapid increase of GDP. From 2001 to 2012, the annual disposable income per household increased by 61.4% to RMB 30,000. In 2012, Beijing’s nominal GDP reached RMB 1.78 trillion and RMB 87,091 per capita GDP. At the same time, continuous migration to urban cities and natural population growth drives up the demand for housing. According to the Beijing Statistical Information Net, between 2001 and 2012, the population in Beijing has grown by 33.3% to 21 million, and the number of immigration who gets the Beijing Hukou increased from 174,865 in 2003 to 211,447 in 2011. Given the limited amount of available land in urban areas in Beijing, housing prices were pushed up by the excess demand for housing. However, prices have raised more than it should be according to these reasons. For example, Hou (2010) found the bubble started to appear in Beijing from 2005 and peaked in 2007 based on the large deviation of prices from fundamentals.

To control the price inflation, a succession of measures was introduced by the local government to subdue speculative buying and force developers to increase the supply of housing. There are two major recent policies. Firstly, from 2010, the local government restricted purchases of multiple homes. It aims to restrain the speculative investment in Beijing housing market. According to new rules, the local government forbade the Beijing registered family who own more than two houses to purchase additional houses. The non-registered family who have more than (or equal to) one houses is also forbade to purchase additional houses if they have no documents certifying that members of family have been paying social security or income tax for five straight years.

Secondly, from 2005, the local government enlarged the supply of the public housing: the affordable housing, low-rent housing and housing with limited prices. Each of them has the different target, application criteria, housing size and transaction conditions. The low-rent housing is targeted at Beijing registered and low-income families with the yearly household income less than RMB6,960. The affordable housing is targeted at those becoming Beijing registered families for at least 3 years and single applicants should be over 30 years old. The yearly household income should be less than RMB22,700. The housing with limited prices is targeted at urban families with middle-income level who cannot afford the house and peasants whose land has been requested by the government. The yearly household income should be less than RMB88,000.

The survey in this paper attempts to identify the following questions: whether there is housing bubble in Beijing housing market? What are the determinants of housing prices? And this paper also discusses the impact of local housing policies on housing prices.

2. Survey methodology and data collection

Each respondent was given a copy of a questionnaire that was ten pages long and divided into three sections covering: 1) general information on households and renters; 2) respondents’ opinions on the impact of marriage on housing price; and 3) respondents’ opinions on the impact of housing policies on housing prices. In the questionnaire, we encouraged respondents to write comments in the last question which were indeed helpful to us in interpreting the meaning of answers. In total, 422 copies of questionnaires were administered comprising 200 from house owners, 195 from tenants and 27 from households who live in their parents’ or friends’ houses. The number of questionnaires collected in each district is summarized in Table 2. Huairou is the lone district missing from the analysis – this was due to a nil response to the survey. Besides, 9 responses have been collected from tenants in Shunyi district, but none from house owners.

The sample characteristics were cross checked with the available percentage of number of households in the 2010 National Census for Beijing and interviewed. It can be seen from Table 1 that the survey covers most pictures of urban districts. But low response rates are found in parts of the inner suburbs, all of old city and outer suburbs. The low response rate might cause the bias problem for the subsequent analysis. Thus, in order to enlarge the sample size, the data in neighboring districts Dongcheng (1) and Xicheng (2) are combined together as the new district (1). The same is in district Tongzhou (8), Fangshan (7), Daxing (11) named as district (6), Shunyi (9), Mentougou (12) and Changping (10) named as district (7). The District Pinggu (14), Huairou (13), Miyun (15) and Yanqing (16) are combined as district (8).

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2. The registration system (Hukou, in Chinese) was first set up in urban China in 1951 and lately extended to rural areas in 1955 (Chan and Zhang, 1999). It was originally intended to stop rural migrants flowing into the cities.
5. http://sqjt.beijing.cn/bxzfsqzn/ , 1AUD=6.5 RMB
The new distribution of the percent of number of respondents is shown in Table2.

**Table1**: Summary data on number of house owners and tenants interviewed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Chinese name</th>
<th>households interviewed</th>
<th>tenants interviewed</th>
<th>other respondents interviewed*</th>
<th>Percentage of respondents interviewed %</th>
<th>Percentage of residents in the Census %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Dongcheng</td>
<td>东城区</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Xicheng</td>
<td>西城区</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Chaoyang</td>
<td>朝阳区</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Fengtai</td>
<td>丰台区</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Shijingshan</td>
<td>石景山区</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Haidian</td>
<td>海淀区</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Fangshan</td>
<td>房山区</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Tongzhou</td>
<td>通州区</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Shunyi</td>
<td>顺义区</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Changping</td>
<td>昌平区</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Daxing</td>
<td>大兴区</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Mentougou</td>
<td>门头沟区</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Huairou</td>
<td>怀柔区</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Pinggu</td>
<td>平谷区</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Miyun</td>
<td>密云县</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Yanqing</td>
<td>延庆县</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>200</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Data source**: Author calculation from the field work in 2012 in Beijing and Beijing Statistic Yearbook (2011) published in Beijing Statistical Information Net. * Those stay in houses of parents or friends.

**Table2**: Summary data on number of respondents interviewed with neighboring districts combination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Chinese name</th>
<th>Percent of number of households in the Census %</th>
<th>Percent of number of respondents interviewed %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Dongcheng</td>
<td>东城区</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Xicheng</td>
<td>西城区</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Chaoyang</td>
<td>朝阳区</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Fengtai</td>
<td>丰台区</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Shijingshan</td>
<td>石景山区</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Haidian</td>
<td>海淀区</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Fangshan, Tongzhou and Daxing</td>
<td>房山区 通州区 大兴区</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Huairou, Pinggu, Miyun and Yanqing</td>
<td>怀柔区 平谷区 密云县 延庆县</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Data source**: Author calculation from the field work in 2012 in Beijing.

3. **Survey results**

3.1 *Is there housing bubble in Beijing?*

Respondents turned out to be clear about the main features of housing bubbles-Stiglitz (1990): “large deviation from fundamentals driven by positive expectations”. In the survey, almost 56% respondents thought a bubble happens when there is a rapid growth of housing price. The rest thought a bubble happens when expectations dominate price developments causing significant speculative investments in the market.
A large number of respondents (89%) think housing prices in Beijing are at a high level compared with the national average price levels. The evidence was found when housing prices were compared with expected prices levels and income levels. Table 3 shows the number of respondents and their choices on the expected reasonable price level in each district. By using the number of respondents as the weight, the expected housing price level in each district has been calculated and reported in Figure 2. Actual prices are the average of housing prices in the sample in each district. Among eight districts, actual prices in five of them are above RMB 20,000 per square meter. In the old city and urban areas, actual housing prices are 1.2 to 2.5 times than that in inner and outer suburbs. Comparing the actual and expected average housing prices level, it can be seen that respondents from any district are expected to have a lower housing prices than actual ones.

Table 3: The number of respondents in response to the expected reasonable price level in each district

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Chinese name</th>
<th>5000 RMB/sq.m</th>
<th>10000 RMB/sq.m</th>
<th>15000 RMB/sq.m</th>
<th>25000 RMB/sq.m</th>
<th>30000 RMB/sq.m</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Dongcheng Xicheng</td>
<td>东城区</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Chaoyang</td>
<td>朝阳区</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Fengtai</td>
<td>丰台区</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Shijingshan</td>
<td>石景山区</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Haidian</td>
<td>海淀区</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Fangshan, Tongzhou and Daxing</td>
<td>房山区 通州区 大兴区</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Shunyi, Changning and Mentougu</td>
<td>顺义区 昌平区 门头沟区</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Huairou, Pinggu, Miyun and Yangqing</td>
<td>怀柔区 平谷区 密云区 延庆区</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data source: Author calculation from the field work in 2012 in Beijing. 1AUD=6.5RMB

Figure 2: The expected reasonable and actual housing prices (RMB/sq.m)

Data source: Author calculation from the field work in 2012. 1AUD=6.5RMB

Figure 3 reports the percentage of average household income per month in eight districts covering five levels: less than RMB5,000, RMB5,000 to RMB10,000, RMB10,000 to RMB15,000, RMB15,000 to RMB20,000 and more than RMB20,000. The households with income between RMB5,000 and RMB10,000 formed the majority, apart from district 2 where most local residents have an income between RMB10,000 and RMB15,000. Table 4 shows that the average living space per person in eight districts ranges from 26 to 36 square meters. Besides, one family on average has three members. By using the data in Table 4, the ratio of housing prices to income was calculated. The last column of Table 4 shows that the housing prices on average was approximately 17 times the average annual income per household. This
figure is higher than that reported by E-House China R&D Institute which is 12.94 in Beijing in 2012\(^6\). In Australia, Sydney had the highest ratio in 2012 which was between 8 and 9 according to the report from Reserve Bank of Australia (Fox & Finlay, 2012).

Figure3: The percent of five income levels in eight districts

![Figure3: The percent of five income levels in eight districts](image)

Data source: Author calculation from the field work in 2012. 1AUD=6.5RMB

Table4: The average living space per person, number of person in one family and household income in each district

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Average living space per person (square meters)</th>
<th>Average housing prices (RMB per square meters)</th>
<th>Average number of person in one family</th>
<th>Average annual household income (RMB per year)</th>
<th>Ratio of housing price to income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dongcheng Xicheng</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25412</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chaoyang</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24500</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11726</td>
<td>19:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fengtai</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20182</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8659</td>
<td>17:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shijingshan</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20714</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8786</td>
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<td>Haidian</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>23174</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9395</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fangshan, Tongzhou and Daxing</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14614</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8071</td>
<td>14:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shunyi, Changing and Mentougou</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17341</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10205</td>
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<tr>
<td>Huairou, Pinggu, Miyun and Yanqing</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6200</td>
<td>14:1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data source: Author calculation from the field work in 2012.

3.2 What drives the high level of housing prices in Beijing?

What drives the high level of housing prices in Beijing? Can changes in market fundamentals explain the increase? The fixed effect model was used to test the impact of fundamental factors including income and loan interest rates on housing prices. Table5 summarized the sample data. Variables of housing prices and household income have been divided by the number of years after the house was purchased. Table6 shows model results, that both household income and loan interest rates have a statistically significant impact on housing prices: one percent increase of income will lead to 0.11% increase in housing prices, and a one percentage point increase in interest rates led to a fall of 0.06 percent in housing prices. The model can explain nearly 12% of those changes of housing prices in Beijing. Coefficients of fixed effects indicate that housing prices differ in each district: old city areas including Dongcheng and Xicheng districts have the highest housing prices, followed by those in urban areas and inner suburbs. Outer suburbs such as Huairou, Pinggu, Miyun and Yanqing have the lowest prices levels. It seems that after controlling for factors on income and loan interest

rate that price falls with the distance from the city center. According to Siqi and Kahn (2008), the closer to city center, the better services including fast public transport, high quality schools, major universities could be enjoyed, all of which may explain for the fact that housing prices fall with measured distance from the city center.

Table 5: The descriptive characteristic of sample data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>D(Y)/D(Year)</th>
<th>D(HP)/D(Year)</th>
<th>r</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>12000.0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data source: Author calculation from the field work in 2012 in Beijing

Table 6: Model result of housing prices and fundamentals

| Variable | District name                  | Estimate | Pr(>|t|) | Adj. R-Squared |
|----------|--------------------------------|----------|---------|---------------|
| log(y)   | Dongcheng Xicheng             | 3.36     | < 2.2e-16 *** | 0.13       |
| r        | Chaoyang                       | 3.35     | < 2.2e-16 *** |
| 2        | Fengtai                        | 3.30     | < 2.2e-16 *** |
| 3        | Shijingshan                    | 3.03     | < 2.2e-16 *** |
| 4        | Haidian                        | 3.23     | < 2.2e-16 *** |
| 5        | Fangshan, Tongzhou and Daxing  | 3.06     | < 2.2e-16 *** |
| 6        | Shunyi, Changping and Mentougou| 3.27     | < 2.2e-16 *** |
| 7        | Huairou, Pinggu, Miyun and Yanqing| 2.97 | < 2.2e-16 *** |
| 8        |                                |          |         | p-value: 0.008 F-statistic: 5.13 |

Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

3.3 Why does the marriage play a great role on housing demand?

Questions were designed to find out the motives of people purchasing housing in Beijing. Results in the questionnaire reveal that nearly 39.5% respondents purchased a house for their own marriage, and 30% for the marriage of their children. For tenants, around 71% of them want to purchase their own house in the future. Over half of the tenants (51.85%) wanted to purchase their own houses for the marriage in the future, and 14.80% for their children's marriage. In the questionnaire, 91% respondents in total think in China it is common to buy the house in preparation for marriage.

The explanation for most people purchasing housing for the marriage requires the cultural background. Answers to open ended questions are helpful to understand why the marriage plays a great role in housing demand. Three reasons have been mentioned frequently, namely: (i) 38% of respondents considered that buying the house in preparation for marriage is a “tradition” in China 41% respondents thought that owning a house can provide them safety and feeling of stability - “A marriage without a house cannot be called a “family” The other 10% considered it as a request from the mother-in-law, implying that the ability to possess a house reflects the groom’s economic status. 4% of respondents mentioned that they want to have more living space instead of sharing the house with their parents. The remaining 7% bought the house as a means to saving or security because of the immature renting market and rapid growth of housing prices. According to the survey, more than 60% of respondents bought a house a year before the marriage and 40% bought the house two years after the marriage.

Impending marriages have been well recognized as a determinant of housing demand. A report in China Economic Daily (March 8, 2010) emphasized the important effect of marriage on housing prices: “Demands from mothers in law are pushing up house prices; less than 20% accept sons in law who can only rent.” The high percentage of purchasing houses for marriage suggests that housing demand may be strong for a period in the future.
3.4 What is the impact of government controlling policies on housing prices?

In the survey, we designed questions to rate the different policies’ impact on people’s purchasing decisions shown in Table 7. With the different income levels, the housing purchase decision has been affected by different policies: 1) for residents with income less than RMB5,000 per month, the key factors were the level of mortgage rate (35.7%) and supply of housing provided by government (34.9%); 2) for residents with income between RMB5,000 and RMB10,000 per month, the key factors were also the level of mortgage rate (32.4%) and supply of housing provided by government (33.5%); 3) for residents with income between RMB10,000 and RMB20,000 per month, the key factors were the level of mortgage rate and a limited number of houses available to purchase; 4) for residents with income more than RMB 20,000 per month, the key factor was a limited number of houses available to purchase (42.5%).

These conclusions suggest that people with income less than RMB20,000 per month require the bank loan to pay for the house. Among them, people with lower income (less than RMB10,000) not only borrow money from the bank, but also seek help from the government. More than one third of them (35% and 36% respectively) care about the supply of low cost housing provided by the government. People with higher income (RMB10,000 to RMB20,000) tend to use houses as a vehicle for saving and investment. One third of them (33%-32.4%) are concerned about the policy of limited number of houses to purchase. More people (42.5%) with high level of income (more than RMB20,000) are likely to purchase more houses as the investment. They express less concern about the bank loan interest rate, but more on the tax and other costs. Thus, polices on the adjustment of bank loan interest rate could affect the residents with income less than RMB20,000 per month. Polices to limit the number of housing available purchases are effective in curbing the speculative investment.

<table>
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<th></th>
<th>&lt;5000</th>
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<th>10000-15000</th>
<th>15000-20000</th>
<th>&gt;20000</th>
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<td>Bank lending rate</td>
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<td>32.4</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited number of house to purchase</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax and other cost</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>8.10</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply of housing provided by government</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>8.40</td>
<td>9.50</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>7.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data source: Author calculation from the field work in 2012 in Beijing

4. Conclusion

This paper uses the household level data from Beijing, the capital of China. A total of 420 questionnaires were administered in 16 districts and the collected data analyzed to understand the drivers for house-price inflation in the city. The empirical result shows that housing bubble exists in Beijing market given the large deviation of housing prices from income and expected price level asked in the questionnaire. The cross sectional model indicates the strong correlation between income growth and housing prices, 1% increase of income leading to 0.11% increase of housing prices after accounting for district level effects. Plenty of residents purchased housings on the purpose of marriage what was considered as the “tradition” in China. Different policies issued by the government to control price inflation were found to be effective for people with different income levels. Among them, the adjustment on banking loan interest rate could affect people with income less than RMB20,000 per month; the supply of housing provided by the government could affect people with income less than RMB10,000 per month; the limitation on the number of housing to purchase is effective to people with income more than RMB 10,000 per month.

Two main policy implications can be drawn from these findings. Firstly, although the marriage plays a great role in the housing market, the impact of marriage on housing demand may fall with the aging of the population in the future. Secondly, when government intervenes into the housing market, a clear target should be made according to different adjustment aim. For example, in order to curb the speculative investment on housing market, policies on limitation on number of housing to purchase and adding taxes and other costs might be reasonable choices instead of adjusting the mortgage interest rate.
References

Usage of Census Results for Planning and Evaluating Various Government Policies and Intervention Programs

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Director of Information Technology Department

Abstract

During 2011 Albania conducted the 11th Population and Housing Census. The census results are vital for the country for planning and evaluating various government policies and intervention programs at national and regional levels. The main findings of the census are:

• The population has declined around 8.0 per cent, compared to the 2001 census
• For the first time, the population living in urban areas has exceeded the population living in rural areas

After the availability of census data, the main challenge for policy making is how these data can be used to guide the investment funds in infrastructure and services and to help the local authorities in designing strategies in favor of vulnerable groups. In this paper the focus will be to explain the main findings of the census and the impact that have in the government policies. A questionnaire will be used to collect information from the local authorities about:

 Are census main findings affecting people in their community?
 Do the local authorities meet their needs from census results?
 Does the internal movements play important role in their intervention programs?
 Is the information gathered important to plan a wide range of public services such as
  • Schools: for children now and in the future in their area
  • Social housing: for persons who need a social place to live
  • Transport: to and from work
  • Healthcare: facilities that everyone can access easily etc.

Keywords: Census, official statistics, local governance, etc.

1. Introduction

During 2011 Albania conducted the 11th Population and Housing Census. The census results are vital for the country for planning and evaluating various government policies and intervention programs at national and regional levels. With the availability of census results, the country can now use up-to-date socio-economic data at national, regional and local levels.

The Albanian census collected data about the building/dwelling characteristics, households and individuals.

• Household information included tenure status, ownership, availability of goods and facilities.
• The individual questionnaire collected data for each individual organized in different modules: Main demographic characteristics - age, sex, marital status, place of birth and citizenship
• Migration module - internal and international movements was collected
• Education module – data on persons that were currently attending school, highest level of completed education, number of years of completed education and literacy
• Employment module – employment and unemployed characteristics of the population, as well as place of work and mode of travel to work
Ethno-cultural characteristics module – ethnicity affiliation and religion based on free declarations of the individuals including the alternative not to answer.

Based on the information collected and processed, the results of the 2011 Population and Housing Census in Albania are a clear picture of the socio-economic situation of the whole country or small spatial areas. Moreover, the increased availability of digitized census data means increased ability to convert data into information for research, planning, and policy identifying geographically the information for small areas.

Benefits of Using Census Data are:

- In Albania as in the other countries, the census is the only source of data that attempts to obtain a complete enumeration of the population.
- It is the only source available that provides detailed information on socio-economic indicators as well as environmental factors (housing, sanitation, access to water).
- Information is provided for very small sub-populations, such as villages, commune/municipalities, districts and prefectures.

On the other hand there are two main limitations:

- Timing: Albanian Population and Housing Census is carried out every ten year.
- Only a limited set of information can be collected by the census

2. Main findings in Albania

2.1 Demography findings:

On 1 October 2011, the usual resident population in Albania was 2,800,138, with 50.1% male. The average age of the population increased from 30.6 in 2001 to 35.3 years.

The population has declined with around 8%, compared to the 2001 Census where the population was 3,069,275.

Population dynamics are determined by four factors: births, deaths, immigration and emigration.

The effect of each factor in the size of population is given by the population balance equation:

\[ P_{2011} = P_{2001} + B - D + I - E. \]

The decrease of resident population in Albania is supposed to be because of two main reasons:

- The decrease of fertility
- Continuous large-scale emigration

2.1.1 Natural increase:

The number of births per year has decreased significantly, from about 53 thousand in 2001 to about 34 thousand in 2011.

- This means a positive but declining natural increase.
- The number of deaths per year has remained stable at around 20 thousand.
- The decline of fertility is supposed to be one of the factors that has a big impact in the population decline.
2.2 Education findings:

Education in Albania is covered by public and private schools. In recent years, the Albanian education system has made substantial progress towards the general compliance with others European educational systems.

The first two levels of education, primary and lower secondary, a total of 9 years education, are currently compulsory in the country. At university level, the Bologna system (3+2 years) is nowadays followed by all universities, public and private. The 2011 census included four questions on educational characteristics, maintaining comparability with data from the 2001 census and enabling the calculation of key indicators on education.

Illiteracy level for the population 10 years and over is 2.75%: 3.7% for females and 1.7% for males
- 96.2% of the population 10 years and over are currently attending or have completed school
- 1.0% of the age group of 7-15 years old never attended school

Planning and provision of services in the educational system according to the number of the population and the age of the children- such data on target populations is also of use in program planning concerned with building, classroom, teacher and equipment needed. A special attention should be given to the education data of Tirana and Durres, which are the only regions in Albania where the population is increased and will continue to increase in the coming years.

Also, in Albania there is a gap between illiterate female and male which means that further actions should be taken to decline this gap.

2.2.1 Emigration

Based on the data of the 2011 and 2001 Censuses it is estimated that:
- Between 2001-2011 Censuses around 500 thousand persons have emigrated.
- Between 1989-2001 Censuses around 600 thousand persons have emigrated.
- In the age group with highest emigration (20-39 years-old), the decrease in the number of females is greater than that of males.

These findings are evident if you analyze the shape of the population pyramid.

Population density at the national level is 97 residents per square kilometre compared to 107 residents per square kilometre in 2001.

The population density in the prefectures of Tirana and Durres indicates higher values compared to other prefectures, respectively 454 and 343 persons per square kilometre.

This because these are the only prefectures that have an increase in the number of population compared to 2001.
Census.

The internal movements of the population from one region to another, or within the same region, have continued also in the inter-censual period 2001-2011, continuing to impact on the population changes at local level. In comparison to the previous census, about 10% of the population has changed the place of usual residence within the country and almost 18% of population has emigrated.

For the first time, the population living in urban areas has exceeded the population living in rural areas. It was 53.5% in urban areas and 46.5% in rural areas.

**Figure 5: Percentage of the resident population in urban and rural areas according to 2001 and 2011 censuses**

In the frame of Urban Planning and Development Strategy, Albanian Government should review the typology of Albanian regions, as well as the types of rural communes; and secondly, definition of urban/rural should be changed based on the population distribution and population structure.

2.3 Disability findings:

The 2011 census identified for the first time the population with limitations in the functioning of basic activities. The main objective was to determine the number of persons with disability, type of disability, as well as their demographic and socio-economic profiles.

A total of 137,435 people reported that they had some sort of disability that prevented them from the full participation in their activities of daily life. In the age 15 and older the percentage was 6.2%. From these, 45.3% are males and 54.7% females. Most of the people who reported disabilities have stated that they have suffered in mobility and seeing. The disability is higher in women compared to men. This characteristic seems depending on the civil status, with higher prevalence in the married women and widows.

All this data available for the first time in Albania will be the roadmap for designing and implementing the Albanian National Strategy on People with Disability. The main objectives of all policies shall be to improve the overall living conditions of people with disabilities in Albania and to achieve lasting results in including them in all aspects of life to enjoy the full range of civil and human rights.
3. Assessment of usage of census results for planning and evaluating intervention programs by local authorities

The Population and Housing Census results were published in May 2013 in the prefecture level.

Based on the law, the budget and the grants are disbursed to each municipality/commune based on the resident population per municipality/commune. The disbursements of the funds in 2013 were done based on the census results. The decrease in the number of resident population in mostly of the municipality/commune affected the total funds distributed by Albania Ministry of Finance.

Albania is divided into 12 administrative prefectures. These prefectures include 36 districts and 373 municipalities. The municipality/commune councils are the representative bodies, their members come from the elected municipal and commune councils according to the population size. The regional councils are fully independent state bodies that function according to specific legal statues and enactments in order to implement regional development policy in cooperation with the State. They work as a facilitator between the local and state government. A primary competency of the regional councils is to develop strategies, which are then directed to the relevant departments of the state ministry. The regional councils also serve to manage disbursements of the state budget toward investments with regional ramifications. Primary examples include: rural road infrastructure, pre-university level education, health systems, tourism development (visitor services), regional transport, and cultural heritage. These competencies are set forth in the constitution and stipulated through local government legislation.

Considering the above, we have raised this two research questions:

• Do the local authorities and other structures have information about Census 2011?
• Do the local authorities and other structures know the importance of using census results to achieve their goals?

4. Methodology and data collection

To respond the two questions, we used data collected from 62 questionnaires (see attached). The questionnaires are fulfilled by employers in charge of planning and policy taking. From 12 prefectures there were randomly selected 5 municipalities/communes for collecting data. The data were analyzed in SPSS software and there were used mix questions, open and closed ones.

5. Survey Analysis and Results

Analyzing the answers turns out that:

• 93.5% have information about Census 2011 results, but only 66.1% from them know that census data affect budget or grants and how.
• Only 45.2% of respondents, as local authorities, meet their needs from census results.
• 67.7% declared that the internal movements play an important role in their intervention programs.
• Mostly of respondents saw the information gathered from census, important to plan a wide range of public services such as: schools (96.8%), social housing (83.9%), transport (75.8%), healthcare (95.2%).

6. Conclusions

• The results of the census directly affect people in community. The information gathered should be used to plan a wide range of public services, many provided by local authorities, which should be there for everyone to use. The more we know about the people in our community, the better local authorities can understand and meet their needs.
• Local government has anxiously awaited the Census 2011 data, and now that it is available and enabling efficient use of census data can allow local government to quickly prepare grant applications and perform ad hoc analysis of trends to fulfill their needs for data.
• Based on the Population and Housing Census 2011, among the main results would have been setting the boundaries of urban agglomeration consisting of central cities, suburbs and peri-urban communes and classification of all communes aggregated based on indicators of the importance and urbanization, sector
structure and specialization of economic development (tourism, industry, mining), and natural conditions for agriculture. This classification will provide a tool to support the territorial analysis, policy evaluation, and urban and regional planning.

- Urban sprawl is becoming a significant problem in many countries with high population density. In Albania urban growth, urban sprawl is noticed in the most important cities mainly located in the western part of the country. There is a need to analyze the urban sprawl in Albania and to predict how it will be continuing the enlargement of the major cities in the future.

References

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Lerch, M. “Fertility Decline During Albania’s Societal Crisis and its Subsequent Consolidation”

Annexes
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| Total        | 62        | 100.0   | 100.0         | 100.0              |
The Status of the Albanian Society According to Leke Dukagjini's Canon

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Abstract

This study brings into consideration the way of organization of the Albanian society on the basis of Lek Dukagjini’s Canon. This type of organization is quite radical; it resembles a Republican system of government because the highest authority is not a person, but the Senate, and because nor the kryevojvod or kryebajraktar are absolute rulers, but they are implementers of the decisions of the Assembly. The assembly is an indisputable institution and it is invoked whenever there is a request from its members. And nor the ruler or any other authority has the power to oppose it. From the study that we have done, we have come to the conclusion that from the inside the Albanian society was a Republic but from the outside it was an Imperial. There exists a spirit of equality, but not with fair rights and same proportions for everyone. This study is a result of an extensive work in the State Archive for the Institute of the Albanian Studies in the years 1940 - 1944, whose work has had an important role regarding the status of Albanian society under the Leke Dukagjini’s canon.

Keywords: status, canon, ruler (prince), assembly, kryevojvod

Lek Dukagjini’s canon or the mountain canon as it is called is a summary of the laws, regulations, customs of the Albanians in the North in a book, in the course of the hundreds years. The laws of the Canon have served for more than five hundreds years as the foundations of the social behavior and self ruling of the Northern Albanians clans, even when the region was ruled by the Ottoman Empire.

This Canon remained unwritten, but acted for centuries as the English "Common Law", until it was collected and decoded by Shtjefën Gjecovit, at the beginning of XIX-XX century. The entity of the cultural norms that were conveyed by the canon regulated the relationships between the Albanians.

This myth took a lot of lives especially after the author’s death when the Ottomans destroyed entire cities, leaving behind only traces of the Ottoman military garrisons. These areas were governed by the Ottoman rules. While the Albanians which remained settled in the mountains were still governed by the Canon laws because the Ottoman drum of law could not be heard up in there. Exactly in those areas it acted, ruled, and governed, the Lek Dukagjini’s Canon.

Lek Dukagjini’s Canon is a unique piece of work with the humanistic spirit of the Renaissance period in the Albanian language, which although it is controversial and widely rumored even today, it is valued by many domestic and foreign scholars, as a “monumental creation” (A.Budaçovi-Kryeziu), “a contribution to the world’s culture treasury” and it’s author, Lek Dukagjini, is considered “a compelling personality.”

The Albanian’s way of organization through the Canon is based on popular mentality as well as in the adjustment with the reality. Even though during the Turkish rule it was created an organ which was known as the “Chamber of Men” it conveyed the ancient tradition of the Roman law which was the Assembly of Elders. Here there were held dialogues, debates, examination of various issues and were finally taken important decisions on various issues. These decisions often naturally crossed the local borders including wide geographical regions.

Father Zef Valentini places this regulatory code before the medieval Arbenor period. What puts into doubt the coherence of this code is the great spread of the Canon, even further of the Dukagjini’s possession borders.

1 E. Durham, Ferit Hafiz, Gjovalin Cuni, "For tribes, local and custom laws" Tirana, Arberia, 2009.
The Canon consists of 4 pillars²
• Honor
• Hospitality
• Behavior
• Tribe

Lek Dukagjini’s canon brings out the Albanian manhood which doesn’t represent only the individual outers courtesy but represents justice, wisdom, generosity, friendship, truthfulness, bravery, patience, endurance, prudence. All of these things highlight the prejudices of some superficial researchers which have considered the Mountain Canon as a code without values or just a codification of revenge.

The Code has many similarities to the Roman law, the German Gothic law and especially to the langobardic one. However, there are differences between them.

There is a similarity between the way of governing in Rome and the organization of Albanian territories on the basis of the Lek Dukagjini’s Canon. So Rome was organized on the basis of the republican system which is a combination between the monarchy, oligarchy and democracy. Even in the organization of the Albanian tribe’s governance we can find those three types of governance joint together in constitution of the Albanian’s Tribe. So there we find monarchic power in the reign of the Ruler (bajrak), oligarchic power at the council of leaders and the council of the elders. (Bajraktari) The ruler, is a kind of consul in the line of heritage but not of greater power than the roman consul.

On the other hand, the first of the common people (vegjeli) which is plebeian tribune, has also an inherited power, son after son but without becoming a king (autocrat).

The Senate (Council of elders) in the whole Canon even though it is more than a heritage office composed of aristocrats, it has the function of a gathering of wise people who interpret the Canon or assign its implementation but not against the will of all the people, because the plebeian tribune which are the representatives of common people have always the power of rejecting and sometimes in some areas like Shale the common people (pleba) have oversized the power of the elders.

Here comes also a limitation of the personal freedom because it is not the individual which enjoys full political and civil personality but only the family of the representatives of the elders of the house, according to an old philosophical principle that the basis of the civil society is not the individual but the family.

The Elderly (Presbytery) as an institutional basis for the resolution of the criminal conflict, occupies an important place in the Lek Dukagjini’s canon, even quite respectable, given the fact that the laws and norms of the canon are implemented through the elderly, in almost all cases of life when their intervention is required. A high level of importance is given to the role of this institution and its decision making. This is even expressed in the canon where it is said: “The new Elders cannot overrule the old ones, because the canon can’t allow this³”. The agreements between families and between private families and the wider community, which is one of the knurls of the functioning of the Canon’s community society, is seen beyond the parliamentary regime of the community, even at the institution of “elders” in the role of judges in order to guarantee the executions of norms.

The Institute of elders or better known as the arbitrary court is one of the most essential ones in the canon law, because there exist no other way of judgment outside it, even in those countries where the role of local power and the central authority is weak, most of the issues are regulated by the elderly. So their power has a kind of autonomy from the central government.

In the medieval cities of Albania there were two social classes that correspond to almost 2 social classes of Rome: Leaders, (or elders in Roma), leaders of common people (or plebeian). The direction of different matters and tribal trials are attributed to the elders who consisted of a male representative for each house. So the council was an Assembly of priors, while its leader are the head of some families that have their right as a predecessors (origin) while other made up what were mainly called common people (boyhood).

But in order to resolve various problems, except from the heads of the families, many others were also called to give solutions. The council of elders is so the superior organ of government of the tribe. Even the control of justice which was based on the basis of the community principle, even the problems in the criminal and civil matters in the Canon in an unequivocally way were given to the Elders Assembly.

⁲ Studies and texts “Legal status” from the Institute of Albanian Studies
³ Aleks Buda, “Albanian Ethnography and some of its problems” Albanological investigation, Folklore and ethnology, IV-1974, Prishtina 1976, faqe 20
The Elders or tribal leaders perform judicial functions in the arbitrary courts and are as well competent in solving problems within the Brotherhood, tribe, villages, and bigger territories (bajrak). They even have a legislative power because without their decision no new laws or decisions could be taken by the tribe or (leader) bairak. In the civil society of the Albanian tribe differently from the Roman society there is no slave class. But when we take into consideration the historical fact of the separation of people into social classes, the statutory Roman law, knows as subjects to law only individuals which were slave owners class, Roman citizens, but with some reduced rights even some free citizens of the Roman Empire.

Like in the Roman law, the foundation of which is the personal rights between the social classes (let’s recall here the everlasting attempts of the plebeian to enter in the Senate), even the Albanians are all recognized as equal, although there is a difference between those who are the clan leaders and those who are not4.

This spirit of equalization does not mean equal rights for all, but they all stay in different proportions. So some basic rights like that of honor are all the same, but others on the other hand are given to males who have the duties and responsibility, others are given to the elderly man of the house, others are given to elder of the village, and others are given to the leader of the tribe.

It shows a sense of discipline which is not less than that of freedom of equality. So the internal organization of the tribe is Republican, because its head is neither dictator, nor prince, nor a patriarch. Decisions are taken by the council of elders, but the most important ones such as the changes of the Canon rules, declaration of peace and war are drawn from the general assembly (a man for each house). The Canon also recognizes a higher authority outside and next to the tribe. The competence of the Imperial superior authority in the administrative area has been neglected. Different world matters and organization of the administration itself was not monitored. The only purpose was to get any taxes or a service fee, while the judicial powers was more present.

Penalty trials were conducted by the prince and not by the society. The bad governance or mismanagement that was increased during the Turkish time, didn’t clarify the fact that until when a superior authority may grant judgment sentences. These happened gradually until the judicial authority of the commissioner’s government could be exercised only in the civic centers and districts. This highlighted two distinctly rights were 1) The Canon of Highland and 2) The imperial Law for the countries that directly dependent on the central authority.

There were a lot of cases when the Turkish governor could not issue new orders without the consent of the guilds (esnafve), or even the disarmament of the population in those areas could not be achieved only through a strong military intervention. The imperial authority in the political and military sphere was accepted with a greater desire.

At the core of the Albanian society it was the close relationship family with a close bond that holds it all together through the power of the elder of the family, and the restriction of civil rights of other members of the family roots.

Its members didn’t enjoy civil and human rights. As a whole they had the right to contribute to the mutual obligations within the house. But there are other family members who experience submitment, vassalage, dependence, restriction of rights depending on age and sex. The less aged members are taken care by the more aged members. They must obey and show dedication. The relationship of vassalage consists in the right that the elderly have in physical protection and food provision.

This group includes the women who can not even claim inheritance rights. This is exaggerated because they determined also the marital life. A kind of analogy is done in this way with the organization of the family on the basis of Roman law. According to this in both of them it is highlighted a limitation in the role of women in: the family property collective law, giving dowry from the family of the groom’s side and not the woman’s side. The woman even after she gets married she belongs to her tribe. If an woman is found guilty at the door of her husband she is killed by the members of her family or by her own husband whom the tribe has given him the right to do so. Related to this to the woman is given a cartridge when she gets married. So the family and tribe has a prominent autonomy in society. In fact, nothing is personal but belongs to the whole family, even the landlord can not make any changes without consulting the family members before.

The work of each person is determined by the master and mistress of the house. The political rights are exercised inseparably from the whole family or from one of the representatives, but on their behalf. The simplicity of tools that are used to evidence the commitment taken, are all moral in nature.

This allows us to understand that the morality is quite high and the law is sufficient. This is seen clearly because none of the (kryevojvods) and (bajraktar) is an absolute prince, but just an executor of the decisions of the Senate. The

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The senate is gathered every time that near the prince is represented a request. The prince can not oppose it. Even in case of a war this prince cannot lead this war if the others don't say “lead us”. Even the ruler in case he violates the Canon is submitted to fine like everybody else. Another important institution is also the college of witnesses which have an important legal value. It is clear that there is no judicial authority to resolve matters or to review laws with authority.

In the highland society the contracts are done with words and that the words have a legally value. On the other hand it is widely accepted that the highest royal authority can condemn people to death, imprisonment or beat them with a stick.

Another important value in the Highest Council of Justice is given to the divorce. Divorce could be granted for two main reasons natural and human actions.

As a rule, to a woman among Catholic Members, was not allowed even in justified matters, to interrupt its marital life even divorce (because this right was not recognized by the Canon law) while among the Muslims, even thought divorce was recognized, this according to the Highest Council of Law, it was not valid for the woman.

In this way, her inequality in marriage and family is constantly proclaimed. The limitation of her rights is clearly seen in her position in marriage. Unlike the woman’s position, the husband was entitled to the power of house and in the society, which is why he had the right to divorce and evict his wife. In Gjécovi’s study it was proclaimed that the man had the right to evict his wife “if she misbehaved with her husband” and this possibility was even wider.

So the husband had the right to evict his wife and divorce her even for shoal reasons like “it was sufficient enough for the wife to disdain husband’s orders” and this thing mainly depended on him. While according to the Roman law the right to divorce belongs to the man and to his partner. The main reasons for divorce were the cheating of wife, alcoholism, child abortion etc. Later according to the classic law, even the wife won the right to divorce.

The Roman law recognized the divorce even thought it was an agreement from both partners. If the divorce was not because of the woman, she was entitled to some wealthy values. This was an evolution in the Roman society’s mentality which was missing at that time at the Highest Council of Justice.

The Canon and Roman law also authorized the private property, manorial property and the common property. We can illustrate this with an example: “The mountain areas are communal areas for everybody, for pastures as well as for wood use”. The protection of private property is clearly reflected and regulated by this law: “The border which is settled once can never move again” sanction small private property, manorial property, and common property.

This naturally aims to regulate the relationships between the people and settle also the disagreements.

According to the Roman law of property rights this property is granted only to the civilians. The Roman law recognized the loss of rights of a property in three cases:

a. Due to natural events happening.
b. Due to the will of the owner
c. Due to a state decision in cases of confiscation of a property and its transformation into a public property.

So from all the above mentioned, the Highest Council of Justice, has been a borrower of norms, rules, state organization based on the Roman law but of course adopting them to the Albanian societies in centuries.

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Technology Preparation of “Xhubleta”

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Abstract

Without any doubt, in the Albanian folk heritage, the greatest interest in terms of dresses appeared to be xhubleta. This is a popular costume known as a distinctive element in traditional dressing of woman in the mountain areas of Northern Albania. Several archaic features make this clothing distinct out of many other popular clothing, making this the most interesting object for study for many researchers. The xhubleta is a complex garment, consisting of several elements that make it complete, and give it a final shape. Each of the components of xhubleta has its own shape, its own size, and features, which by joining together create a harmonious and interesting ensemble. But what is the technology preparation of xhubleta? What are the materials and its elaboration process? What are the cutting and sewing processes that give it the undulating bell form? What is the image that creates this dress? In producing this popular costume it is very important the combination of the material with the cutting way, functionality and the final image created.

Keywords: xhubleta, përparje, pështjellaku, kraholi, mëngët, kallcet, postava, kapica, folk heritage, technology preparation, preservation processes, cultivation processes.

Xhubleta, this important part of the costume, is formed by several elements, where each of them plays an important role in creating the image of the popular costume. Each of these elements is a particular object of study in their form, ways of sewing, and symbolic motifs, to ensemble then in a whole costume. Without doubt the most dominant element of “xhubleta”, in creating his image, is part of the “bell” (fig 1), so named just by its similarity with the object. Considering the modern techniques of cutting, this part of the “bell” will classify ¼ of the circle cutting, but it certainly contains quite interesting individual specifications. Part of the bell is formed from several strips of felt, sewn into horizontal line, and “spiku” used to unite them, which are known as “ivat e xhubletës”. The felt used is a product manufactured within the household and mostly is obtained from sheep’s wool. The process of making the wool fiber with “furka” is followed by a weaving process using a double junction technique. After the fabrics is weaved, it is refined the process of “dërstila”, water, and friction through the blades, allows the homogenization of the wool fiber (feature wool material) making the felt dense and thick. This is the way that felt is prepared to be used for sewing the
“xhubleta”.

According to measurements made while shaping the “xhubleta” we could build a technical outline of its spiku strips as they appear to us in the dress (fig.2). What we observe is the progressive increase of the strips length of “xhubleta” that are located at the bottom. This increase is the same as the strips (ivat) made with felt and the ones made with “spik”. We notice this expansion to the stripes (iva) itself, to its upper and lower width, and from stripe (iva) to stripe (iva).

Fig. 2. technical sketches

The margin of the bottom width to the upper width of the “spiku” strips:

1. Up to the 6th strip, we have an extension of the lower stripe width ranging from 2.5 to 6.5 cm.
2. From the 7th-11th strips, we have an extension of the lower stripe width ranging from 8.5 to 16 cm.
3. While the strips nr 12 and nr 13 are extended toward their bottom with 40 cm each.

This remarkable change in the two last stripes (iva) (adding here the strips of respective felt and the white felt at the end) are visible in the oval shape that “xhubleta” takes at its end, similar to the shape of the “bell”. Considering the figure nr 3, which shows us the straight strips on the side, we see how they stand step by step, where the lower base of a stripe does not correspond with the upper part of another strip that comes after. Noticing these, some questions arise:

1. How these strips join together to create lateral oblique lines that join with the front part?
2. In what way they relate to each other to create the bell shape at the bottom?
3. How the strips made of felt relate to those made of “spik”?
4. Which element plays a key role in creating the desired shape?

In the second sketch, we added the felt strips on the empty spaces between the “spiku” strips (with interrupted lines), that reduces the difference from stripe (iva) to stripe (iva).

Thus, we have such a reduction of the difference:

1. Up to the 6th stripe, their difference changes from 2-6 cm to 1-3 cm.
2. From 7th-11th strips, their difference changes from 8-16 to 4-8 cm.
3. The last two stripes, 12th and 13th, their difference changes from 40 cm to 20 cm.

Fig.3. cutting scheme
This softening of the difference is a maneuver toward uniting the strips (iva) with each other. Another factor that makes possible the unification of strips (iva), eliminating side scales, is the sewing technique. To accomplish this, it is enough to turn the inside part of the “xhubleta”, where the "creator of xhubleta" does not hide to us the used sewing technique.

The “Spiku” strips are those that play a key role in creating the form of the "bell" of “xhubleta”. “Spiku” is the construction or pillar holder, not only for the "bell" part, but in general for the all "xhubleta", because it links all parts of the felt. Spiku was made with thin threads of wool painted with black color called "karaboje", like black felt, then woven on basket of “spiku” through “cinglave”. This type is similar to knitting and is made possible through the help of the “cinglave” and “spikus”, which more or less have the same role as sweater knitting tools. Such technique creates elasticity and flexibility in the material obtained, as in this case “spiku”, although his weaving is very compressed to adapt quite well with the felt material. Having this kind of flexibility, strips of “spiku”, obtain more easily the proper form of the felt strips (iva), to even those in itself (by way felt is processed) have a manipulation opportunity, gathering with a slight wrinkle in the upper width in order to get of the desired shape of the arch. “Spiku” strips are placed on the felt strips and sew with woolen thread. “Spiku” strips have a height varying from 3.5 cm to 4.5 cm, all visible in the upper part, while the visible part of the felt strips, between “spiku” strips, vary in height from 1 - 2.5 to 3 cm, and only in two rows the height grows more. The felt strips vary from 5-6 cm in height, but a good part of their height is hidden after strips of "spiku", the inner side. Such placement of strips gives the part of “bell” more thickness and sculptural form, and at the same time it makes invisible the slight wrinkles of the felt strips. It is said that "good xhubleta stands", this is achieved with the quality of the compacting strips of felt and strips of “spiku”. In some cases felt strips are covered with black velvet. Regarding the front of “xhubleta”, the back part and holder strips, (fig 4) they are on the bell-shaped function. The whole “xhubleta” is created with felt pieces, which “spiku” relate to each other and decorates them at the same time. We saw the pieces of felt cut needed for the strips for the bell. We see these pieces in the front, where seven of them are placed in a symmetrical manner, a long strip in the center and three parts located on both sides of the ribbon.

Fig. 4. Technical sketches, represents the front of xhubleta.

This part has trapezoidal shape, with greater width in the lower part.

The roundabout at the waist is about 130 cm. About 50 cm belongs to the “bell” strips part and about 80 cm belongs to the front. Of course the question is why all this latitude?

Firstly, we will explain the functional side of the dress: “Xhubleta” is a dress that women wear not only on the wedding day but also at other periods of life. In dowry they obtained five “xhubleta”, so that they were suitable for women physiological changes, such as pregnancy or physical change.

Secondly, if we see in aesthetic terms, considering the standard of female beauty at that time, and the visual form that “xhubleta” it is worn by mountain woman, this “xhubleta” latitude of the waist makes a woman's figure robust and with a stable and solid stature. Its folding on both sides increases the width (which certainly does not lose waist effect due to large waves of establishing in the bottom of xhubleta), and presents a more robust female figure which "will be able to afford the house works", but that also expresses the local aesthetic requirements. In the upper part, “xhubleta” connects with two belts - the front and the back. Even this part of “xhubleta” is made with felt and with “spik”, and is proven to be insufficiently solid to keep the weight of the bottom. The making of the upper part in this way, enables the weight of “xhubleta” not to prevent the easily movement of arms, and to create the desired shape. The back up part can be covered with black or blue velvet and mostly embroidered with black thread.
Other elements of “xhubleta” is "përparje" (fig. 5), which set in the section of the chest of “xhubleta”. This part is fixed on the shoulders and on the front part of the waist. “Përparja” is prepared completely differently from other parts of “xhubleta”. “Perparja” takes the shape of the chest without pressing it, because of the material produced. Its side parts are between borders, which are made with lacing of “spiku”. Both sides are knitted and are soft and flexible because of the knitting work. This keeps the breast soft and allows its form be visible. So let’s say that “përparja” plays the role of "modern" brassieres.

"Pështjellaku" (apron) (fig. 6) is an important and highly visible part of “xhubleta”. This part is placed in front of the body. It has trapezoidal shape, with greater width in the lower part. “Pështjellaku” consists of many pieces of felt connected between them with black “spik”. Its constituent part is a square piece of woven woolen thread with geometrical shapes that is located in the upper part of “pështjellaku” before abdominal. The rest of “pështjellaku” is developed around this woven part with felt strips placed horizontally and related with spike in the same way as at the bell of “xhubleta”. The felt used, at this part, are about six strips with thicknesses from 4.5 to 7 cm. Felt strips are covered with velvet.

"Kraholi" (fig. 7) is the upper garment as a short jacket. Its characteristic is that it formed by use of small pieces of felt that serve to create the desired shape. Visually, the very special feature is the great undulation on the back part (should emphasize that “kraholi” does not always show with this back undulation). Although the small pieces that make up the front and the back are tailored made by hand, they look like a whole piece because of the lacing straps placed on it. (fig. 9). Part of undulation is formed by numerous pieces which serve to create the vaulted part (fig. 8).
The undulation part, formed by setting of triangular pieces one after the other, which creates a very large width at the bottom, goes up to 3 meters. This undulation part is very obvious, and it is shown by its base on the waist, the back part is 26 cm and it has 10 cm + 10 cm on both sides. This part of “kraholi” is a full circle and creates very fine undulations on the bottom and back of “kraholi” also showing the accuracy of work and the proper management of this part that is difficult to realize. We notice the good work, as far as regard the cutting and unification of pieces; we see it at the regularity of the undulations and at the symmetry of their development on both sides. If we count them, starting from the middle, we will see that there are eleven undulation on the one side and at the other, and one undulation at the center. This once again proves the exact calculation of cutting and unification of pieces of felt. On the undulation part, nearly at half of its length, a piece of woolen cloth is set, what makes possible hiding the sewing parts that felt apart. On this part, where the woolen cloth relates with felt, a wide strip of “spiku”, made by black wool thread and gold thread, is put also. This strip serves to cover sewing, but it also emphasizes more undulation in this part. On the inside, a wool thread reinforced by some threads, passes from one to the other undulation to keep them well disciplined. The upper and the front part have the shape of waistcoats. Borders are decorated by braids of silver and gold thread, and by embroidery. Generally, waistcoats in folk costumes stay open at the front and here we have the same outcome. This makes possible the harmonization of the chest part, where is “përparja” is placed, and over which are put necklaces of silver or gold. The interesting part of the “kraholi” are the shoulders, hence comes out the name of this element of the dress (in the northern dialect of Albanian language, “the shoulder” means “krahë”). Although simply made, they play an important role in the aesthetics of the suit. Cut into triangle shapes, the ongoing shoulder, together with colored tufts, provide shoulders a more extended form.

“Mëngët” (sleeves) (fig. 10) are components part of the “kraholi”. They are removable, indicated by the use of “ylyqe”*. Sleeves are presented with diversity within their kind because of the use of colors at tufts located on the upper, as well as the types of the embroidery. Sleeves are divided into two cut parts, creating the idea of the cufflinks at the bottom, which reinforces by the presence of buttons on this model (buttons are a new commercial element added). The material used here is black velvet, in both the upper and lower part. The use of two types of velvet creates texture contrast. We can see this type of texture contrast on the bottom of the sleeve that the embroidery is made, by using the matt black color thread on shiny black velvet. We can see such a texture contrast in all elements of the dress, at the embroidery as well as the fabrics used, as the base color of all “xhubleta” is black. The inside part of the sleeves are accompanied by the inside fabric that is sewed manually.
"Çorapet" (socks) (fig. 11) are part of the dress of “xhubleta”. They have an interesting form that reminds the modern boot. Part of the foot is knitted thread wool, and also decorated with colors (regarding decorations and colors used, they vary in different “xhubleta”). Part of the dress is “opingat” cow leather. The upper part or “kalicet” is black felt and covered with black velvet. At the ankle it sews with the sock part, and has a height of about 30 cm. Since the felt has not elasticity, they are given form of foot, more closed around the ankle lock and expanding on the upper part. For this reason it is not closed as knitted socks, but it is open on the inside where accompanied by “spik” and both females and males connect it with buttons. This piece is embroidered with black beads and less colored beads.

"Postava" (fig. 12) is a belt that serves to be placed around the waist and also serves to tighten “xhubleta” in this part of the body. It is an evident and important part of dress, as for the function, also for aesthetic image of the costume. Even this element is made by felt pieces and strips of “spiku”. Its length depends on the size of the body. However its length is also taken into consideration because the part of the waist of “xhubleta” has a considerable width (as we mentioned in part of the bell). Its height is about 20 cm. At the bottom it is longer than in the upper part, and it takes a slight curve. It appears to variations in regards of decoration. On the sides it is decorated by strips of “spiku” with a width that varies by 4-5 cm, which share even an embroidered space from one another. Usually there are seven areas covered with velvet ornamenting it with black lacing and black beads. Usually it is used quite a bit beads of color like blue and red.

"Kapica" (fig. 13) is a kind of velvet cap which routinely is used by young women. "Kapica" is adorned with silver studded, mainly worked with filigrees. Figures used here represent different symbols of the sun and the moon. It has a simple cutting in half circle shape. It is made with a double fabric and becomes concave through a cordon that gathers it on the back. That received shape is made stable in the head with the help of the hairpins. At the back of the "kapica" it is
put the white veil. The veil material is a thin cotton fabric embroidered with white thread with refinement (the highland women have used commercial floral veils). Also in this case, we have a texture contrast white on white, and the aesthetic characteristic of “xhubleta” shows us a very refined taste.

In conclusion:

- the technology preparation of xhubleta is a very significant indicator of popular creative imagination;
- over the years, the production of these clothes, in their original form, has become impossible, but it is very important that these garments be treated as precious objects of cultural heritage through preservation and cultivation processes and their preparation techniques. This point of view is also the object of study in this paper.

Dictionary

Iva spiku: is a type of strip, made with different thickness thread, which has served for decoration and coverage of sewing on folk costumes.

Dërstita: is elaboration process of felt.

Furka: is an object which serves to create the wool fiber by hand made process.

Cinglat: are cylindrical rods, which serve to woven spik.

Ylyqe: is a kind of lacing, which serves to connect two parts of the dress through a cordon.

Opingat: Albanian leather shoes like moccasins.

References


The folk costumes fund at the Center for Albanological Studies
Language Shifts in Case of Language Policy of Kazakhstan

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Abstract
This paper contains the description and analysis of some aspects of language policy in the Republic of Kazakhstan. The description of the main trends of national programmes of functioning and development of all languages spoken in Kazakhstan. The attention is paid to the practice of non-stop language education that should ensure the high level of official language awareness by every citizen of the Republic and preservation of all the linguistic richness of Kazakhstani society. The regulations of the Language Act where the guarantee of protection and state support of all the languages spoken in the Republic are depicted in details in order to preserve the various ethnic cultures and languages within the territory, including the English. The descriptive characteristics of of language vitality of nations oft he country gives the opportunity to present the significance and importance of any language of Kazakhstani society. At the present the general conceptual basis oft he language development in Kazakhstan is «National Programme of Language Functioning and Development: 2011-2020» [1], which is considered to be realized within 10 years. The main purpose oft he programme is to extend and strengthen the social-communicative functions of the official language of the Republic, to preserve the general cultural functions of the Russian language, to develop the other languages spoken in Kazakhstan, to facilitate in the development of the English and other foreign languages. The cultural project of the country about language trinity is the new branch in language policy and finds the functional reflection in national standards of education of the country. Language education concepts reflect the world experience in the context of education, i.e. the acception of the unique national standardization on level structures and subject contents – 6 levels of language awareness (Kazakh, Russian and foreign language) taking in to account «General European Standards of Language Competence». In conclusion of the paper the results of the analysis of some aspects of language policy and national programme planning are presented.

Keywords: language situation; language policy; language development programmes; the official language; Russian; national languages; foreign languages; language vitality.

1. Introduction
Citizens of Kazakhstan celebrate the Day of Language every September. The consolidating idea of the celebration is the understanding of the essential value of each language and culture used in the country. In this multietnic, multicultural and multilingual country as the Republic of Kazakhstan, the language policy is one of the fundamental aspects of language situation, defining as a measured system of conscientious influence to the development of language processes, extending the languages by spheres of social influence, presenting the part of political control on language situation and language conflicts. Language policy is realized in consequence with the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan and Language Act, National programme of language functioning and development for 2011-2020. The project of National programme of language functioning and development for 2011-2020 is developed in consequence with the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan (Article 7, 93), Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan «About Languages of the Republic of Kazakhstan» (from July 11, 1997), Decree of President of the Republic of Kazakhstan «About Statement of National Programmes List» (from March 19, 2010), and cultural project «Language Trinity» (Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2002).

In accordance with the main purpose the prior objectives of Programme are the improvement and standardization of methodology of official language training; integration into all the spheres of life activity. According to independent experts’ opinions President Nursultan Nazarbayev’s support of the Kazakh language was extremely important in getting over the extension of bureaucracy: the Kazakh language «was also happy because of its being in an environment in which due to the Soviet time the notion of an ethnic group’s coincidence with territory and language took root and found expression of Kazakhs being a unique nation with peculiar language and culture, and their language and culture are closely connected with their peculiar territory, i.e. Kazakhstan» (Fierman, 2005).

The Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan, along with the announcement of the Kazakh language as official ensures
the comprehensive protection and state support for all the languages spoken in the Republic, which is consistently reflected in the decision of the objectives of the programme as to provide the state support for preservation of other languages of Kazakhstan, providing the necessary conditions for language preservation and cultural enrichment of ethnic groups, the creation of conditions for the development of the languages of ethnic groups that form the linguistic diversity of Kazakhstani culture and the study of English and other foreign languages as a means of international communication of business: to provide the conditions necessary for the preservation of languages and the mutual enrichment of cultures of ethnic groups, expanding international cooperation in order to interact with the foreign language culture.

In this aspect, there is a set of problems related to the preservation of the level of the Russian language awareness as a competitive advantage of Kazakhstani citizens, preserving certain functions of the Russian language, the creation of favourable conditions for the study and preservation of the languages of ethnic groups living in Kazakhstan, promoting the study of English and other foreign languages.

2. The Descriptive Characteristics of National Policy in the Kazakh Language Revival

The programme, designed for ten years of implementation, is based on an analysis of the language construction in the country, and takes into account the views and recommendations of the expert community, dealing with the language issues. Past wave of adoption of the law on languages in 90s, (1997-2000: Law «On languages» National programme of language functioning and development for 1998-2000, 2001-2010: National programme of language functioning and development, forming the legal basis of language construction in main areas of public life), the strategy of language construction, which determined the proclamation of the Kazakh language as official, currently led to the conclusion that giving the country's language is not enough. Scientists have raised the issue of the real ways and opportunities to expand the social functions of the Kazakh language, in order to function as an official language of the state. Due to the current estimation of language situations and analysis of the results of the implementation of laws into life, all aspects of the programme, based on the priority of the development of the official language as the most important factor in strengthening national unity and designed to meet the spiritual, cultural and linguistic needs of the citizens, which is reflected in such areas of the programme: the development and implementation of the Kazakh language teaching through a model of non-stop language education, the creation of a network of accredited teaching centres of the official language teaching, the creation of a system to promote the process of teaching the official language. All of them suggest that the vitality of the Kazakh language as a problem loses its topicality. One of the main factors determining the language vitality is called as a language proficiency by its native speakers (Stewart, 1962), the number of social functions of language and thus its application in the most important areas of social life (MacKonnel, 2000), and ethnic self-awareness (Mihalchenko, 1992).

In accordance with the above mentioned facts, we focus only on some of the important features and results of the main branches of new language policy of Kazakhstan.

Legal regulation of the functional status of the official language was a logical start to improve the language situation. Multi-subject nature of the language acts govern the order for the Russian language and the languages of other ethnic groups and languages. The main change in the status of the official, the Kazakh language is a clear definition of the conditions for the implementation of the language of the main nationality that was previously the privilege of the Russian language.

One of the clear indicators of the social and political language policy in the field of national programmes to support the Kazakh language is the new project «Language Trinity» as the basis of the national standard of language teaching in the country. In modern universities of Kazakhstan the study of three languages are implemented: the official (Kazakh), Russian and foreign. Conceptual framework for the implementation of the cultural project «Language Trinity» provides «The Concept of Foreign Language Education», «The Concept of Language Education of the Republic of Kazakhstan», providing the experience of standardization and ranking levels of training on the integrated models of 2 European standards. Thus, a single, unified educational and linguistic, social and cultural space. System of centralized management of a language education is coordinated on all trinity languages to assist: 1) the preservation of the Russian language; 2) the preservation and development of the languages of ethnic groups living in Kazakhstan; 3) the study of English and other foreign languages as a means of business cooperation.

Development and implementation of Kazakh language teaching through a model of non-stop education is reflected in the new national teaching standard of the education system. The Kazakh language is introduced at the elementary level and continues into middle and senior levels of secondary schools of the country. Then teaching the official language goes on in higher education. Students continue improving their knowledge of language within one or more courses in the amount of six credits of optional courses and elective courses. In the framework of the National programme of language
functioning and development a national cultural project «Language Trinity (Kazakh, Russian and the foreign language)» has started (2011), in which the rules for the content of training bachelors with the amount of credit hours on the Kazakh language are established, Table 1.

Table 1. The Kazakh Language Awareness Standard by Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>European Levels of Language Competence</th>
<th>National Standards of European Language Awareness Levels</th>
<th>Modelling Speech Types and Communication Forms</th>
<th>Descriptives (characteristics) of Levels</th>
<th>Assessment Criteria</th>
<th>Assessment System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1 Level of liminal sufficiency</td>
<td>Liminal methodology</td>
<td>Liminal awareness of language information</td>
<td>Realization of communicative intention</td>
<td>Note in the transcript of diploma about achieved level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2 Level of liminal sufficiency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Consequence with lingual and cultural norms of native speakers</td>
<td>Note in the transcript of diploma about achieved level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1 Level of foundation sufficiency</td>
<td>1. Dialogue - questioning; 2. Dialogue – opinion exchanges; 3. Dialogue - conversation</td>
<td>- system of language awareness; - system of speech and communication awareness</td>
<td>Realization of communicative intention; Logical structural integrity; Possession of subject content of the speech.</td>
<td>Note in the transcript of diploma about achieved level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2 Level of foundation standards</td>
<td>Conversation, interview, discussion. Types of oral and written communication: writing, narration, reasoning, message</td>
<td>- system of language awareness and means to apply the intercultural communicative activity; -система речи и коммуникации</td>
<td>Realization of communicative intention; Logical structural integrity; Possession of subject content of the speech; Compliance with lingual and cultural norms of native speakers; Linguistic speech correctness, possession metalanguage.</td>
<td>Note in the transcript of diploma about achieved level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1 Level of upper foundation standards</td>
<td>Forms of communication: 1. Interview. 2. Discussion. 3. Dispute</td>
<td>Readiness and ability to realize the following communicative acts: - vocabulary choice spontaneously, without difficulties, to express the opinion; fluent speaking on various academic and professional fields; - to express opinions fluently.</td>
<td>Realization of communicative intention; Logical structural integrity; Possession of subject content of the speech. Compliance with lingual and cultural norms of native speakers.</td>
<td>Certificate of confirmation about achieved level of elective course</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above mentioned requirements and rules are aimed at developing intercultural communicative competence of students of various fields of university education at the basic standard level.

There are other various vital signs of the Kazakh language: ethnic and cultural, social and demographic, social and functional (Suleimenova, Shaimerdenova, 2007). It is impossible not to recognize the positive role of national programmes in social and cultural aspects, for national education spheres, spiritual culture, mass communication. In this case, the
main factors are the linguistic unity of the people of the media and education, factors that contribute to the inclusion of all social layers and large territorial spaces. Therefore, we must recognize the current solution to this problem in the formulation of such a goal in the programme as enhancing the prestige of the official language with the following results: creation of the Centre of creative solutions to promote the official language, the amount of material in the media to promote a positive image of the native speakers of the official language, the number of socially important projects aimed at addressing the problems of promoting the official language, the share of Kazakh-speaking content in the media, the creation of TV channels broadcasting in the official language, the proportion of products supporting the use of the official language in information technologies.

3. Descriptive characteristics of national policy of further development of the Russian language as interethnic communication

Today, the whole world knows that the collapse of the Soviet Union, the emergence of new independent states, one of which is Kazakhstan, and many other issues have changed the Russian communicative and linguistic space. The functioning space of the Russian language as an international, educational institutions become less used, it became the subject of an optional study of school and university programmes. Therefore the problem of the Russian language vitality was the subject of consideration in connection with the new language policy in Kazakhstan. Status of the Russian language in Kazakhstan is defined as the status of the language of interethnic communication (Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 1995). Russian is used officially along with the Kazakh language in state bodies (Language Act, 1997, Article 5). Today in Kazakhstan, the Russian language is considered to be the linguistic stock of Kazakhstani linguistic community, and the economic factors and the economic lift for economic cooperation between the peoples of the CIS countries. Preservation of the Russian language in communicative and linguistic space determines the direction of the fourth goal of the linguistic stock of Kazakhstan, which involves the organization of the working system of functioning the Russian language. The further teaching and intellectual support system of teaching the Russian language are the followings:

- formation of the new distance education programmes, educational materials, electronic textbooks, and training equipments;
- improvement of the quality of the Russian language teaching in ethnic schools by implementation of innovative methods of the Russian language schooling;
- creation of the Russian language courses and training centres for repatriates, foreigners and other social groups;
- constant monitoring of the educational standards, curricula, textbooks and teaching aids with the assistance of the expert community.

According to the well-known Kazakhstani scientists the satisfaction of language rights and claims of Russian speaking Kazakhstani citizens is the effective political measure directed to prevent the language and ethnic conflicts. (Suleimenova, Smagulova, 2005)

4. Descriptive characteristics of national policy for creating the favourable conditions to study and preserve the ethnic languages spoken in Kazakhstan

The great majority of languages of ethnic groups in Kazakhstan is the language of immigrants or deport nations having historic country of residence. These ethnic groups’ languages can be divided into three groups: Exogenous (Trudgill, 2003) – Abkhaz, Azerbaijani, Belorussian, Russian, Ingush, Karakalpak, Kyrgyz, Korean, Latvian, German, Polish, Tarfur, Eastern Turki, Ukrainian and others. Endogenous (Trudgill, 2003) – Dungan, Karelian, Crimean Tatar, Selkup, Meskhetian, Udihe and others. The following objectives as ensuring the requirements to preserve languages and mutual enrich cultures of ethnos are set in the Programme:

- involvement of experienced teachers, native speakers, the use of international practice and high technology in teaching of native language;
- creating the conditions for education in secondary schools, language centres, Sabbath schools, national revival schools of ethnos representatives in Kazakhstan;
- ensuring the necessary conditions for language preservation and mutual enrichment of ethnos cultures;
- ensuring the preservation of historic and modern written heritage of ethnic groups (records, libraries, researches).
Humanitarian Universities graduate specialists on German, Polish, Eastern Turki, Turkish, Korean languages in Kazakhstan, but it should be noted that the number of students is few. The National programme supports the expat communities in publication of newspapers and magazines. For example, “Deutsche Algemaine Zeitung” (newspaper of German expat community), “Корильбо” (newspaper of Korean expat community), “Ўйғур авази” (newspaper of Uigur expat community), “Українські новини” (newspaper of Ukrainian expat community). The unique phenomenon in the national policy on peacekeeping and interethnic concord in Kazakhstan is the creation of the Assembly of people of Kazakhstan (1995), which authorized to engage in problem solving the national policy at the government level.

One cannot ignore the fact that apart from the languages of expat communities there are groups of immigrant languages (they are outside of the strategy of language planning), representatives of the people who have recently settled in the country for temporary residence. These are English, German, Chinese, Hindi, Urdu and other languages. It is necessary to notice the good knowledge of the official language by the representatives of these languages that emphasize their loyalty to language policy of the country.

5. **Descriptive characteristics of national policy to promote learning the English and other foreign languages**

Learning English and other foreign languages is the another priority of National programme on developing the languages. In this regard, the following ways of achievements and measurements are determined:

- expansion of international cooperation in order to interact with foreign language cultures;
- providing educational materials for team and individual studies;
- revision of curricula;
- reinforcement of requirements for the system and process of teaching at the universities and colleges training the future teachers of foreign languages;
- teacher training on natural science and mathematics in English;
- promotion of cooperation to share experiences and involvement of native speaker teachers;
- accessibility of language practice for students and teachers of schools and universities in foreign countries; carrying out the mass cultural events under the intergovernmental agreements (Culture days of foreign countries, exhibitions, the screening of feature and documental films).

In the development of English as a business language in aid of the integration into the global economy in the context of education the common national standardization on the level structure and subject contents is adopted – 6 level of proficiency and second language skills taking into account the national circumstances of “Pan-European standards of language competency” [12]. LAP and LSP language programs, B1 and B2 levels, LSP course are adopted in professional training of students in non-language universities. Industrial non-language universities train specialists who have a good command of a foreign language as a means of establishment of the scientific and cultural contacts with the native speakers, and the tool of professional communication for successive shared experience in the future work activity, Table 2. (A Common European Framework of Reference for Languages Learning, Teaching, Assessment, 1986)
Table 2. The Standard Level of Foreign Language Teaching in Humanitarian Universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>European Levels of Language Competence</th>
<th>National Standards of European Language Awareness Levels</th>
<th>Modelling Speech Types and Communication Forms</th>
<th>Descriptives (characteristics) of Levels</th>
<th>Assessment Criteria</th>
<th>Assessment System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>B1</strong> Level of liminal sufficiency</td>
<td>Dialogue-questions; dialogue – discussion; dialogue-conversation</td>
<td>Acquiring the language system and methods of its use in intercultural communication activities; keeping up the talk or discussion: - the ability of holding partner’s attention during the dialog; show interest; in monologue speech:</td>
<td>Realization of communicative intention; Logical structural integrity; Possession of subject content of the speech. Compliance with linguistic and cultural norms of native speakers; Linguistic speech correctness; possession metalanguage.</td>
<td>Note in the transcript of diploma about achieved level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B2</strong> Level of liminal standards</td>
<td>Conversation, interview, discussion. Types of oral and written communication. Types of speech acts: Types of written speech products CV, fax, official letter, abstracts, essay.</td>
<td>Acquiring the language system and its methods of use in intercultural communication activities; system of speech and communication to carry on a dialogue fluently and off hand in oral and written form</td>
<td>Realization of communicative intention; Logical structural integrity; Possession of subject content of the speech. Compliance with linguocultural norms of native speakers Linguistic speech correctness;</td>
<td>Note in the transcript of diploma about achieved level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Conclusion. Efficiency Results of Language Policy

The present day we confidently may say that the process of the language policy in the Republic of Kazakhstan is successful. In Soviet times the language planning in Kazakhstan did not exist. There was the official Soviet language policy aimed at reducing the communicative Kazakh-speaking world and steady growth of Kazakh-Russian bilingualism. At present time there is a dramatic expansion of the functioning spheres and the structure modernization of the Kazakh language. Russian-Kazakh bilingualism is being formed. The main reasons of such positive process are political and economical stability in the society, improvement of social and economic situation in the country, the right strategy of the tools in language policy, education and others. According to the research in 1990-91, 32.35% of students were taught in Kazakh while more than 65% of students in Russian. Nowadays the situation is opposite: 62.5 percent of students in Kazakh and 33.5 percent in Russian. Herewith the number of schools with the languages of national groups (Eastern Turkic, Tadjik, Turkish, Ukrainian) have increased. There are six English schools in the country. 46.8 % of the students are taught in Russian, 51.6% in Kazakh which is four times more than in the first year of the country independence. (Altynbekova, 2011)

Director of the Study Center of Central Asia and Kazakhstan, University of Seattle, (USA) William Fierman estimated the idea as a right one at the international academic conference “Multilingualism: language – conscious – culture” in Almaty: “In my opinion that idea is correct and will contribute to the development of the country”. (Fierman, 2008)

The main factor of language policy, as it turned out, is the population process. After the 1999 census the increase of Turkish-speaking population in the country was observed due to the rise of birthrate and the growth of young
population. According interim results of the 2009 census Kazakh people are about 67% of the population (over 10 million). (Seisenbekova, 2011) “Ultimately the most powerful factor in determining the language policy is demography. For example, the Russian language has retained its importance in Kazakhstan. However, the present demographic trends give a reason to believe that over time its value will be reduced. “If you speak only in one language in Kazakhstan, preferable choice for you will be Russian in most spheres. However the situation is changing and changing very seriously”. (Fierman, 2008)

The idea of recognition the Kazakh language as the official language can be the basis of Kazakhstani patriotism and national idea which is necessary for the cohesiveness of Kazakh people as a nation. Kazakhstan is one of the few countries which resolved problems of the language policy without heated conflicts and convulsions. There are conditions for the free development of ethnos languages in Kazakhstan. The government fully supports this process. (Kuzakov, 2007)

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The Internet: An Avenue of Virtual Communication

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Abstract

The Internet is a "network of networks" that connects different ranks of several thousand information networks from dozens of countries around the world. It is a virtual network consisting of an ever-growing number of LAN (Local Area Network-LAN), public and private networks over large areas (Wide Area Network-WAN), regional and national networks that are interconnected (Vasiu, I., 1998). The digital revolution, based mostly on the internet hasn't gotten any halfway, "you haven't seen anything yet." (Ulieru, M. 2008). The Internet represents the biggest "neighborhood" of Cyberspace that makes available to users a few major categories: World Wide Web, Electronic Mail, Usenet, and Internet Relay Chat. The World Wide Web represents an "electronic marketplace" for goods, services and a wide range of applications. Different users constitute their sites, which are presented in Cyberspace as "showcases". The Internet is administered by the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN), which endorses the sites names and addresses; It depends directly on the US Department of Commerce and the US Government.

Keywords: Internet, virtual communication, cyberspace, e-marketplace, network of networks

1. The Dimensions of Internet

Nowadays, a very large number of databases are available, that thanks to the Internet can be accessed from any corner of the world, computer intelligence experiencing greater breadth and diversification. Companies, corporations and businesses in the most varied fields of activity are the most worried about information theft. Commercial information like product listings, pricing, customers, suppliers, methods of promoting products or marketing studies are the most "hunted" (Vasiu, I., 1998, p173). Furthermore manufacturing technologies, human resources training methods, know-how patent-pending inventions etc. During 10-12 December 2003, in Geneva took place the first global meeting on the information society, organized at the request of ONU, from International Telecommunications Union (IUT). This major event of the communications market was compared, by the extent of its means and effects, with what represented for the environment, Earth Meeting in Rio de Janeiro in 1992.

The Internet has belonged to the greater public for less than 25 years. In a time so short it has upset the political, economic, social, cultural and associative life in whole countries. Nothing is as before in the world of communications. The signals acceleration delivery and the networks reliability have changed the ways to communicate, to study, to buy, to inform, to entertain, to organize, to learn and to work for an important part of our planets habitants. Internet has become a common name from a proper one.

George Săsărmăclassified very well encyclopedias in the Internet age: Zedler – was the first, composed by anonymous authors followed by the Wikipedia – a free internet dictionary, whose co-founder is Larry Sanger. He started from the idea that a collective wisdom product is better than that of a group of experts, no matter how qualified they are! Microsoft is preparing an encyclopedia – after the same typical, named Micropedia, while Larry Sanger has launched a new project- Citizendum, where authors are no longer anonymous, but among most proficient professionals, while
readers have the opportunity to comment on texts and propose completeness. Knol (from knowledge) is the ultimate electronic encyclopedia. It is announced that Google will deal with its achievement.

Marc Ulieru offers, citing a study, TheCounter.com, the most known internet browsers ranking – interfaces operating the connection to the internet; They are as follows: Internet Explorer, the most popular, used by 73 percent of navigators from around the world even because it «comes preinstalled with the operating Widows system», Mozilla Firefox, used by 18 percent, Safari by 6 percent, and Opera - 3 percent.

More than 250 million Europeans use the Internet regularly. More than half of Europeans are now regular Internet users, 80 percent of them have broadband connections, while 60 percent of the public services offered at EU level are available online. Two-thirds of schools and half of doctors use fast connections to the internet, due to the strong development of broadband communications in Europe. "We are witnessing a welcome change of political orientation, given that all 27 EU Member States are promoting today the information and communication technology (ICT), the main factor of growth in Europe, in the framework of the respective States national policies. This helps Europe to compete internationally with other countries or developed world, modernizing the Europeans daily life," said Viviane Reding, European Commissioner for information society and Media. In 2007, 77 percent of businesses in the EU, 67 percent of schools and 48 percent of physicians benefit of fast broadband connections. However, certain regions of the EU, being not fully connected, have yet to recover. Therefore, all EU countries must make more efforts in order to reduce differences, developing cross-border communication services as well as services covering rural and ultra-peripheral regions «."

About 40 percent of Europeans do not use the Internet at all; percentages range from 69 percent (Romania), 65 percent (Bulgaria) and 62 percent (Greece), to 13 percent (Denmark, Netherlands). In order to encourage the use of new online technologies, the Commission will publish in 2008 a guide on the rights and obligations of EU users in the digital environment. Bulgaria has a penetration rate of 30 percent, Poland by 29.6 percent while in the EU it was 55.7 percent (of the 490 million EU population, 273 million are web surfers; therefore have access to the internet). Netherlands has the biggest number of web surfers, with a rate of Internet usage by 87, 8 percent. The following are ranked Sweden, formerly, occupying the first place with 77.3 percent and Portugal with 73.1 percent.

Total number of internet users has reached 1.2 billion people, of the 6.6 billion planet inhabitants. Most Internet users – 461, 7 million people – coming from Asia, where the penetration rate is only 12.4 percent of the total population which is approaching 3.8 billion people (Daniel, B., 2008). According to the annual report on the progress of ICT in 2007 the Internet has attracted nearly 40 million additional new users in the EU, to a total of 250 million regular internet users. Despite the progress made, 40 percent of the EU population has never used the Internet. More than half of Europeans use the Internet regularly, 80 percent of them have broadband connections, while 60% of public services in the European Union are integrally available on the internet. Two-thirds of schools and half of physicians use high speed Internet thanks to a powerful extension of broadband Internet in Europe.

On the other hand in many EU countries people don't use the Internet regularly. One of the objectives of the European Commission is that the Europeans to make the most profit from eHealth, a concept that implies primary physicians to be connected to the internet, to use the Internet during the consultations, to be created a network linking various health institutions and patients to receive test results electronically. According to the report, the percentage of family doctors who are connected to the internet, Romania is in last place, far ahead of other countries in the bottom classification. Thus, among family doctors from Denmark, the broadband Internet has a penetration of 91 percent, compared to Romania with only 5 percent. The penultimate on top is Slovakia with 15 percent, while for Bulgaria the percentage is about 22 percent. The report's conclusion was that the most developed countries in terms of infrastructure and Internet use are Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Austria, Belgium and Germany, and the most underdeveloped ones are Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, Poland and Romania.

2. The power of new Internet interfaces

YouTube is a website that effectively revolutionized the Internet since January 2005(Bica, M., 2006). The three founders, Chad Hurley (29 years old), Steve Chen (28 years old) and Jawed Karim, who had just finished their studies, had been at a party with friends in San Francisco, where they filmed a few funny clips. When they got home, they wanted to send each other movies through e-mail, which was not possible because they were too large. Neither posting of video sequences on the Internet was a solution, so the three thought that a particular thing needed to be done in this regard, therefore they created a simple website where people from around the world could post in just a few minutes – any video clip. When not at work, the three used to meet and work in a garage. The founders have made it so that those who were registered on the site could comment all posted videos and could even add on their own sites the clips they found
interesting on YouTube.

Since it was launched, tens of thousands of videos are put daily on this site, which means an absolute record. The basic idea is that anyone can post anything on YouTube (or just about anything, except pornographic videos) and millions of people around the world can watch videos without the need for a credit card, recordings or additional software programs. This has led to the explosion of the site popularity. On YouTube you can see all kinds of clips: From Mihail Barasnikov in the Ballet Giselle in 1977, the kids that make all sorts of funny gestures in front webcam, or memorable moments from various programs or news. Dancing, singing, reciting, playing all sorts of funny moments like "candid camera", as well as things, institutions or successful individuals are taunted, in a few words, any citizen of the planet, which has access to a computer connected to the Internet can make his own movie, then can make it public all over the world.

In the summer of 2006 after various investments, YouTube has become one of the sites with the fastest development on www. According to a survey conducted in July 2006, a hundred million videos were viewed on a daily basis on this site, and only in 24 hours are posted on average 65,000 new videos. Every month, the site has around 20 million visitors. These statistics being since 6 years, it is obvious that they are no longer actualized...

In August 2006, YouTube announced that by early 2008, will be able to offer any music video ever created. Aware of the potential, Warner Music Group and EMI have confirmed that they are part of the companies that have contributed to this plan implementation. A month later, Warner Music and YouTube have signed an agreement by which YouTube has permission to host any music video ever created by Warner if an advertisement will be broadcasted from the beginning.

In October 2006, Google announced that it had bought YouTube for the record sum of $1.6 billion in equities, so that the three founders have become multi-millionaires overnight. In addition to great success YouTube was confronted with legal copyright issues, when leading companies have announced they will sue them if they continue to publish videos that are protected from the copyright point of view. This has changed a bit the site policy, which removed the videos that were protected by copyright law.

Certainly, 2006 has been a year of the Internet, a fact recognized by Time magazine, which named as personality of the year- The Internet user – i.e. every person who is contributing to the development of networks and companies. Representatives of Time magazine said that the Internet has changed the balance of the media through blogs, web video networks as well as socialization. Time gave as examples names of sites like YouTube, Facebook, MySpace and Wikipedia that allow users to interact by uploading and publishing their own comments, videos, photos and links. «It is about taking power from the hands of a small group of people and helping others free of charge. This will not only change the world, but also the way the world will be changed» declared Lev Grossman, Time magazine.

Increasingly more companies flock to social networks, agencies specialized in web 2.0 appear like mushrooms and digital existence question is no longer how the webpage looks like, but what web strategy to follow. Even companies with more progressive visions struggle new digital communication channels. In fact we are all private individuals as well as institutions affected by a change that media has not seen since the invention of the printing press. Who would have thought after the dot.com bubble earlier this decade that the Internet will flourish at such a fast pace? The User has recaptured the network, inhabiting it and conquering new possibilities. And the mass creates relevancy: 100 million clips are watched daily on YouTube, 45 new clips are added every minute. Wikipedia includes only in high circulation languages over 9 million articles. Taking into account only the number of photographs on Facebook- around 4 billion – each person and a half is present on the flicker. If social networks were states, they would be since a long time present at the G8 table: 350 million users on Facebook, which total five billion minutes daily use. Neither the populations of China nor India are so great.

Internet networks become main business and relationship environment. According to a study of the ARD/ZDF, 96 percent of Germans aged between 14 and 29 years old use the Internet regularly, and those aged between 30 and 49 years who use it are at the level of 84.2 per cent. From all social levels new users are added: even from those ageing over 50, called "silver surfer" in the marking slang, the percentage rises to 41 percent. So, we're talking about 43.5 million people in Germany. Their tracks on the net are visible; the used results can be analyzed as a basis for potential communication strategies.

Thanks to Web 2.0, these people are no longer just consumers. The digital revolution has given them access to the tools and platforms to present their opinions and messages to potentially global audience. Every mobile phone, offers the possibility of filming your own ideas. Platforms like YouTube allow global distribution. Also the "means of production".
were never available to the individual. Even though most of these productions are seen by media professional producers as "loser generated content" media digitization leads to their democratization. Everyone is a potential customer, but at the same time, a Community member, a producer and a multiplier. At an average of 130 friends per user on Facebook, it means a tremendous market power. While working environments are well known. It is not "rocket science". The Internet is on the basis of any advertisements. Tens of thousands of editors and experts in the PR field navigate the internet daily looking to improve their careers.

Business communication of any nature would it be, can no longer be done at present only through traditional media means. The communication is done via social media increasingly more often, depending on the groups to whom they are addressed. The Frenchman Régis Debray has founded the basis of a new discipline – mediology – extremely actual, a key and a tool through which we can analyze society events at a global level. It is obvious more than ever, that we live in an age of media, in which traditional media – print and audio-visual media, coexist and are increasingly competed by nontraditional media, named "social media" means as well. Among which can be mentioned: blogs, social networks like Twitter, Facebook, MySpace or multi-media tools like Youtube, Flickr or sharing of opinions and information dissemination to Wikipedia, GoogleReader, e-opinions.

Blogs or Twitter network are listed among the favorite communication tools of the consultancy companies working in the field of European public affairs. Therefore, on the occasion of elections to the European Parliament in June 2009, such company has created a particular blog on which is posted all the public information, especially the unofficial one, that company has learned through its own means. This is called, "intelligence tracking in the jargon of specialists in European public affairs in Brussels. In the aftermath of European elections, until consecutive meetings of the European Parliament and parliamentary committees, the company blog in question was highly accessible by all those interested to know the information in the premiere, behind the scenes, related to European parliamentarians, parliamentary commissions or membership negotiations between the political groups. Moreover, some of the information was found on Twitter network as well.

Prestigious publications, such as "Financial Times", "The Economist" or "EuObserver" have special blogs dedicated to European Affairs, in which many interesting opinions and ideas are found. They sometimes represent an addition of articles from respective publications or, not infrequently, from a more direct angle approach to European topics. The newspaper "Liberation" blog of correspondent Jean Quatremer in Brussels (among other things, was the one who essentially contributed, through its disclosures, to Commission resignation, led by Jacques Santer in 1999) is a "destination" for any actor of the European public space who wants to learn new information, especially about the European Commission and the European Parliament.

3. New directions of virtual communications

Finland is officially the first country in the world where the broadband Internet is a legal right for citizens, the same as health and education. As of July 1, 2010, any Finnish citizen has the right to have access to a broadband connection of at least 1Mbps (megabit per second). Finnish authorities have promised that they will connect the entire population at a speed of 100 Mbps until 2015. All telecommunication companies will be obligated to provide all Finnish residents with broadband lines that offer a data transfer rate of at least one megabyte per second. Finland is one of the countries with the highest Internet penetration in the world. About 96 percent of Finns have access to the internet while only 4,000 homes across the country did not have access to the internet in mid-2010.

The European Union wishes to promote neutrality in the virtual environment. In this respect, the European Commission published on April 19, 2011 proposals for promoting a virtual, neutral and competitive space, offering as an example the major industry actors for their prudence, while consumer groups and activists deplored the current state of the Internet. Although much time has passed since the U.S. has implemented a series of legislative measures to ensure an open virtual environment, the European Union is trying to keep up and acting as such.

The Internet has brought upon itself in the last 15 years economic growth superior to that made in the 50 years of the industrial revolution in the 19th century, shows a study by the McKinsey Global Institute among the 4,800 SMEs from 13 important countries of the planet (Germany, France, Sweden, United Kingdom, USA, Canada, Italy, Japan, India, China, Brazil, Russia and South Korea). These countries together hold 70 percent of the world GDP, while selected companies have invested in internet technology (Barza, V., 2011). If the Internet was considered a sector of the economy itself, it would have a higher proportion of GDP than sectors such as agriculture or education, which emphasizes that progress, is a factor of prime importance.

McKinsey Global Institute points out in its study the facts that seem aberrant, paradoxical until they will be confirmed by other sources, and that the Internet has contributed by 21% to GDP growth in the industrialized countries
during the last 5 years, while in Germany, the contribution was 24 percent or 33% in Sweden. Although the Internet has brought, thanks to the automation of some processes, the abolition of some jobs, overall the number of jobs created is 2.4 greater than the number of jobs terminated because of internet arrival.

Research companies estimate that the market for "cloud computing" will double every two years and will reach 70-85 billion dollars in 2015.

Vint Cerf, called "father of the Internet", considered one of the leading researchers in the field of computers, said that businesses and consumers need to act now in order to move on to the next generation of web addresses. If preparations do not start now, some computers might not be able to connect online and the Internet connection will be affected- he said. Network engineers estimate that we may remain without addresses that can be allocated in about two years. Therefore, Internet supplier services should be prepared because every computer has a unique IP address, while not allocated addresses are limited. Cerf explained that it is as if the phone numbers would be terminated. No new numbers, no one can subscribe. When Cerf, along with other researchers, founded the Internet in 1977, he installed "Internet Protocol version 4 (IPv4), which provided 4.2 billion addresses. Currently, less than 14% of these addresses remain free. It is estimated that IPv4 addresses, each of which is an array of 32-bit, will terminate in 2014. A new system, IPv6, is ready to be implemented for more than a decade. In IPv6, each address has 128 bits and the system provides 340 trillion trillion trillion addresses (340,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000). It is estimated that these addresses will be sufficient for the following decades.

4. Conclusions

Everyone knows that the Internet is of paramount importance, however a few people understand how much economic growth helps, how economic growth brings jobs and technological advance. If it was considered an economic sector of its own, the Internet would hold values from 3 to 33 percent of GDP in countries that would have the courage to measure its effects in this important economic indicator, rather than dedicated sectors, such as agriculture or education. The U.S. is the most important country for the global Internet, generating 30% of revenue, while in China and India the Internet effect in economy has enormously grown during recent years.

Actually, the communication of any kind would be, can no longer be effectuated only through traditional media. Increasingly more often, depending on groups addressed the communication is done via social media, hypermedia. At the same time, more and more people communicate information regarding their activity on personal websites and/or blogs, and a large number of people- which is growing very fast- are already present in networks like Facebook or Twitter.

Currently, four of the seven billion inhabitants of the planet use internet annually, its influences on planet economy are comparable to "printing revolution "- generated by Gutenberg’s invention or other "revolutions", produced by the "steam power" or electricity.

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Factors Contributing to Communication Apprehension among Pre-University Students

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Abstract

This paper intends to investigate factors which may contribute to communication apprehension among English language learners in Sarawak, Malaysia. 49 pre-university students under a special programme called ‘Changing the Destiny of Our People’ (Mengubah Destini Anak Bangsa) participated in the study. They were chosen as their English course puts a heavy emphasis on speaking skills. Additionally, the course also expects the students to participate in both individual and group speaking tests. The data were gathered via a questionnaire and semi-structured interview. Generally, it was found that the learners disliked group discussions and were uncomfortable speaking in English. The learners were seemingly unprepared and unaware of the presentation organization. They were also found to display nervousness when asked to present in front of their classmates from the opposite gender. Finally, the learners were also not confident with their ability to pronounce English words correctly.

1. Introduction

Despite the fact that English is a second language in Malaysia, many students from rural areas in Sarawak view English as a foreign language which is spoken only during language lessons. When they enter the university, these learners often struggle with difficulties in speaking English. However, English is the medium of instruction in most public universities in Malaysia, such as UiTM, and also a pre-requisite in most jobs, thus making it necessary for the students to learn and master the language, especially for communicative purposes. Yet, many students are found to fear the thought of speaking in English and seem to display signs of being ill at ease when communicating in the language.

2. Significance of the Study

This study will be of interest to English language students due to the fact that anxiety or apprehension may negatively affect language learning (Phillips, 1992; Campbell & Ortiz, 1991). This study is also significant to language educators, curriculum designers and policy makers as it provides insights into the issue of communication and language anxiety. This may help the educators and policy makers to design courses which will be able to assist the students in overcoming their fear of speaking in a second or foreign language. As such, this study may help language educators to understand the types of communicative activities that may cause communication apprehension among pre-university students. Hence, this will enable the educators to find practical means in order to help remedy the students’ fear in communicating using the target language.
3. Problem Statement

Speaking in English can prove to be a challenging task to the English language learners, especially if they do not have a good command of the language. In the context of this study, a majority of the learners are from the interiors of Sarawak, where English is not spoken except in the English language classrooms. These learners confess to feeling nervous when faced with situations that require them to speak in English both in and out of the classroom setting. They are found to be unable to express themselves effectively in the target language. They also fear the thought of giving presentations in English and some have failed in their speaking assessment despite getting a pass in other components of the English language course.

4. Objectives

The main objectives of the study are to identify the types of speaking activity which contribute to communication apprehension among the MDAB students in UiTM Sarawak, and to identify the causes of communication apprehension (CA) among these selected students.

5. Literature Review

5.1 What is Communication Apprehension?

McCroskey (1977a, 1978) defined communication apprehension as “an individual’s level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons.” Meanwhile, Spielberg (1983) defined the term as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system.” Despite its negative connotations, anxiety can also be viewed as a positive element. Positive or facilitating anxiety has been found to stimulate learners to pursue language learning despite its negative effects on them. However, negative or debilitating anxiety can interfere with the learning of a second language. Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1971), as cited in Scovel (1991, p.18), described anxiety as “a psychological construct, commonly described by psychologists as a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object.” Therefore, anxiety is an unclear form of fear. This indicates that the feeling of anxiety towards communicating in English can be overcome with the right approach.

A study by Wan Zumusni et al. (2010) found that the level of communication apprehension among the final year Bachelor of Business Administration students was very high. They discovered that 45% of the students obtained scores above 80. Their study also revealed that many of the students disliked participating in public speaking and reported feeling tense and nervous when engaging with unfamiliar students in group discussions. This study also highlighted that the students disliked public speaking and viewed it as an activity which incites fear and anxiety. In another related research by Nor Aini and Normazla (2008), the study subjects were found to experience the highest level of communication apprehension when participating in meetings, interpersonal communication and public speaking. Their study also revealed that the major causes of communication apprehension were the personality trait of the students and their inability to pronounce English words correctly. Likewise, Pappamihiel (2002) in her paper wrote that students who came in with fewer language skills tend to be more nervous and anxious about learning the English language. Therefore, anxiety is viewed as a possible stumbling block to the language learning process of these students. Another study conducted in Puerto Rico by Lucas (1984) revealed that only 115 students were found to experience high levels of communication apprehension when speaking using their mother tongue, Spanish. However, these students were found to display high communication apprehension (43%) when speaking in English. A similar study conducted by McCroskey (1984) in Japan found that three-fourths of the samples were classified as having high levels of communication apprehension in both Japanese and English. Finally, in a study conducted by Shameem Rafik-Galea and Siti Yasmin (2006), the researchers found that more than half of their subjects were afraid of using English due to poor proficiency in the language. Their study also found that the subjects had high levels of communication apprehension when using the language to communicate. Similar to Nor Aini and Normazla’s (2008) study, they also discovered that one of the main factors of communication apprehension is personality trait.

All of the studies above draw attention to the levels of communication apprehension among learners and point to personality trait as one of the main factors of communication apprehension. This current study hopes to identify the types of speaking activities and whether factors such as knowledge of presentation basics and preparation time contribute to communication apprehension among the beginner level English language learners.
6. Research Methodology

This study involved 49 pre-diploma students from Part 1, Session 2012/2013 of the Business Management Faculty, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Sarawak Campus. They were enrolled in an introductory English course, coded BEL011. The average age of the respondents is 18 years old, who consisted of 40 female and 9 male. These students were specifically selected due to their low level of English language proficiency and the fact that the course (i.e. BEL011) is taught 12 hours a week. The course covers speaking, grammar, writing and reading, whereby speaking contributes to 35% of the total grade. It runs for one semester, comprising 14 weeks of lectures. The main objective of the course is to remedy the students' weaknesses in the use of English and raise their proficiency level. The speaking component is designed to help the students develop their speaking fluency in various situations.

7. Instruments

The questionnaire used in this study was adapted from McCroskey's (1978) Personal Report of Communication Apprehension, as well as Nor Aini and Normazla (2008). The 20-item questionnaire is divided into two parts and two sections. Part 1 consists of the students' demographic data. Meanwhile, Part 2 is divided into two sections, which comprises Section A and Section B. Section A covers the types of speaking activities that may cause communication apprehension, such as discussion, participation in meetings, interpersonal communication and public speaking. Section B encompasses factors that may contribute to communication apprehension, such as knowledge of presentation basics, preparation time and personality. A set of questions were also used in this study to elicit extra information from the participants.

8. Data Analysis

The data collected via the questionnaire and semi-structured interview were measured and triangulated. They were then analysed using the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) 13 and presented in a tabular form.

9. Results and Discussions

The findings from Item A of the questionnaire (see Table 1) elicited responses regarding the types of communication activity which contribute to communication apprehension among the students. A total of 38.8% of the students agreed that they dislike participating in group discussions, while 22.4% strongly agreed, followed by 2.0% who disagreed and 36.8% who remained neutral. Moreover, 63.3% of the students disagreed whereas 10.2% of them strongly disagreed that they are comfortable participating in group discussions. Meanwhile, a total of 14.3% agreed and 12.2% strongly agreed that engaging in a group discussion with new people made them tense and nervous. Only 8.2% of the respondents disagreed while another 8.2% were undecided.

This is followed by 51% of the respondents who disagreed and 10.2% who strongly disagreed that they are not nervous when they have to participate in an English speaking activity. On a total of 14.3% agreed and 12.2% strongly agreed that they are not nervous while 12.2% remained undecided. Next, a total of 30.6% of the respondents agreed and 36.7% strongly agreed that they are afraid to express themselves at any speaking activity while 32.7% were undecided.

In addition, 38.8% of the participants agreed while 10.2% strongly agreed that communicating during an English speaking activity usually makes them feel uncomfortable. However, 46.9% of them were neutral whereas 4.1% expressed their disagreement. Next, 14.3% of the students strongly disagreed whereas 40.8% of them disagreed that they are relaxed when answering questions in English. Meanwhile, 24.5% of the respondents agreed and 20.4% were undecided on this matter. 51.0% of the participants agreed that they feel nervous when communicating with a new acquaintance, followed by 6.1% who strongly agreed, 6.1% who strongly disagreed, 20.4% who disagreed and 16.3% who were undecided. Subsequently, 44.9% of the respondents agreed and 12.2% strongly agreed that they are afraid to speak up in a conversation, while 18.4% disagreed, 8.2% agreed and 16.3% were undecided. Interestingly, 65.3% of the students agreed that they are not uncomfortable when being asked to give a speech, while 34.6% were neutral. The interview data revealed that they have notes to read and refer to when giving a speech, and is it therefore viewed to be not as daunting as public speaking or group discussion.
Table 1. Types of activity which cause communication apprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I dislike participating in group discussions.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>2 (2.0%)</td>
<td>17 (36.8%)</td>
<td>19 (38.8%)</td>
<td>11 (22.4%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.</td>
<td>5 (10.2%)</td>
<td>31 (63.3%)</td>
<td>13 (26.5%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous.</td>
<td>6 (12.2%)</td>
<td>13 (26.5%)</td>
<td>4 (8.2%)</td>
<td>22 (44.9%)</td>
<td>4 (8.2%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Generally, I am not nervous when I have to participate in an English speaking activity.</td>
<td>5 (10.2%)</td>
<td>25 (51.0%)</td>
<td>6 (12.2%)</td>
<td>7 (14.3%)</td>
<td>6 (12.2%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am afraid to express myself in English at any English speaking activity.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>16 (32.7%)</td>
<td>15 (30.6%)</td>
<td>18 (36.7%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Communicating during an English speaking activity usually makes me feel uncomfortable.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>23 (46.9%)</td>
<td>19 (38.8%)</td>
<td>5 (10.2%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I am relaxed when answering questions in English.</td>
<td>7 (14.3%)</td>
<td>20 (40.8%)</td>
<td>10 (20.4%)</td>
<td>12 (24.5%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance, I feel very nervous.</td>
<td>3 (6.1%)</td>
<td>10 (20.4%)</td>
<td>8 (16.3%)</td>
<td>25 (51.0%)</td>
<td>3 (6.1%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I’m afraid to speak up in conversations.</td>
<td>4 (8.2%)</td>
<td>9 (18.4%)</td>
<td>8 (16.3%)</td>
<td>22 (44.9%)</td>
<td>6 (12.2%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I have no fear of giving a speech.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>17 (34.7%)</td>
<td>32 (65.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second part of the questionnaire revealed the following findings (see Table 2). In terms of preparation for a presentation, 61.2% of the students disagreed and 22.4% strongly disagreed that they prepare carefully before any English language presentation, while 16.3% were neutral. Next, 59.2% of the participants disagreed whereas 16.3% strongly disagreed that they rehearse their speech before any English presentations. Meanwhile, 22.5% of the students were neutral while 2% disagreed on this matter. In terms of knowing the format of a presentation, 53.1% disagreed while 20.4% strongly disagreed that they know the organization of an individual presentation. Furthermore, 61.2% of the participants disagreed whereas 20.4% strongly disagreed that they know how to begin or end their presentations. In addition, 20.4% of the students were neutral while 6.1% agreed that they do know how to begin their presentations. Next, 57.1% disagreed and 20.4% strongly disagreed that they know how to end a presentation, while 4.1% agreed and 18.4% were undecided. In terms of personality trait, 34.7% of the respondents disagreed that speaking in their mother tongue makes them feel tense; however, 49% of them agreed that speaking in their first language makes them tense while 16.3% remained neutral. 51% of the students agreed that speaking in front of their classmates from the opposite gender makes them nervous, while 22.4% disagreed and 12.2% strongly disagreed on this survey item. The rest of the students which comprised 14.3% were neutral. The findings also revealed that 55.1% of the participants agreed that they fear of being laughed at when speaking English, followed by 16.3% who were neutral, 20.4% who disagreed and 8.2% who strongly disagreed. When asked during the interview, the participants reported that they are often being laughed at when pronouncing the English words wrongly. Sometimes, their effort to pronounce the words correctly are interpreted as being snobbish by their classmates and this also leads to the embarrassment of being ridiculed during presentations. Subsequently, 34.7% of the students agreed and 10.2% strongly agreed that they cannot project their voice clearly during a presentation, while 26.5% disagreed, 6.1% strongly disagreed and 22.4% were undecided. Finally, 40.8% of the respondents agreed that they cannot pronounce words clearly in English, 8.2% strongly agreed, while 38.8% disagreed and 12.2% were neutral.
Table 2. Factors causing communication apprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I always prepare carefully before I do any English presentation.</td>
<td>11 (22.4%)</td>
<td>30 (61.2%)</td>
<td>5 (10.2%)</td>
<td>3 (6.1%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I always rehearse my speech before any English presentation.</td>
<td>8 (16.3%)</td>
<td>29 (59.2%)</td>
<td>4 (8.2%)</td>
<td>7 (14.3%)</td>
<td>1 (2.0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I know the format/organization of an individual presentation.</td>
<td>10 (20.4%)</td>
<td>26 (53.1%)</td>
<td>10 (20.4%)</td>
<td>3 (6.1%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I know several ways to begin my presentation.</td>
<td>10 (20.4%)</td>
<td>30 (61.2%)</td>
<td>7 (14.3%)</td>
<td>2 (4.1%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I know several ways to end my presentation.</td>
<td>10 (20.4%)</td>
<td>28 (57.1%)</td>
<td>9 (18.4%)</td>
<td>2 (4.1%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I feel nervous and tense even when I speak using my first language.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>17 (34.7%)</td>
<td>8 (16.3%)</td>
<td>24 (49%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I feel uncomfortable talking in front of my classmates from the different gender.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>17 (34.7%)</td>
<td>25 (51%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Because I am always laughed at whenever I speak in English, I do not like to use the language.</td>
<td>6 (12.2%)</td>
<td>11 (22.4%)</td>
<td>8 (16.3%)</td>
<td>24 (51%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I think I cannot project my voice clearly during a presentation.</td>
<td>3 (6.1%)</td>
<td>13 (26.5%)</td>
<td>11 (22.4%)</td>
<td>17 (34.7%)</td>
<td>5 (10.2%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I think I cannot pronounce my words in English clearly and correctly.</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>18 (38.8%)</td>
<td>6 (12.2%)</td>
<td>20 (40.8%)</td>
<td>4 (8.2%)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Conclusion

Communication apprehension and the causes of communication apprehension among pre-university students in learning English as a second language should be addressed at the beginner level of English language classes. Based on the findings, the learners should be taught basic presentation skills, such as how to structure an individual presentation, ways to begin and end a presentation, as well as verbal and non-verbal communication skills. Additionally, implementing activities which focus on improving students’ pronunciation may help alleviate their fear of being unable to pronounce unfamiliar words. Furthermore, using fun speaking activities, such as songs, poems or board games, may be able to encourage the students to speak, and thus, this could lower their anxiety levels.

References


The Right to Protect Children under International Law: The Case of Child Soldiers

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Abstract

Currently, there are tens of thousands of child soldiers among the ranks of combatants in international and internal armed conflicts around the world. While many child soldiers commit heinous acts that constitute war crimes, the reality is that many child soldiers, especially the youngest of them, are war victims even as they perpetrate atrocities that shock the conscience of men. This article examines the plight of child soldiers and the collective duties of nations in their commitments under international law to protect the fundamental human rights of children subjected to conflict. The article will then look at the international law intended to protect children in conflict zones and what standards should be applied in determining how child soldiers should be treated, either as war criminals or as victims of conflict. Next, the article will look at the responsibility nations have to protect children from becoming combatants or being re-recruited into emerging armed conflicts, to prosecute those who use children as combatants; to help children in process of rehabilitation or reintegration; to educate the citizens about the plight of child soldiers and the factors that place children at risk of becoming child soldiers.

Keywords: child soldiers, armed conflict, recruitment, international law, international humanitarian law, legal standards

1. Introduction

One of the most alarming and dangerous characteristics of modern armed conflicts is the increasingly widespread employment of children as soldiers. Child soldiers are found on each continent, in nearly every major armed conflict in the world today. Traditionally, children were protected by cultural presumptions that they were noncombatants. The first widespread use of child soldiers was in the Second World War. Approximately 300,000 children are used in both international and national conflicts around the world. Twenty million children have died as a result of participation in armed conflicts.

Over the past two decades, the international child rights movement has prompted the development of international law, policies and programs concerning the use of child soldiers. Yet in spite of the stronger laws and advocacy that have resulted in UN’s Security Council resolutions, international agreements, domestic legislation and establishment of country specific ad hoc tribunals, both national armies and rebel groups continue to recruit and use children in armed conflicts. In the twentieth century, children have increasingly become the direct and indirect victims of armed conflict. The twentieth century has also seen the rise of the concept of children’s rights, most recently encoded in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. Neither humanitarian law (including the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and the Additional Protocols to the Geneva Conventions of 1977) nor human rights law has managed, as yet, to reduce the suffering and involvement of children in armed conflict.

3 Dorcas B. Mulira (2007), International Legal Standards Governing the Use of Child Soldiers, Georgia Law, p.4
The pressing and much publicized problem of child soldiers in international law involves two related and interlocking issues: the criminal liability of those who recruit child soldiers and the culpability of child soldiers for war crimes. Contention over the age at which a person is no longer considered a child comprises an important part of international legal discourse surrounding these two issues. Even where there is a general agreement that children should not be used as child soldiers, the understanding of who precisely is a child remains an unsettled issue. For example, the Convention on the Rights of Child, which defines childhood as beginning at birth and ending at age eighteen, also provides an explicit exception to this general definition by setting age fifteen and below as the prohibited age of recruitment for child soldiers. Much of the discourse about child soldiers is dominated by the global focus on the need to offer an umbrella of protection to “children”.

2. Child Soldiers and International Human Rights Law

Developments in human rights law and humanitarian law applicable to children took place almost simultaneous to but distinct from each other. These two branches of international law are not the only sources of law applicable to children, but currently they are the main sources at issue. Cohn and Goodwin Gill explain further:

“There is no single source for the international law of child, which means it must be looked for in specific and general treaties, in the broad field of human rights at both universal and regional levels, in the rules international humanitarian law, in customary international law and practice of state”. 5

The first attempt to create an extended universal definition of childhood came with the Convention on the Rights of Child (CRC) 1989. The CRC created the first international definition of a child as encompassing “every human being below the age of eighteen years.” The Convention on the Rights of Child is commonly said to embody four basic sets of universal rights for children: the rights of participation, protection, prevention and provision. The right of participation includes the right to participate in decision-making and the right to freedom of conscience. The rights of protection and prevention deal with protecting children from exploitation and abuse. The right of provision addresses the right of access to key resources such as food, shelter, health care, and education. According to CRC these rights apply to all children below age eighteen. Although there are several articles that ipso facto preclude the possibility of recruitment, article 38 takes the conspicuous step of venturing into or invoking international humanitarian law.

There are two recent legal developments which stand separate from but yet relate directly to human rights law and international humanitarian law, the Rome Statute International Criminal Court, which entered into force July 2002 and recent decision by Sierra De Leone Special Court which ruled the prohibition of child soldier recruitment under the age of fifteen to be customary law. The International Labor Organization (ILO) created treaties regarding the protection of children from illegal labor, including child soldiering. The first of these Conventions, No. 138, sets out that no child below the age of fifteen can be employed in any economic sector. Convention No. 182 further sets out that dangerous or harmful employment—prostitution, combat, mining or pornography is banned for all children under the age of eighteen years. While both of these Conventions, on their face, may appear capable of making a real difference in the lives of children, they have presented a number of problems. Convention No. 138 was not accepted by any of Asian, African and Latin American countries where child labor is the most prevalent. In addition, while Convention No.182 clearly forbids the involvement of children less than eighteen combat, the practice continues to occur.

It is also important to point out that international law has become quite clear what constitute a combatant or a soldier, there is no such clear understanding of or category for someone who is both a child and a soldier. The very concept of child-soldier or child-combatant does not exist within the law, with the exception of provisions made for captured, armed minors.

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4 Convention on the Rights of Child, Nov.20, 1989, Art. 1
7 Geraldine Van Bueren (1998), The International Law on the Rights of Child, Martinus Nijhof Publisher, p.15.
8 For example, Article 19(1) requires States Parties to take “ all appropriate…measures to protect the child form all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse...”, Articles 3(2), 6 and 16 are among those articles which are similar in this regard.
9 Convention Concerning Minimum Age of Admission to Employment, adopted June 26, 1973, Article 2(3)
10 Convention Concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labor, adopted June 17, 1999, Art. 3
3. Problems Facing Children in Situations of Armed Conflict

3.1 Extent of Child Soldering Worldwide

Children who are on the move because they are displaced and impoverished by war or civil unrest are particularly vulnerable for abduction and forced child soldering. During the civil war that lasted seventeen years in Sierra Leone, more than 1 million children were displaced and twenty-five thousand children (some as young as six) were abducted and forced to become members of armed groups. While the participation of children in armed conflict is not new, it occurred in World War II, child soldering today is a widespread phenomenon, prevalent particularly in developing countries where political, economic and social instability are more commonplace and where approximately half the population are children. Children have served in government forces paramilitaries or in opposition force in Colombia, Mexico, Peru, Turkey, Algeria, Angola, Chad, Sierra Leone, Uganda, Iran, Iraq, India, Nepal, Pakistan, Yugoslavia etc. The use of child solders is still occurring in the Europe, Africa, the Middle East, Central Asia and Asia. In our days, a big problem on child soldier’s phenomenon displays the case of Joseph Kony in Uganda. Joseph Kony and the LRA are most infamous for their activities in Uganda since the mid-to-late 1980s. In the past several years, however, the group has focused more on terrorizing regions in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, South Sudan, and the Central African Republic. The LRA’s typical modus operandi has involved kidnapping children to serve as armed combatants and/or sex slaves. In 2005, the ICC issued a warrant for Kony's arrest on 12 counts of crimes against humanity and 21 counts of war crimes. The court also issued warrants for four of Kony's deputies in the LRA.

Despite international optimism, finding and prosecuting Kony is only the first step. His arrest will not guarantee the end of the LRA, though arresting him and his deputies would be a significant achievement. The ICC and its work represent only one part of the international justice system; the others involve disarming rebel groups and implementing effective government structures to address the problems at their roots. “KONY 2012” has started to bring one aspect of conflict resolution into the public mind but there are other issues that will eventually have to be addressed.

3.2 Abuses of child soldiers

Child soldiers are subjected daily to dehumanizing atrocities. They are often abducted from their own home, tortured, indoctrinated with brutality, forced to become intoxicated with mind-altering drugs, threatened with death and/or dismemberment if they don’t fight, forced to return to their own village to witness or participate in the death of their own family members. Children are required to kill friends who don’t obey the commanders and made to watch the punishment of other child soldiers who attempt in vain to escape. Child soldiers are brainwashed thoroughly and brutally until their ethics and moral values become so distorted that they believe doing evil is good.

Brainwashing is accomplished by desensitizing children to the sight and commission of atrocities. Some children who try to escape are reportedly boiled alive and other child soldiers are then forced to eat the human flesh as part of their training. Young girls are abducted as well and make up forty percent of the ranks of armed groups in some countries. In Uganda, Ethiopia and El Salvador almost a third of child soldiers are young girls, who are raped given to military commanders as wives and victimized by sexual violence on a daily basis. Girl soldiers encounter serious abuse including forced pregnancy. Girl soldiers are often used as domestic servants and sex slaves during conflict. When they are infected with HIV/AIDS they are usually not treated. These victimized girl soldiers require stabilization and special attention after their demobilization.

These children are victims of inhumane brainwashing and merciless combat training that makes them robotically obey orders to kill innocent victims just to stay alive. These children undergo a terrifying initiation that consists of killing or raping a close relative. They are forced to participate in acts of extreme violence and barbarity of rap, beheadings and the burning of people alive.

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14 Economist (2005), Justice v Reconciliation: Hunting Uganda’s Child Killers , p. 41
3.3 The Root Causes of the Use of Child Soldiers

Children’s recruitment in armed conflict is either by force (conscription) or voluntary (enlistment), even though voluntary recruitment is often coupled with hidden forms of coercion. Armed militia, police or army cadres arbitrarily seize young recruits from the streets, schools or orphanages. Children forcibly recruited cannot exercise a choice or give their consent to serve in armed conflict. Nevertheless, consent is the key element required to determine whether the recruitment of children for armed conflict actually constitutes trafficking and not just the smuggling of migrants, in accordance with the definition of trafficking set forth in Palermo Protocol.\(^\text{16}\) If a child is voluntarily recruited and takes up arms “consensually”, he or she may not be protected under the trafficking statutes.

Various factors in a child’s environment may cause her to join an armed group voluntarily. The child’s parental and family background, peer groups, school and religious community can strongly influence his decision to fight. Poverty, ignorance, intellectual and developmental immaturity and a lack of formal education prevent children from making an informed choice or even understanding why they are fighting.\(^\text{17}\) Children without schooling are prone to recruitment, like the many children in Sierra Leone when three hundred schools were closed due to damage.

Several interrelated factors explain the underlying causes of the rise in the abduction and use of child soldiers. Social disruption and governmental failures to protect children and adults have been attributed to globalization, to the increase in number and length of wars and to the spread of fatal diseases like AIDS, all of which create familial and generational disconnections leaving many potential child recruits available for abduction. The social and psychological effects of war can create a need for children to join a group especially an army that promises to provide relative security and stability. The huge number of children available and the military successes of these child soldiers have accelerated the trend toward recruiting young soldiers. The rise of a new type of armed warfare that is more brutal and lasts much longer than typical wars has encouraged military leaders to rationalize the forced recruitment and use of children as a low cost military measure that enables them to mobilize and generate force.

Children are often recruited as soldiers for purely military reasons. The technological advances in weaponry and the prevalent use of small arms and light weapons facilitate the increasing use of child soldiers. Such weapons allow small children to shoot steady streams of bullets with the mere pull of the trigger. Children are recruited because they are small and can be used as guinea pigs by their leaders who force them to the front lines or to minefields ahead of older troops while their commanders stay behind.\(^\text{18}\)

3.4 Individual Criminal Responsibility

Individual Criminal Responsibility is, in fact, a core legal concept in international criminal law. Without going too deeply into legal aspects individuals who, ordered, planned committed or aided and abetted in the planning preparation or execution of a crime under Article 2 to 4 of the Statute of the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda\(^\text{18}\), Articles 2 to 5 of the Statute of the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia\(^\text{20}\), and Articles 6 to 8 of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court\(^\text{21}\) can be found criminally responsible for such a crime, despite the fact that they may not have pulled the trigger. This reality is important when considering the issue of finding child soldier recruiters responsible for acts of genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes.

The most obvious cases of individual criminal responsibility can be found in the ICTR and ICTY. It should be noted, however, the legal concept of individual criminal responsibility recently became an issue in the ANFAL trial, particular

\(^{16}\) Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (2000), Article 3: “Trafficking in persons” shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.

\(^{17}\) Tiffany A. Richards (2004), The War is over but the Battle has just begun: Enforcing a Child’s Right to Education in the Wake of Armed Conflict, L. Rev, p.205-206


\(^{19}\) Statute of the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, Nov. 8, 1994, art. 2-4

\(^{20}\) Statute of the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia, May.25, 1993, art. 2-5

concerning the prosecution's clarity of the chain command. For a successful prosecution of individual criminal responsibility, there must be an international and national desire to hold an individual accountable for his misconduct. While the initial sentiment has been to hand individuals over to an applicable tribunal, demonstrated by the recent flux of international bodies, militarily tribunals have proven to be as legally appropriate as an international tribunal. In regards to child soldiers, it must be considered whether an international desire to hold them accountable for their actions exists.

4. Conclusion

The issue of child soldiers is not going to disappear anytime soon. What must be done, as a strong first step, is to stop the recruitment of these children. If there is no further recruitment, than a significant portion of children will not become child soldiers in combat situations. Despite a profusion of domestic and international laws that prohibit the use of child soldiers, this inhumane and widespread practice is likely to increase in the future due to the economics of war. Considering that the use of child soldiers is "rooted in the endemic competition for economic resources" and fueled by the huge profits from the traffic in drugs, weapons, and human beings, any proposal to eradicate child soldiering must necessarily involve economic solutions in order to effectuate real change in this hideous practice and to firmly re-establish traditional ethics relating to the protection and preservation of children's rights.

In order to eliminate child soldiering, the global community must address the protection of the child victims by strengthening compliance and implementation of international humanitarian laws, human rights norms, slavery conventions, trafficking conventions, international criminal laws, and fair labor laws that are applicable to children's rights and child soldiering. The Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court established child soldiering as a war crime in 2002. The international ad hoc tribunals and the permanent International Criminal Court should prosecute individuals and States Parties engaging in child soldiering and widely publicize the outcome of its cases.

The most important fact to remember is that child soldiers are children. Children, at the end of the day, likely do not have the capacity to meet necessary elements for genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes. Even if a court is persuaded that they meet such a stringent test, duress must be kept in mind. We must keep and utilize the defenses available to child soldiers in order to ensure that only those most deserving of punishment are in fact punished. No matter how one tries to spin the scenario, most child soldiers are not joining armies of their own accord. It is not their hands pulling the trigger; it is largely the hands of misguided adults who have forced these children into one of the most horrific situations in this world, namely war.

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Hate Speech in New Media

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Abstract

Hate speech, which is conceptually a contemporary phenomenon, have existed in traditional media texts for a long time and yet can easily be produced and circulated in the new media, which has a rather recent history. Hate speech being discussed within the context of hate crime and legal adjustments being performed pertaining to this subject, on the other hand, is pretty recent. Hate speech, which can be described as racist, religiously discriminative, xenophobic, homophobic, transphobic, heterosexist, ethnic nationalist, social status consciousness, economic status consciousness, and discriminating according to their disabilities, health problems, dressing styles, and sporting teams they support, is the discourse of the dominant ideology, sometimes in an overt and sometimes in a covert manner. In this study, we will study how hate speech finds a place in the new media and how this discourse is put into circulation as a result of the features of the new media. While observing how the dominant ideology is produced in the new media, we will be touching upon discourse and ideology as well as the definition of hate speech and the legal regulations pertaining to such. Displaying the relationship between hate speech and the mechanisms of power and the media as a result of the structure of language and ideology and to indicate that the new media is a facilitating ground for the spreading of this discourse are among the purposes of this text.

Keywords: New media, Discourse, Hate speech

1. Introduction

Regardless of how large the scope of the freedom of expression is, some restrictions to the exercise of this right may in some circumstances be necessary. Unlike the right to freedom of thought, the right to freedom of expression is not an absolute right. The exercise of this freedom carries with it certain duties and responsibilities and is subjected to certain restrictions as set out in Article 10(2) of the European Convention of Human Rights, in particular those that concern the protection of the rights of others.

There are various studies related to the hate speech created in the traditional media. On the other hand, the hate speech created and circulated in new media is time to time more effective than the traditional media. The main reason of this is the capability of the new media to make user-derived content production with its characteristic such as digitality, interactivity, hyper textuality, multimedia morphology, virtuality and expansion. (Lister New Media 2003:13 cited by Binark 2010:26)

2. Discourse and Ideology

We find it beneficial to briefly emphasise the discourse and ideology concepts which we will frequently refer in this study.

2.1 Discourse

Human culture is the consequence and proof of the increasing dominance of human on the nature and its potential to internally change it in line with its own use. This is a sort of human information through the social labour which constitutes the basis of each new step of the human in the productive and historical life. This information transforms into material in production, materialises in social organization, improves with the enhancement of technique as well as the practise and is primarily hidden in and transmitted by language. (Hall 1990:204)

We can express the word “Discourse” as follows:
In linguistic, it is an organized utilization of the language over the sentences,

It is a cultural code which uniformly controls the schemes of perception, language and information in any culture. According to Michael Foucault, discourse is something that is beyond a series of phrases. It has a communal materialism and ideological freedom and is always overlaps with the power. (Foucault The Archeology of Knowledge 1972 cited by Mutlu 1998:310)

According to John Fiske, discourse is supporting the interest of a subject area, a social environment and a specific social cluster. (Fiske Television Culture 1987 cited by Mutlu 1998:310)

Discourse, according to Ben Agger is everything that is in written and verbal form and which invites to dialogue and engagement. (Agger. The Decline of Discourse 1990 cited by Mutlu 1998:310)

Again according to Teun Van Dijk who is recognized as an important theorist in this area, discourse is an action or practise that takes part in our daily lives, just like the power. Keeping the actions of other people also means keeping their discourses under control. Therefore a way for controlling the power in the society is keeping under control not only any type of discourse or action, but also the specific discourse practises which we call text or speech. The importance of the relation between the discourse and power emerges at this point. Controlling the discourse is not only an attempt for controlling any kinds of human actions, but actually an activity that influences and grabs the minds of other people. Controlling the information, ideology and attitude is a guaranteed way for controlling the people’s minds rather than their actions. (Van Dijk 2010:12-13)

Again according to another theorist, Foucault, discourse is not a way of simply defining he world, but the principal phenomenon. For example the conceptualization and social handling of sexuality and insanity as the result of medical and scientific discourses is widely different from the former unscientific approach before the 20th century. Social phenomenon, is at least partially, established within a discourse and there is no phenomenon other than the discourses. Foucault sees the culture as a social patterns of the positions of the power, rather than analysing it through semiotic “indication systems”; therefore he grounds discourse in power relations, especially in the ones that materialise in organized and institutionalized languages.

Discourses may close the probabilities. There are some things that cannot be disclosed or thought within potency. The discourses have similar effects as the ideology. Discourses may eliminate alternative way of thinking as an existing way of thinking-seeing, and therefore support a particular distribution of power.

According to Althusser, discourse differentiates the theoretical discourse and the ideological discourse: a scientific discourse must form a series of “hypothetical” concepts that give the necessary information result and are philosophically cleaned according to their subjects. The ideological discourse on the other hand functions in an “enclosed knowing space” and generates subjects suitable for justifying the existing concepts (Althusser&Balibar, Reading Capital, 1970 cited by Mutlu 1998)

2.2 Ideology

Terry Eagleton has listed numerous definitions of ideology which are valid currently (Ideology: an Introduction, 1991 cited by Mutlu 1998):

- The process of producing the meanings, indicators and values in the social life;
- Ideas that help for legitimizing a dominant political power;
- Communication that is called systematically;
- A thing that suggests a location for a subject;
- The ways of thinking stimulated by the social interests;
- Thinking the identity;
- Socially imperative illusion;
- Combination of discourse and power;
- Action-driven sets of beliefs;
- Intermingling of lingual and phenomenological reality;
- The process of transforming the social life into a natural reality

The subject of ideology has been handled in the most detailed way. The Marxist ideology discussion is mainly based on the theorem of the Marx and Engels in “The German Ideology” (1965 cited by Mutlu 1998) asserting that the ruler ideas in any society are the ideas of the classes that own the means of production in the society. Concepts such as the “dominant ideology”, “false consciousness” were developed from this theorem.

According to Althusser, ideology incorporates into all shapes of the social existence and penetrates into the most
basic and ordinary institution, entities and social relations. Thus the ideology becomes de facto synonym of the experience lived. The relationship had with the world is actually a process in which the individual is the subject. This happens by referring to or calling various terms which give a social identity when each of the individuals, the social practices are considered. If the individual accepts (is established) its subject role (social identity) where it is called, it perceives the perspectives of the ideology as self-proving realities and experiences a world where the ideology is continuously affirmed and confirmed. Interpellation happens in reality by means of the ideological instruments of the state such as the church, family, education system, unions, communication tools and etc.

Paul Hirst (On Law and Ideology 1979 cited by Mutlu 1998:163), despite of all polemic against the false consciousness ideology notion, criticizes the ideological conceptualisation of Althusser by indicating that he does not apart from that notion. According to Hirst, the representatives of the ideology are the false ones which blur and make the capitalist exploitation reality unnoticed in its roots. The more destructive criticism of Hirst aims the interpellation concept. If ideology sets the individuals as subject with interpellation, which contains false-acceptance on the individual’s side, then it can only achieve this with the prior existence of a subject that is capable of recognizing itself as false.

What is important in terms of communication is that, Althusser calls the institutions such as school, church, which explain the world and society but spread the oppression, as the ideological instruments of the stat and his “interpellation” concept. The texts full of ideology invite the readers “to accept seeing the world in specific ways”. The reader, answering this call, accepts the reality version of the text and the ideological study therefore becomes the temporary “subject” of the text which discharged effectively. There is no doubt the reader, who has already focused on the ideology, could reject this call. However, the prerequisite (popularity) for a popular text is that, it takes positive response from the majority of those who are called. (cited by Mutlu 1998:161-163)

2.3 Ideology according to Gramsci

There is no systematic ideology theory in the Antonio Gramsci’s piece of work. (Hall & Lumley & McLennan 1985:1) According to Gramsci, the political order has its own laws and “incandescent environment” (Gramsci 1971:139) different from the economical level and the ideology is comprehended by means of examining the political level.

Ideologies are not classified according to the authenticity and falseness criteria but according to their functions and degree of efficiency in connecting the classes and class section to each other. Ideology serves as the “bonding and combining” the social block (Gramsci 1971:328). According to Gramsci, the “reality” of an ideology lies on its power to mobilize politically and as the result, its realizations historically. (Gramsci 1971:376).

The dominant ideology is absolutely systemized and serves itself universally but not sourced from the ruler class in the essence; generally it is the consequence of the power relations between the sections of the ruler block. (Gramsci 1971:83)

Gramsci, therefore grasps the differentiating acquisition of the dominant ideas within both the ruling block and the ruled class. The first one has its grounds on the fragmentation of the ruler block and largely in the division of labour between the intellectual functions and the second one is based on the processes of complex assimilation, transformation of the dominant ideas and objection raised against them by the oppressed classes. (Stuart Hall 1985)

Because of this, the ideological level of the hegemony must be brought together with the clarity which it contains but cannot be reduced to this level. Ideological sovereignty and subjugation are not understood within a conceptualization but, together with the fact that it has a vital importance, always as an overview of the economic and political as well as the ideological/cultural relations at all levels of the classes and class sectors. [The hegemony concept was introduced by Gramsci for examining these relations within and between the classes.] It contains the organization of the “self-induced” consent; this consent, for example, (which was mentioned as unitary and cooperative consciousness by Gramsci) can be obtained by economic compromising “not effecting the subjective interests” by the ruler block, together with the other measures which encourages the ways of consciousness accepting the submission position. (Gramsci 1971:161)

This concept, while retaining the distinction between the levels of the social formation, allows an analysis that ensures keeping the together; therefore Gramsci uses the “political hegemony” concept for pointing the principal instance of the hegemony. Gramsci, while making a room for a more complex and articulated notion of the hegemony, did not theorize the more specific use of such concept.

The ideology theory of Gramsci is neither the ideology theory imposed by the ruler class, nor self-induced and not based on being everywhere just like the Lukacs’s. Gramsci combines the elements in both, but makes it by studying in a paradox different from the basic holism. While most of the ideology theorists consider it as the systematic thought or endeavour for systemizing it in order to reveal the unity of the various patterns, Gramsci is aware of the fact that the ideology must be understood as a “relation that is experienced”.
In this case, there is a direct continuity between the critical meaning of the “ideology” as used by the conservative thinkers in the beginning of the 19th century and the critical meaning which Marx and Engel popularized in the The German Ideology (1845:7) and afterwards. (Williams 2007:185)

Marx and Engels focused on the abstraction of the ideological history from the real historical processes, in their criticism addressed to the ideas of the German radicals who were their contemporaries. As they mentioned about the dominant notions of the era, notions “are nothing but more than the ideational expression of the dominant material relations, which are grasped as the notions”. Failing to recognize this creates the ideology, which is the reversed reality.

Alternatively as expressed by Engels later: Each ideology develops in connection with the given concept material once it emerges and develops this material; otherwise the ideology, which develops independently and limited with its rules, gets out of being the independent entities.

Ideology is an abstract and false notion within this context. This is a meaning that is directly connected to the initial conservative use but its alternative is asserted differently- by determining the real material conditions and the relations. Marx and Engels used this notion in critical format during their period. The “thinkers of the dominant class were the efficient conceptual ideologists put polishing the self-illusion of that class, at the first place in their means of living”. (Williams 2007:185)

Lastly, we can express two definitions of the ideology contained in the Collin’s Dictionary of Sociology briefly as follows:

- Any system of ideas underlying and informing social and political action.
- More particularly, any system of ideas which justifies or legitimates the subordination of one group by another.

3. The aspects that separate the new media from the traditional media

The technological developments which have started from the last quarter of the 20th century, about 1970’s, enabled the emergence of the new media. The borders between the communication systems, which were clear cut separated from each other, have started to lose their validity upon common utilization of the electronic communication technologies and computers during this period. (Uğur 2002: 95-107)

Numerous scientists have tried to define the new media by using different criteria. While some scientists focus on the technological characteristics of the new media, some of the associate the new media with the traditional one.

Most probably, the most important characteristic of the new media is the fact of digitalization which allows the transfer, storage, collection and processing of sound, data, text and image over a single infrastructure. (Mcquail 2005:137)

One of the most important characteristics that separate the new media from the traditional one is its capability to allow mutual interaction in the communication process. Interaction must be considered as the main character of the new media. New media has the tendency to make the user an active consumer of information rather than a passive one.

Another important difference between new media and the traditional one arises within the context of creating and presenting the media content.

The digital media of the twenty first century, which achieved to improve the communication facilities between the producer and consumers, has replaced the old media. (Laughey 2010:157)

On the other hand, new media re-defines the source of the media content concept. In the traditional media environment, commercial publishers have the tendency to dominate the process of media content creation. However, in the new media environment, most of the content is created by the users. In online environment, everyone is both the content provider and user of the new media. (Oblak 2005:87-106) Choice and control have been pointed out as features of new media. (Pavlik 1998:200)

For example; due to the non-centralized structure of the internet, a user may be a media content generator by forming his/her web site. The new media, by providing the opportunity of being a content generator to millions of individuals, reduces the homogenous media content threat. (Chaffee & Metzger 2001:365-379)

As the American media theorists, Jay David Bolter and Richard Grusin stated in their book Remediation (2000), the new media has cured the old one. In other words, new media has occupied the technic, format and social importance of the “old media” and proceeded to compete or re-shape them. (cited by Laughey 2010:160)

New media, unlike the traditional one, has the facility to rapidly present actual media content to its users. For example; among the traditional media tools, daily press loses its actuality as radio and television have the facility to make more updated broadcast. (Carlson 2005:68-71)
New media gives more control to its users in terms of both content creation and selection when compared to the traditional one.

4. Hate speech in new media

The characteristics of the new media lead the hate speech to be more natural, common, available, easier to be created and consequently more ordinary. (Binark 2010:26)

4.1 The concept of “hate speech”;

No universally accepted definition of the term “hate speech” exists, despite its frequent usage. Though most States have adopted legislation banning expressions amounting to “hate speech”, definitions differ slightly when determining what is being banned. Only the Council of Europe’s Committee of Ministers’ Recommendation 97(20) on “hate speech” defined it as follows: “the term “hate speech” shall be understood as covering all forms of expression which spread, incite, promote or justify racial hatred, xenophobia, anti-Semitism or other forms of hatred based on intolerance, including: intolerance expressed by aggressive nationalism and ethnocentrism, discrimination and hostility against minorities, migrants and people of immigrant origin.” In this sense, “hate speech” covers comments which are necessarily directed against a person or a particular group of persons. (Weber 2009:2)

The comments made to the news shares in the micro blog application, Twitter, used by millions of people today, Facebook and similar social sharing networks or on YouTube, at digital gaming, online new sites, hate sites, the hate speech in new media such as IRC’s are the event that have to be examined punctiliously and deliberated in terms of the hate crime. The users of Facebook, Twitter, digital games, have become partners of the hate discourse made by their friends, seen them natural and taken for granted. The hate discourse taken from granted may organize the hate crimes. (Binark & Çomu 2011)

We can describe the hate crime as ; “Any crime, including the crimes committed against the people or property, in which the victim, property or the target of crime committed is selected due to the actual or perceived relation, loyalty, sense of belonging, support or membership to a group that has similar characteristics in terms of the actual or felt race, nationality or ethnic origin, language, colour, sex, age, mental or physical disability, sexual orientation or other factors”.(Binark 2010:13)

The hate crime was used for the first time in 1986 for identifying the attack made by a group of white students to an Afro-American person in New York (Alğan ve Şensever, 2010:9 cited by Binark 2010:13)

The main communication network internet has already gained a political importance and the increasing number of citizens use internet for leaning the government policies and actions, mutually discussing the issues, contacting to certain officials and obtaining the voter registry materials and other information which may facilitate more active participation to the politics. Internet dramatically expands the opportunities to reach the political related information and provides new facilities to the citizens related to political learning and action. However a new question has arisen; will the changes brought by the increasing internet use be able to create a qualitatively different political system in the future ?. (Bimber 2002:166)

Although the new media environment has some positive characteristics such as being a platform of opposition where there social change is mobilised and organized, Douglas Kellner and Richard Kahn point out the possible threat that may emerge if the new media is used by the extremist right ideologies and discourses. According to researches, it is likely that the kids and young people especially in the Western Countries to meet in the racist websites containing the hate discourse. On the other hand the number of the racist web sites has been increasing in Europe and USA after the spread of internet. (Binark 2010:32-37)

When we look at Turkey, the contents containing racist and hate discourse are frequently seen in the reader comments in the websites and news sites. The language which is carried from the news to the reader comments, plays an important role which works up, even organizes the hate discourse. (Dirini 2010:91)

We can see the same table in groups and pages in Facebook. There are many groups which contain obvious hatred to the Kurds, Armenians, Alewi and Lesbians, Gays, Bisexuals, Travesties and Transsexuals. The forums other than Facebook have a very important function in spreading the similar hate discourse. We may face with the hate discourse in the characters created in digital games (by working up the sexual perceptions) and as user comments in video sharing networks such as YouTube.

Binark suggests that the hate discourse addressing the minorities, LGBT (Lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans), different ethnical and social groups in Turkey are contained in the traditional media frequently, that the same situation is sustained
by the content created by the user in the new media and that the new media spreads more quickly due to the characteristics mentioned above. Binark and Çomu indicate that the hate discourse in new media must be followed closely and some structures that intervene the hate discourse must be established as well as it is compulsory to promote a language of peace in media.

After the entry of the force of the Law on the Regulation of the Publications Made in Internet Environment and Fighting with the Crimes Committed Through These Publications (the law with the number 5651) in 2007, the restrictions on the websites have become widespread in Turkey. However, these restrictions, which can be interpreted as censor, has not been addressed to the websites (the pages contained in these sites) containing the hate discourse. (Kaymak 2010:277-282)

The Campaign on the Law Against the Discrimination and Hate Crimes, on which the NGO’s has been studying for a long time, will be an important step for defining these crimes and preventing this discourse in the new media environment.

It is revealed by various academic researches and some studies carried out by the non-governmental organizations called International Hrant Dink Foundation, Kaos GL, Human Right Agenda Foundation and Social Change Foundation that, hate speeches addressing different ethnic groups or different sexual orientations are created in all areas in the daily life in Turkey, that these discourses created are re-created and put into circulation by means of the traditional media.

5. Conclusion

Social media creates interactive public spheres and therefore provides an environment which is very suitable for the hate speech to live and to be re-generated. Hate speeches are faces in all areas of our lives. These discourses have ideological functions to the extent that their real meanings are not recognized and keep us from finding democratic solutions by covering the material reasons of the social confrontations.

Heterosexist, xenophobic, racist, ethnical nationalist and separatist hate speech, spreads and enters circulation after being ordinary easier in the new media when compared to the traditional media due to its characteristics. Thus, any types of discriminatory and exclusionist discourses are taken for granted and transform into destructive actions, in other words the crimes in time by factionalizing different identities and existence practises within the society. (Binark 2010:11)

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The Construction of Contemporary Mobility

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Abstract

This paper stems from the issue of the mobility phenomenon, through the pathway tread by individuals in need of connection and access to an uninterrupted flow of information. In this informational, cultural and technological context, the presence of mobile devices, especially cell phones, stands out quite significantly. Such artifacts, which feature not only voice services, but also texting information and Internet connections, are increasingly present in urban settings, changing access, production, and dissemination of information. Therefore, on account of the mobilities paradigm and its connections to globalization theories and information societies, this article has aimed to discuss the role of information and mobile technologies in the constitution of the contemporary mobility pattern. Moreover, this paper has sought to identify and characterize the defining elements of the mobility era through information flows. Here, a prominent factor was the strength of the symbolic construction of a connected society that is constantly available for interactive processes. The connection made possible with the use of mobile technologies has become one of the most significant aspects of mobility for informational flows: connections are established for entertainment, work, study, location, consumption of goods and expression of feelings. Information processes resulting from a range of interactional operations and the mobility implemented by mobile technology have become increasingly complex and established new paradigms for the production, access, and dissemination of current information. This calls for a broader and more accurate view of what the era of mobility and connection is and what its demands are for a continuous flow of information.

Keywords: mobility, mobility paradigm, mobile devices, information flow, globalization theories.

1. Introduction

In the past 20 years, electronic and digital technologies revolutionized the way we produce, disseminate and access information. The Internet, as the ultimate symbol of these transformations, virtually recreates a world where economic, political, cultural and social forces are manifested by the hand of different individuals in distinct contexts.

However, the early 21st century witnessed the rise of another element set to take part in the contemporary informational scenario: mobility. In this sense, while, previously, there was time and place for information (search and access), now, most of our actions seem to interact around key-words followed by a "search"-button click. And, hence, we are armed with our mobile devices, immersed in Wi-Fi environments created by the very technological apparatuses which accompany us or which are spread around the spaces we move through. In certain aspects, such informational mobility spaces and devices eventually cause individuals to adopt characteristics of information users by requiring them to deal with decoding and operating informational systems and, thus, to be able to transit these environments as fluidly as possible.

Among artifacts which implement informational mobility, cell phones, currently converted into smart phones, receive major attention. Such mobile devices, which combine textual pieces of information and Internet connection, in addition to voice services, are increasingly present in the urban landscape. Laptops, palmtops, tablets, Wi-Fi networks, Bluetooth systems, among others, have also grown more widespread and become incorporated not only into the routine of major executives anxious to keep their work capacity available and connected while they are on the go, but also into the lives of individuals who, to a certain extent, demand constant access to information, personally or professionally.

On-the-move production and dissemination of information have significantly changed the way people get informed
and relate to each other. By amplifying the capacity of interaction both among individuals and between those and information, such devices end up engendering a potentially ever-connected society; one which is available to participate in interactive processes where such devices work as interactive prostheses or human body extensions.

As previously predicted, mobile devices, more specifically cell phones, have become a type of mobile hub for information management in multiple formats, which means more flexibility for the user to handle information present in his/her personal and professional universe. Thus, there can be seen the emergence of a novel social structure stitched with information, connective devices, individuals and places. As they move around the space, individuals can contemporarily resort to certain devices which allow them to access and receive information while in transit. Therefore, more than understanding the technological structure which allows for the arrangement of this new informational environment, it is necessary to apprehend the cultural and social change underlying this process.

Consequently, this paper aims at reflecting on how mobile information and technologies (particularly cell phones) behave to implement today’s mobility pattern. Such analysis is based on the identification and characterization of elements defining this era of mobility, engendered by informational flows via informational and communication technologies, and relies on theories and practices which support such mobility.

What stands out in regard to the era of mobility, when it is analyzed against the backdrop of the informational era, is the intertwinement of physical movement and informational flows. Whereas, in the informational era, emphasis was not put on physical body movements but primarily on the fact that information could travel independently of the individuals producing it, in the era of mobility, although information still flows independently of the individuals who produce it, a universal state of connection which encompasses society cause information and physical motions to coincide, substantially modifying the contemporary landscape.

2. The Construction of Contemporary Mobility

The 21st century has witnessed an acceleration of movement: people, images, information, goods, everything seems to move around in a more dynamic and complex fashion. In this sense, several changes permitted such new state of mobility. Technological, cultural and social developments occurring in transport systems, in mobile communication devices, in border demarcation and its control mechanisms, as well as in other mobility systems and artifacts, are changing the conditions and possibilities of movement and affecting individuals more and more.

Nevertheless, it is noteworthy to mention that mobility is perceived and experienced in different ways. While, for some individuals, movement is faster and more frequent, allowing them to cover increasingly larger distances, for others, moving is somewhat troubled due to “rugosities (wrinkles)” – each place’s preexisting conditions (material resources, social, economic and cultural organization) – which interpose themselves into this space of flows, as put so well by Milton Santos (2003).

“Nowadays, we live a world of rapidity and fluidity. It is virtual fluidity, made possible by the presence of new technical systems, mainly informational ones, as well as effective fluidity, accomplished when such potential fluidity is utilized in the carrying out of an action, by businesses and hegemonic institutions. Potential fluidity arises in people’s imagery and in ideology as if it were a common good, fluidity for all, when, in fact, only a few agents have the possibility of using it, thus becoming the effective holders of speed.” (Santos, 2003, p.83)

In this article, our perspective on mobility originates in the field of Social Sciences and features the mobilities paradigm, developed by John Urry (2007), as its theoretical and methodological framework. Based on the theoretical development and progressively more numerous empirical analyses concerning the mobility phenomenon in the most diverse aspects of life, there is, in Urry’s view, the emergence of a novel way of conceiving the characteristics of economic, social and political relations, which would point to a mobility turn in the social sciences (Urry, 2007).

“Such a turn is spreading in and through the social sciences, mobilizing analyses that have been historically static, fixed and concerned with predominantly a-spatial ‘social structures’. Contributions from cultural studies, feminism, geography, migration studies, politics, science studies, sociology, transport and tourism studies and so on are hesitatingly transforming social science and especially invigorating the connections, overlaps and borrowings with both physical science and with literary and historical studies. The mobility turn is post-disciplinary.” (Urry, 2007, p. 6)

John Urry (2007), by developing the mobility paradigm, acknowledges and stresses the diversity of “views” on that theme. To him, issues concerning movement are at the core of attention by several segments of society, owing to the actions and activities they seek to improve, control or even perform through movement. He goes to the point of stating
that the notion of mobility is in the air, actually referring to a new way of thinking about and of perceiving the world and the things in it.

In the field of Social Sciences, Urry highlights the existence of theories and concepts which become connected, providing a basis for the construction of his mobility paradigm. Authors such as Georg Simmel, Walter Benjamin, Gilles Deleuze, Henri Lefebvre, Michel de Certeau and Erving Goffman are identified by Urry as precursors of the early notions on mobility. Currently, a successful theoretical development towards a “mobility turn” in the social sciences can be noticed in Paul Virilio’s Dromology\(^1\) (1997), in Michel Serres’ “Angels”\(^2\) (1995), in Bauman’s Liquid Modernity\(^3\) (2000), in Nigel Thrift’s “spacial turn”\(^4\) as well as in Hardt & Negri’s views about contemporary society (Empire, 2000)\(^5\).

\textit{In the author’s words, “this paradigm examines how social relations necessitate the intermittent and intersecting movements of people, objects, information and images across distance”.} (Urry, 2007, p.54)

For our study, the mobility paradigm is important because of the status it confers on movement and, therefore, on the devices and systems which implement movement. Among the many aspects raised within the analysis proposed by Urry (2007), it is in our interest to comprehend how informational flows constitute themselves in the era of mobility and in what way these flows enable and register new subjectivities. Thus, we have adopted the mobilities paradigm as a background in order to analyze and understand those aspects related to people’s movement, messages, pieces of information, images which, at times, overlap, coincide and converge through the digitalization of informational flows.

### 3. Methodology

When we look at the mobility engendered by informational flows, we attempt to understand how information and mobile technology contribute to the articulation and/or the implementation of today’s mobility pattern. According to Urry (2007), there are several types of movement which are interconnected and dictate life’s current pace. Among those cited by the author, we highlight: the compulsory movement of exiles, refugees, homeless people and migrants; work movement, which refers to professional travels for acquiring knowledge, to global executives, to daily work-related journeys (pendular migration), to the movement by workers seeking better opportunities around the world and, especially, to global cities; leisure and adventure movement, which encompasses a range going from young backpackers and 	extit{au pairs} in search of overseas experience, to package tours, to trips for visiting family and friends (strong ties in movement).

In this context, based on the types of movement described by Urry, we set out to screen some subjects whose mobility is an intrinsic part of their lifestyle and whom we later interviewed. Here, we chose to look for subjects who move around impelled by work as well as by leisure and a wish for adventure, which, in part, would characterize a more autonomous mobility, not entirely compulsory. With regard to recruiting subjects who met those characteristics, we adopted a strategy similar to that by sociologist Stanley Milgram, who carried out an experiment in the 1960’s with the objective of capturing the degrees of separation existing among individuals. (Kadushin, 2004; Recuero, 2004.)

In Milgram’s experiment, people were invited to try to make contact with others who had been previously indicated by the researcher. Accordingly, the first endpoint was supposed to establish as many connections as necessary to reach his/her target contact person. All this was performed by means of (mailing) letters and, in the end, Milgram was able to find that, out of the successfully established contacts, the number of links needed in order to reach the final target was small, that is, there were few degrees of separation among individuals; hence the \textit{small word} model present in analyses.

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\(^1\)Dromology: science or logic of speed and acceleration (understanding today’s individuals as kinetic subjects, constituted with the condition of moving in the cognitive, emotional and affective planes and in the relationship with others).

\(^2\)To Serres, society is built through communication, thus he acknowledges that, nowadays, social ties are increasingly based on the circulation of information. He uses angels as metaphors for informational networks and flows. Serres, Michel. A Lenda dos Anjos. São Paulo, Aleph, 1995. 304p.

\(^3\)By citing fluidity, lightness and mobility as characteristics of liquids, Bauman, subsequently, uses them as metaphors capable of capturing the essence of the new phase of modernity.


\(^5\)The text proposes a reflection on the articulation existing between contemporary phenomena such as new information technologies, developments in genetics, the crises of national states, the social organization into networks, capital flows, ecological conflicts, etc. Such phenomena are approached in their interconnections, thus characterizing a new form of power, conceived by the authors as ‘Empire.’ Hardt, M and Negri, A. Empire, Cambridge, Mass, Harvard University Press, 2000, 478 pp.
of social networks (SNA)\(^6\).

In the context of this research, letters were replaced with social network contacts. Out of a complex network formed by “friends, friends of friends”, six subjects were selected who met the abovementioned profiles and who were willing to cooperate with the research.

Five of the interviews were held via Skype. The interview with the “adventurer” was the only one conducted via e-mail due to the difficulty in reconciling a suitable time slot and quality internet connection so as to ensure a complete via-voice conversation. Interviews were recorded and lasted 35-40 minutes, on average.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-depth Interviews held in 2011</th>
<th>Country of Origin</th>
<th>Place of Residence</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Mobile Devices</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer 1 (Journalist)</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Moscow, Russia</td>
<td>26 years</td>
<td>iPhone4 and Notebook</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer 2 (Researcher)</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Campinas, Brazil</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>iPhone4, Tablet and Notebook</td>
<td>F</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interviewer 3 (former-Executive)</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Minneapolis, EUA</td>
<td>78 years</td>
<td>Palm-Treo and Notebook</td>
<td>M</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interviewer 4 (Adventurer)</td>
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<td>Somewhere in Australia</td>
<td>25 years</td>
<td>Nokia and Notebook</td>
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<td>Interviewer 5 (Musician)</td>
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<td>São Paulo, Brazil</td>
<td>31 years</td>
<td>iPhone4 and iPad2</td>
<td>M</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interviewer 6 (TV Producer)</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Maputo, Mozambique</td>
<td>28 years</td>
<td>BlackBerry and Notebook</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 1. Interviewers’ Profiles

Questions were formulated with the intent of describing and characterizing movement as well as perceiving how mobile technologies interrelate with such mobility in terms of access to information and of personal and professional interactions. Audios with the interviewers’ narratives were transcribed and analyzed in relation to each other according to thematic blocks. Thus, we approached the concept of narrative as the very act of telling, explaining and analyzing behavior or as the way individuals deal with mobility through informational flows. The following questions guided our analysis: What is in fact “mobility” when we associate all these perspectives together? What is regular for these profiles, and what is discrepant? The goal behind this approach was to capture the place of technology and information in situations of mobility (mobility engendered by information flows.) What interests us is to show that, although subjects are distinct and have each a peculiar mobility, there are some regularities in their behavior and perception of movement. Individuals are mobile because they mobilize themselves in the form of information. Their social and cultural processes become informational flows.

4. Mobility Narratives: accounts and practices in movement

It is well known that an individual’s relative position in the space of flows will determine whether he or she will be able to follow such movement, thus having a more effective presence in such scenario. Those who are not to be found strategically positioned in this space, while coordinating the directions and intensity of flows, are drifted downstream.

In this manner, for our study, a choice was intentionally made for subjects belonging to the category named “globally mobile” by Bauman (1999). Such subjects are thus called because their movement is not compulsory, even if it

\(^6\) Studies about networks were developed within two traditions, the first being Social Network Analysis (SNA), with strong roots among sociologists focused on the employment of quantitative methods, while the second circle reflects on the anthropological issues of these networks. Currently, several studies carried out in the field of Information Science favor both approaches. Although studies are often conducted on the basis of Social Network Analysis, the insertion of a qualitative perspective approximates them also to social anthropology. The social networking phenomenon, under the light of Information Science, admits analyses related to informational flows, to interpretative and cognitive processes and to actions by individuals in distinct spaces. The metaphor and methodology of networks are present in studies about social movements, scientific communities, organizational environments, and spaces of flow created by communication and information technologies, to name but a few.
is subject to certain job requirements: those subjects easily transpose the real and the virtual spaces. They differ from the ones who constitute the “locally-tied” world, for whom the territory is enclosed around and presents with the impossibility of conquering the “space and the virtual access to distances which remain stubbornly inaccessible in effective reality”. (BAUMAN, 1999, p. 96)

Dwellers of the first world and of the second world: this is how Bauman (1999) characterizes the social types emerged according to whether they are capable of moving or not, as mentioned before. The cosmopolitan and extraterritorial first world, according to the author, is inhabited by “global businesspeople, global culture controllers and academicians”. As for the other side, “for the inhabitants of the second world, walls constituted of immigration control, residency laws, the “clean street” policy and “zero tolerance” have grown higher; ditches which strand them from their places of desire and from their dream redemption have become deeper, whereas every bridge turns out to be a drawbridge as soon as they try to cross it.” (BAUMAN, 1999, p. 97)

Although the discourse of mobility presents, on the surface, a romanticized view of movement, one which merges with an image of a cosmopolitan individual, who initially looks at the world from a humanized and open-minded perspective upon meeting new cultures, that discourse is fostered by capital flows. Therefore, elimination of temporal and spatial distances engendered by technology does not make the human condition more homogeneous; instead, it eventually produces a polarization between those who see themselves emancipated from territorial restrictions and those tied to a senseless territory who, as a result, can no longer withdraw meaning or even identification from it. (BAUMAN, 1999)

In this regard, it is worth referring back to Bauman’s work (2001) when he alerts us to the fact that in the “solid stage of the modern era”, nomad habits were perceived negatively and, in such a context, being a citizen meant to avail oneself of a fixed place, settle down in (a) space (work, family, social position). Nowadays, on the other hand, while vagabonds and homeless people are still perceived negatively, nomadism makes a comeback as personified by global extraterritorial elites. “The contemporary global elite is composed of absent nobles”, he says.

As described by Augé (2010), our present-day nomads do not resemble the ones typically featured in ethnographic studies, either. They do not search for sense in a territory, in a place, in time or in the return. Their nomadism is configured in the context of a “supermodern” mobility which:

“(…) is expressed by population movements (migration, tourism, and professional mobility), general instant communication and circulation of goods, images and information. It corresponds to the paradox of a world where we can hypothetically do everything without moving out of place and where we nevertheless move around.” (AUGÉ, 2010, p. 15-6)

From this perspective, these nomads would roam through “non-places”, which, according to Augé (2000), represent spaces of transience where it is not possible to initiate a process of identitary construction. Consequently, “non-places” are opposed to anthropological places because the former cannot be that which is defined by the later: identitary, relational and historical. Such spaces materialize in highways, in large supermarkets, in shopping centers, airports, that is, in spaces of flow.

In Augé’s argumentation (2000), anthropological places begin to dissolve as supermodernity starts imposing itself on account of time and space excesses as well as those by individuals. Concerning the latter, as soon as there is a weakening of collective references associated with what Cancrini (1999) called the space of historic territorial culture (time vs. space), the rise of an exacerbated individualism can be witnessed. Thus, by compromising with that which is transitory, non-places impose loneliness upon individuals, since the former are occupied by travelers, individuals in transit incapable of relating to those with whom they physically share this space of flows, in the author’s view.

However, what we will perceive from the following narratives is that, many times, non-places can be given new meanings through the use of mobile technologies as they actualize an absent presence. But they can also transform places into non-places insofar as a presence becomes absent by engaging in interaction processes. Their commitment to a certain technology can be so absorbing that people seem to have been erased from the settings they inhabit. “One is

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7 All of the excerpts of Bauman’s books mentioned on this article have been loosely translated back into English from the Portuguese version.

8 “Super”, in the author’s words, has the meaning of the English term “over”, indicating an “abundance of causes which complicate the analysis of effects”. (AUGÉ, 2010, p.15)

9 Excerpts of Augé’s book “Por uma antropologia da mobilidade” have been loosely translated into English from the Portuguese version.
physically present but is absorbed by a technologically mediated world of elsewhere." (GERGEN, 2002, p. 227)

The narratives and practices of individuals in movement put in perspective concepts which are dear to the theme of mobility – copresence, proximity, productive mobility, space of flows, informational territories, ubiquity – and offer us a rich and complex scenario for understanding the relationships among individuals, devices and information in situations of mobility.

4.1 Narratives in perspective

On the basis of the interviews carried out for this study, we can observe that, although individuals have distinct motivations behind movement and transit specific mobility contexts, there are regularities in such behaviors and in the very perception of mobility.

One of the first aspects to be highlighted concerns the fact that individuals perceive movement itself as a constituent and characteristic aspect of their lifestyle, whether this movement is seen from a broader perspective (moving to another city, trips) or considered as a movement of smaller amplitude, related to daily routine.

There is no pattern. I don’t know what is going to happen next month. Suddenly, a gig comes up and then we go wherever. So, it’s always been like this. But, usually, on weekdays, I am in São Paulo, dealing with musical stuff. (Interviewee 5)

It’s quite a long time I haven’t had a fixed routine. Since I graduated from college, I’ve been travelling around the world. (Interviewee 4)

My routine is, actually, little routine. (Interviewee 1)

Hence, mobile technologies, in their different manifestations - smartphones, portable computers, tablets - are of great importance to the interviewees, as fundamental partners for the accomplishment of several activities associated with their work and personal universes.

My job would disappear if I didn’t have access to all of this stuff. So, in a way, I exist because of the tools which are available. If the tools were not available, I could not do my job and therefore my job would not exist. My position would not have any value. (Interviewee 3)

I frequently use my cell phone to check (my) Twitter (page). Facebook (too), obviously, but not as much as Twitter. I also check my e-mails. I also use (my) iPhone to rehearse, because I have an app to connect my guitar to it. I use it as well to check my bank accounts: I access and use the bank apps. Ah, and I am a columnist for a site that talks about Palmeiras (soccer team) and, sometimes, I write the columns with (my) iPhone itself. (Interviewee 5)

Here in Moscow, I use my mobile phone to do almost everything! Such as purchasing subway or train tickets. In Western Europe you don’t get much of this, but here in Moscow it’s an extremely common practice. There is a terminal (machine) to which you simply approach your mobile phone and it validates your pass. And, if there isn’t one at the entrance, the guards also have a device which permits checking the ticket through the phone. It is also possible to do the same thing to purchase cinema and theater tickets. (Interviewee 1)

An aspect that catches our attention concerns the sense of security promoted by the constant access to mobile technologies. This is revealed by the subjects’ narratives when they claim to feel freer to move as they can easily access fixed or mobile points in their multiple networks of connection (virtual copresence).

It’s all very dynamic, the only existing pattern is that I have my Twitter, my Facebook, my e-mails, this is my island. In the virtual world, you have your fixed environment, don’t you? (Interviewee 5)

Another aspect which presents itself somewhat linked to the sense of security, but relates primarily to these technologies being widely disseminated – causing individuals not even to realize how immersed they are in connective environments (transparent/ubiquitous technologies) –, involves the uneasiness caused when it is not possible to access mobile networks.

I don’t know, I think that this movement, this dynamic is something you take for granted; you don’t even stop to think...
As regards mobile information, time travels faster and we get closer to those things we are used to: family, friends, work. You receive an important e-mail from work and manage to answer it in time. I remember (last) year’s end, when I was about to travel, and then an assignment came along, the title sequence for “Cinema em Casa” (Home Cinema), on New Year’s Eve. If it were like in the past, the person would have probably called me at home, and after not reaching me, would have given the job to someone else. (Interviewee 5)

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In the narratives presented, we observe that the connection provided by the use of mobile technologies is one of the most significant aspects of mobility through informational flows. We get connected for leisure, work, studying, directions, shopping for goods and expressing feelings. All the time, through the use of these technologies, we corroborate our presence in the world. The important points previously highlighted reveal distinct subjects in mobility and the type of needs they have to connect their lives. Thus, we regard the mobile individual as a subject who, at every moment, reconfigures his or her mobility needs, combining physical movement, technology and exchange of information together.

5. Final Considerations

Putting oneself in movement, be it physically, or through the information which circulates in mobile networks, is something that, for a determined social group, has become a lifestyle. We can even state that the intensification of physical movement rises from the capacity of individuals to keep connected to each other most of the time: accessing and disseminating information. Thus, experiencing the simultaneity of events that occur distant from one another in space eventually becomes commonplace, while informational flows intertwine in a hectic pace determining the pulsation of these travelers in and out of places and “non-places”.

In addition to the perception that locomotion time is reduced – as is taken up by other activities –, the presence of technologies of movement also brings about the perception of proximity to things that are important to individuals, such as family, friends and work.

Routines are changed; so are work and friendships; even love becomes more liquid (Bauman, 2004). Once individuals get so accustomed to constant access to and the siege of technologies, troublesome situations arise from moments when it is not possible to establish a connection.

Certainly, the expansion of ‘the wireless platform’ represented a significant change regarding informational exchanges. Therefore, access to technologies, nowadays increasingly impacted by the characteristics of mobility, is not a sole major factor in the composition of a society in which individuals can exercise their citizenship but, as put by Augé (2010), mobility in space, despite being a distant ideal for many, becomes a condition that allows for a “real education and concrete apprehension of social life”.

However, he alerts us to the fact that we must not lose our capacity to move in time. When we live in a world of simultaneity, of immediacy, managing to accomplish mobility in time represents a major step towards the most authentic form of freedom: the mobility of spirit. That is because, by becoming aware of time, we divert our eyes from the perennial present and move across history, thus becoming able to develop a less “naïve or credulous” view, and setting ourselves free.

References


The Role of Land Ownership on Tourist Offer: A Case Study in Himara

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Abstract

The paper focuses on the land ownership, for understanding its impact on tourist offer. The thrust to this work relates to the transformation of the Albanian society after 1990 and implementation of the Law no. 7501 “On Land”. In a short period the land scattered. The pressure on agricultural land increased significantly, especially near major cities, main roads and coastal area. Land use in these areas is not exclusively agricultural, always making use on current competition between different economic sectors. The Land Law created a new group of owners. Earth got fragmented among some members, a phenomenon that affected the tourist offer. Pressure on land in the coastal area grew. The aim of this paper is to identify the relationship and interdependences between tourism supply and land ownership. This analysis was conducted in the municipality of Himara, an area of significant tourism development, which increases the possibility of agricultural as well as urban usage of the land. From the analysis of the surveys conducted in a sample area of study we conclude that heritage and the process of land distribution deepens the traditional problems of extreme agricultural land fragmentation and this fragmentation is more problematic in the coastal zone. Development growth of tourism in the area is increasing the level of land fragmentation.

Keywords: Land ownership, farmer, agriculture, tourism, tourism offerings, Himara city.

1. Introduction

Land relations organizing is one of the main explanations of organizing society throughout human history. Hence the explanation of the first stages of economic organization of humanity is tied to land ownership.

Tourism sector in Albania recognizes a later development and has played for a long time a marginal role in the economy. Although early on the tourism sector was related to the Italian occupation, the tourist sector took a boost in development during the communist period.

Relatively quickly isolation of the country turned tourism sector, toward workers and local leaders. Economic and social opening of Albania after 1991, gave a new momentum to the country's tourism development particularly that of coastal areas, using individual private investment, which caused a structured small-scale tourism, coupled with extreme cleavage of local landscape.

2. Theoretical overview

Theoretical framework in which we support in this study, is that the distribution of land is based of its value if it is agronomic, urban, etc. Our theoretical analysis will be based on the concepts of land value and the distribution of it between family members.

To study the strategies of farmers on the land, we must keep in mind the triple character of the land:
1. land as a production tool;
2. land as reserve assets;
3. earth family fortune.

As Rodriguez (2000) emphasizes, land prices and rent value are determined according to the report and conflicts that exist between these three functions. Activities that use the territory are not the same. Traditional activities are modified and new activities are installed in space at the same time that rural families integrate into the global society,
thereby reducing the weight of agriculture in their income. Already, land usage reflects the social position of the family, its way of life and the creation of income (agricultural production, other activities outside agriculture), as well as the main features of land (location, fertility, etc.) (Guri, 2002).

Earth takes various functions ranging from goals and family situation which is the land owner and determines the level of priority that gives each function. It should be taken into consideration the new features of land that make the situation more complex. Thus land owns age means more and more benefits that arise from environmental amenities which are connected directly to the land. So there is no land values which are exclusively agricultural, rather, non-agricultural value becomes more important than agriculture. Baptista (1994) states that “the issue of land is not separated from agricultural definitive”, but on the other hand, increasingly, land interests are not related to agricultural area.

To analyze the process of inheritance, in this study we present an overview of the structure of land ownership in the last century, to analyze their existing characteristic elements and their role in the decision making process of farmers in terms of competition between agriculture and other land uses.

2.1 Agrarian reforms

Agrarian reforms were elements which left significant marks on agricultural land administration in the future (Tomasevich, 1958).

Even in Albania, under the slogan "land belongs to the tiller", August 25, 1945, approved the agrarian reform law. The objective was owning more than 145 000 families with land who had no land available, or surfaces that have not passed the 5 ha.

Table 1. The level of expropriation in Albania by agrarian reform in 1946

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expropriation</th>
<th>Number of farmers</th>
<th>Surface in Ha</th>
<th>Olive roots</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8714</td>
<td>54499</td>
<td>287744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partly</td>
<td>10641</td>
<td>64997</td>
<td>125259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former state property</td>
<td></td>
<td>50000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former religious properties</td>
<td></td>
<td>3163</td>
<td>61024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19355</td>
<td>172569</td>
<td>474227</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Civici, 2001

Beneficiaries were given land ownership "Sealan", which legally recognized ownership of the new owners of the land. On the other hand, the new owners had no right to trade these lands which blocked the land market (Aliko, 2001).

2.2 Collectivization

Along with land distribution collectivization began. Building collective cooperatives, was associated with elements as well as economic policy. Schmitt (1993) identifies as most important: i) increase the level of control over agricultural farms, ii) enable the integration collectivization of its agriculture more efficiently in the planned economy.

The process of collectivization in Albania recognizes two main phases:

1. From 1946 to 1955. At this stage the villagers membership in cooperatives was not mandatory (Civici, 1997). Albanian agriculture was generally private and only 5.4% of the total agricultural area was organized in the form of cooperative production.

2. 1956-1970. During this period collectivization in the cooperative binding of type “kolkoz” more than 300 000 hectares or about 74% of the total Albanian agricultural. In this period, the level of surface owned by rural families did not exceed 21 000 ha or 3.5%.

In 1976, de juro land collectivization ended in Albania with the announcement of the new Constitution which stipulates land as state property.

2.3 Decollectivization process

Approval of Law no. 7501 "On Land" approved on 31. 07. 1991, the parliament decided that collectivist organizations liquidation and distribution of land to all members of cooperatives in the area and equal quality. Beneficiaries of this law
would be rural households as former members of agricultural cooperatives by 31 July 1990.

3. Methodology

The study is based on a structured survey which was developed in Himara with intellectuals, teachers, farmers in the area who have benefited from the implementation of Law no. 7501. The questionnaires were structured in such a way that it contains the information needed to answer a hypothesis: “Individual strategies of coastal farmers in the distribution of land among heirs, support the social unit rather than the productive one leading to reducing the stability even more in this farm areas”.

For processing questionnaires, SPSS software (descriptive Statistics, Frequencies, Compare Means, Independent Samples T-test) and Mega Stat (Hypothesis Test, Compare Two independents Groups) were used.

Himara area selection is made for the simple reason that it has land area of socio-economic categories as diverse as e.g.: agricultural land, Orchards (olives), has developing tourism, urbanization.

Research questions:
1. What are the characteristics of the decision making about the allocation of land in the family?
2. What are the effects of inheritance strategies in agricultural farms of the area and the future of these entities?

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Analysis of the results of the surveys will attempt to explain and support the hypothesis of the study.

The following table provides information about the 7501 law enforcement in the area.

Table 2. Land distribution in 1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Village/City</th>
<th>Land division form</th>
<th>Members who do not live in the area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Himara</td>
<td>Return to properties before collectivization / The newcomers do not benefit</td>
<td>Benefit as gift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vuno</td>
<td>Return to properties before collectivization</td>
<td>Benefit as gift</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

Leaving out the ownership of newcomers in Himara, even when the latter were members of the cooperative who were decollectified, shows two essential elements: i) the implementation of this law in the area has overlooked its essence, which stood in an equal owning between villagers and former villagers ii) the core community is very strong that has enabled this kind of application and still more that made it acceptable even by non beneficiaries.

From the above data we think that in Himara no law is implemented nor law. 7501 nor any of its properties. This has led to distortions and abuses which brought major conflicts and preventing further development especially in the area of tourism development. This is due to the uncertainty in the management of properties acquired by Law 7501. This uncertainty is related to the land in two main elements: i) no compensation of former owners, who remain potential elements for Conflict and insecurity between farmers, ii) strong political debates on the implementation of the reform.

From the questionnaires it is clear that there is a tradition in the inheritance of land in the area. Reference historical heritage helps farmers in the allocation of land among offspring. In Himara land division is performed only on indigenous peoples and not for incoming residents.

Another factor that affects the tradition of land inheritance is the history. The settlers claimed that they would share the land equally among all children, without excluding women, as all are benefiting from reforms. Natives were cut in their decision making, only boys.

Another element is the land value. In our land, the area receives a significant amount of surface and especially those which are located near the coast.
In most surveys we note that there is a tradition which is stabilizing in the area. The decision on the allocation of land among family members are taken by the head of the family.

4.2 Equality in quality or quantity

Decollectivization process in 1991, formed in Albania many small farms in the zone. The issue of land inheritance, is not only related to the right to have land or not, but even with the surface of the latter. The study shows that the area of land allocation is performed by two main vectors: soil quality and value of the latter. Children who have the right to inherit land, take equal area of agro-plots with the same quality. This is not surprising, we can say that farmers can keep their strategies, elements of the reform of 1991. However, considering that the principles of the Law no. 7501, are not only used in farming families, they are coordinated with other principles that have to do with the value of the land. So unlike equity required under the Law no. 7501, is worth more than physical. Now the division of land among children preserves equality in value and not on the surface. The principle of economic logic indicates that value already exists in the area, highlighting land as development support, rather than as a means of agricultural production land. If we make a comparison between the model implemented in 1991 and the one implemented in 2010, it is observed that they are not much different. Moreover the model implemented in 2010, is modified but has integrated a strong value component, which was not true to the model implemented in 1991.

To analyze the variability of distribution of land in the coastal area and in other areas using t-test.

Hypotheses:

\[ H_0: \mu_1 \geq \mu_2 \]
\[ H_1: \mu_1 < \mu_2 \]

where \( \mu_1 \) the average size of farms on the coast and the \( \mu_2 \) average size of farms in other areas.

For a 95% level of security, we reach the conclusion that the average area of farms in the coastal area is less than the average area of farms in other areas, because from SPSS we have p-value (0.0056) which is smaller than the level of significance, indicating that the Ho hypothesis is not true. It is clearly seen from the survey results that the average farm area is 1.3 ha (0.7 ha in the coastal zone and in the next 2 ha).

This fragmentation has its source in '91, where the parcels were tourist interest, are shared among many farmers.
and each of them has an area of several hundred m². This fragmentation reduces interest and it's difficult for investors to invest in the development of tourism in the area, the fact that to have a large area you will need to perform more transactions with owners. In these conditions, the market vendors operate buyers who are interested in having reduced surface even more fragmented landscape.

5. Conclusion

The study noted that the strategy of farmers in land allocation considers the family unit and not the product. In these conditions, further fragmentation of these areas will be the last issue totally out possibility of being competitive.

The transition from considering land as a natural resource production in non-renewable, through its evaluation, implicitly means that the family unit has broken the traditional links. We must be aware that considerable pressure through the market, families have taken a position that accepts this change. This makes us think that in the future, these lands will be increasingly on the market until the latter have a request for them.

Land area is seen by the owners of the property as a security rather than as a production tool. If it were considered as a production tool, then sharing strategies would be manufacturing unit that will prevail, no physical separation between the seed of the land, preserving the unity of the land to maintain the ability to be competitive in farms local markets and beyond.

The extreme fragmentation of land is due to the fact that land is benefited by all family members and not inherited from the father, who has no moral legitimacy to exclude some family members benefit from the process of land.

Land division from in our area of study, has been definitely damaged the land and its effectiveness in the area. That little land that was divided by the 1991 law, or that belonged to owners during decollectivization, divided several times just a few years after the first division. Eventually between production unit (farm), and social unit (family) in our area of study preferred the latter as the most important and most essential for the future. In these conditions, we say that the family and the farm is not what prevails in the land distribution process.

Strengthen the development of tourism in the area will increase the level of fragmentation and final release of land from agriculture.

6. Recommendations

The study enabled us to recognize the problems of the land market and the tourism offer in Himara, the solution of which can contribute with some recommendations.

1. The study found there was even a problem with the reluctance of farmers to finance their land, because there is a tension and uncertainty to property due to property disputes. To solve this problem it is the duty of the government to improve legislation, where no precise definition of land ownership and the amount of compensation to former owners, because lingerering property disputes and compensation to former owners and makes domestic investment foreign limited, or not been stopped because of safety for the investment.

2. It is the duty of the municipal offices to determine which areas are to be protected and which are intended to be built. That the zoning to be efficient and to be respected for a long term and furthermore apply, because the history of the Albanian transition has shown that this method is observed or very difficult, or more often not respected at all.

3. Although the law no. 9244, dated 17.06.2004 to regulate the relationship between the right of private ownership of land and its obligation to protect a national treasure, is not able to build adequate policies and determine land use. To prevent damage, the limited physical alternation of land and improve its management should develop national policies for the taxation of land transactions.

4. The proposed transaction tax is a tax that applies at the time of the transaction. This is because the registration of the transaction remains a key element in that state institutions have full restrictive capacity regarding the applicability of the tax and its payment by buyers.

5. Tax rate set in a transaction subject should change depending on the traded area. So apply a higher tax fee if marketed a small area and reduce the tax on larger area. The objective is to increase the tax on transactions over land areas in the coastal zone. This fee helps maintain the fragmentation of parcels. Since this method should be functional public institutions to be able to implement this policy, because currently these institutions have indicated that they are unable to provide a satisfactory service even if the buyer is willing to pay.

6. The development of tourism in the area leaves much to be desired, it has significant shortages in basic infrastructure elements, thus by invalidating the natural charm of the area. State institutions should adapt an
integrated development strategy based on tourism and environmental advantages and focused on the environmental carrying capacity of the area.

References


Ethnic Media and Identity Construction:  
The Representation of Women in the An Ethnic Newspaper in South Africa  

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Abstract  

Media are powerful agents of socialisation. Through representation, media helps in constructing and reproducing gender identities. The representation of how women are constructed by the media has travelled due to globalization. The 2006 Global Media Monitoring Project reveals that women are under-represented in news. The media are therefore construed as constructing gender subjectivity. For example, women are literally absent in news, politics and economics and hardly ever appear as spokespersons or as field experts. These subjective representations are often framed though the lenses of the media producers and are influenced by the political economy of the media. Media are therefore seen as representing a distorted version of women. Gallagher (2004), however states that in South Africa, the process of changing gender in the newsroom has started and media audiences, texts and institutions have changed, largely due to the persistent gender advocacy. Based on this, this paper sets out to investigate how Indian women are represented in a South African newspaper targeted at a cross-national ethnic readership. A qualitative methodology was used to analyse content and photographs appearing in ten consecutive publications of the newspaper. Themes emanating from the literature review were used to analyse newspaper content. The major findings of the investigation indicate that representations of the South African Indian woman has undoubtedly expanded, taking into account new roles and offering new identities, however certain stereotypical identities continue to prevail.  

1. Introduction: The media as an instrument for representation  

There are the many ways that humans use in classifying their own and other people’s identity. Nationality, gender and ethnicity are some of the common streams of identity classification. Jeffres (2000) view of ethnicity is a result of actions not only by ethnic groups as they define themselves and their culture but also the result of external social, economic, and political processes. The concept of ethnic identity is of primordial importance for the understanding of what ethnic groups encounter in their position as minorities inside a dominant culture (Phinney, 1990). Social identity theory posits that people obtain positive reinforcement from a sense of belonging to a distinct group; particular memberships or social identities can be created on the basis of any commonly shared characteristics (Turner, 1999). The mass media counts as external factors that affect the constitution of an ethnicity and the perpetuation of a culture. The media therefore offer us ways to understand ethnicity and ethnic issues (O’Shaughnessy & Stadler, 2006). The media are agents of socialisation, a carrier of culture, and a way of communicating ideology (O’Shaughnessy & Stadler, 2006). The media are therefore seen as important vehicles in giving construction, images and representation of discourses around issues of ethnic identity. Stuart Hall (1997) describes representation as an essential part of the process by which meaning is produced and exchanged between members of a culture. It involves the use of language, of signs and images which stand for or represent things. Hall’s (1997) work has explored representation as a signifying practice in a rich diversity of social contexts and examines the way that media keep those who are powerful in society in control, while at the same time, keeping the powerless people powerless. The media also has the power to influence society by conveying stereotypical and patriarchal representations of women. Ashford and Clifton (2005) assert that although women constitute over fifty
percent of the world’s population, they are under-represented in the media. Holland (2004) maintains that men, who produce the pages, will continue to build their power on the decorative excess of the women who are pictures on them. Therefore, the way women are represented in the media influences the public’s opinions and thoughts. Thus, it would be a mistake to overlook the potential that ethnic media texts have for providing insight about in-group dynamics, prevailing cultural messages, and social identification (Ricle Mayorga, 2007). Milestone and Meyer (2012) argue that representations matter: they are not ‘only’ words and images, but reflect and encourage certain ways of thinking about and acting in relation to women. Parry and Karam (2001) maintain that the media has always possessed the power to impart ideological and patriarchal messages. Other studies (Courtney and Lockertz, 1971; Tuchman, 1978; and Williamson, 1978) show that women are often portrayed in domestic working roles, non-working activities, and women’s images are used to sell products.

Through representation, the media has the ability to influence public opinion and perception. Subervi-Velez, (1993) therefore maintains that ethnic media, in particular provides the means for minority members to participate in the production of media messages, to create more accurate and favorable portrayals, and ultimately, to conceive and disseminate ethnic identities. However, whilst ethnic media can address integrations and pluralism there are at the same time many other functions that ethnic media may perform (Johnson, 2003). One such function is the representation of ethnic women in the media. Both general audience and ethnic media contribute to the adoption, elimination, and modification of values, attitudes, and beliefs within groups as well as between in-groups and out-groups (Renz, 2003). They are agents in the social processes of acculturation and/or pluralism and they influence both social and personal identities (Johnson, 2003). Social identities as well as personal identities are deeply influenced by mediated media messages, which create constant renegotiations of the values and beliefs that guide human interaction. The renegotiation of identity often lies in the changes brought about through deviant representations. These deviances bring about subtle changes and influences public opinion and identity construction. The media therefore has the power to represent women in diverse roles offering them new identity that deviates from the patriarchal stereotypical role. Milestone and Meyer’s (2012) study shows that the representations of women have in fact undoubtedly diversified, taking into account new roles and offering new identities, but traditional images and norms continue to exist and exert powerful influence. Based on this this paper sets out to investigate how Indian women are represented in a South African ethnic newspaper targeted at a cross-national ethnic readership. It analyses the coverage of stories on women using content analysis of word, sentence (language) and visual imagery from the newspaper. Based on this, relational content analysis then determines the meanings resultant of gender stereotypes in the media.

2. Ethnic media representation

Although one of the first studies that examined the social-psychological effects of media exposure on racial/ethnic attitudes looked at film content (Peterson, Thurstone, Shutlesworth, & May, 1933), recent research (Brown & Campbell, 1986; Coltrane & Messineo, 2000; Entman, 1992, Mastro & Greenberg, 2000; Thomas & Treiber, 2000) based on racial media stereotyping has been conducted on various media sources such as news stories, television programs, music videos, and magazine advertisements. Findings from these studies show under-representation of racial minorities and that members of racial groups are often depicted in stereotypical ways. These studies show that racial stereotypes in the media have been known to influence racial attitudes and ethnic identities and also play role in identity formation. Exposure to stereotypical media content is stored as a general view about all members of the group that is being portrayed. Constant exposure to media messages according to Faurie (2004), can affect behaviour over a longer period of exposure to media content. This has relevance in the agenda setting theory which stipulates that the mass media has the ability to transfer items of prominence on the public agenda. This in turn directs thought processes and attention towards certain issues by the possible exclusion or scant coverage of certain items and an over focus on other issues. This means that the media will have an effect on public opinion and therefore shape opinions and beliefs about ethnic groups. Therefore central to the argument of representation of women is the construction of identity and that the media is important in shaping identity because they provide the “discursive fields through which meaning is produced in relation to power” (Woodward, 2002). In other words, the media creates the means for people to engage in media rituals that define their identity (Wasserman, 2008). South Africans in particular have additional complexities in terms of identity construction. During Apartheid media structures helped the Apartheid government to create economic classes and imposed racial and ethnic identities, they therefore contributed significantly to identity and ethnic formation (Wasserman, 2008).

Stereotypical media portrayal of ethnic groups is a cause for concern as audiences often interpret this as the norm and these representations therefore distort reality. In South Africa, Indian woman appear very rarely in mainstream
news. Stam and Spence (1983) argue that *structuring absence* is when the lack of images of people of color defines white peoples as the central/natural identity category. The tendency within Western culture has been for the media representations to be produced by whites and thus most epitomize a white view of the world and of other ethnic groups (O'Shaughnessy & Stadler: 2006). Stam and Spence (1983) argue that the absence of representations ‘is as bad as distorting stereotypes’ and can be even more problematic than negative representations.

Milestone and Meyer (2012) cite an example where popular culture has a history of representing women as centrally concerned with and in need of love, romance and relationship. This is a misrepresentation of women. Therefore Stam and Spence (1983) further add that misrepresentation of ethnic groups is another important issue to consider, as is the issue of, who is accorded the right and the ability to make representations and who has access to the media.

Carter and Steiner (2004), however maintain that although many clearly gendered stereotypes still inform media content today, the rigidity of such hierarchical feminine gendered identity has nevertheless begun to break down. An increasingly varied array of feminine images and role models is now available, some of which offer progressive and sometimes challenging alternatives. Milestone and Meyer (2012), further reinforce this and maintain that representations of women have undoubtedly diversified, taking into account new roles and offering new identities, but traditional images and norms continue to exist and exert powerful influence. Even though the process is at its early stages, the change is painfully slow especially amongst minority women. Gallagher (2004), also states that in South Africa, the process of changing gender in the newsroom has started and media audiences, texts and institutions have changed, largely due to the persistent gender advocacy. Gallagher, (2004) further states that media and gender activists have begun to find ways of initiating awareness of ‘gender blindness’ amongst media production houses. An example of this is the way women are represented in the *Sunday Times Extra* (a weekly supplement in the *Sunday Times* – a national newspaper in South Africa). Based on this, this paper sets out to investigate how Indian women are represented in a South African newspaper - the *Sunday Times Extra* (a weekly supplement in the *Sunday Times* – a national newspaper targeted at a cross-national ethnic readership).

3. South African ethnic media

In the past, the South African media was under tremendous strain as society was polarized and unequal. The South African media had to contend with social, political and economic conditions in a country with disparities in proportions. Understandably, the subject of gender representations did not seem to be a priority in the media and ethnic women were particularly at a disadvantage. Since democratization in 1994, gender representation and the position of women in the media industry in the South African media has received considerable attention. Morna, (2010) reports that there has been a marginal improvement in the proportion of women sources in the news in the region from 17% in the 2003 Gender and Baseline Study (GMBS) to 19% in the 2010 Gender and Media Progress Study (GMPS). There have also been concerted efforts by media houses to cater for minority ethnic groups such as the Indian South African. With a population of just over a million, the Indian population is diverse in terms of language, religion and cultural practices. Indian South Africans are people of Indian descent mostly living in and around the city of Durban, making it the largest ‘Indian’ city outside India (Mukherji, Anahita: (http://articles.timesofindia.indiatimes.com/2011-07-23/mumbai/29807173_1_durban-south-africa-uk). Many Indians in South Africa are descendants of migrants from colonial India. The Indian population in South Africa is a minority group that makes up just 2.5% of the total population of South Africa, that is, approximately 51 770 560 (www.southafrica.info). Although Indian languages are seldom spoken or understood by younger Indians, English-subtitled Bollywood films and television programmes remain popular among South African Indians. These are broadcast both by the South African Broadcasting Corporation’s SABC 2 television channel for a few hours each week (Eastern Mosaic on Sundays), and by the DSTv satellite television service, which carries Zee TV, B4U, NDTV and a Hindi-language Sony channel. In addition, Tamil-language channels, Sun TV and KTV, were introduced in 2004. In addition, the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) also has an Indian-oriented radio service called Lotus FM. The *Sunday Times* has a supplement distributed in Indian areas (in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), Gauteng and the Eastern Cape) called the *Extra*. The new forma covers issues around travel, health and wellness, weddings, youth, education and sport content and news Bollywood is a key feature. The format, says *Extra* editor Yasantha Naidoo, comes after market research revealed that generally readers were feeling disconnected from the *Extra*. Some felt it was too highbrow; some thought it was too sensational. Many felt they wanted more lifestyle-orientated content aimed at the Indian community. "What seemed to resonate with the readers [in the focus groups] was the good news and the success stories, as well as sport and education - these are very important in the Indian community," says Naidoo. “So our niche is that we’re catering for the community’s lifestyle aspirations” (Moodie, 2011).
4. Research Methodology

The approach used for this research is case study method. Welman and Kruger (1999) define the case study method as “...limited number of units of analysis (often only one)...such as an individual, a group or an institution (which) are studied intensively.” The *Sunday Times Extra* (a weekly supplement in The Sunday Times, a major national South African newspaper) serves as the primary unit of analysis for this paper. The primary unit of analysis is articles of women from *The Sunday Times Extra* over a 10 week period. Content analyses are typically performed on forms of human communication, including books, newspapers, films, television, art, music (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010). Jacob (2006) explains that to conduct a content analysis on any text, the text is coded or broken down into manageable categories on a variety of levels: word, word sentence, phrase, theme, visuals and then examined using one of content analysis’s basic method, conceptual analysis or relational analysis. In terms of this paper, relational analysis is used as the focus extends beyond the frequency of certain words, phrases and themes but to the emergent meanings. In order to proceed with relational analysis, the categories need to be first selected. The newspaper issues and literature review served to identify these categories. Therefore the categories for analysis are: word sentence (language), visual imagery and the relationship to gender stereotypes.

5. Analysis

5.1 Evolving Images of Women

The media stereotypes girls to be raised as consumers of the future – domestic, caring and objects of beauty rather than producers. However, the *Extra* (24 May 2013) depicts an image of Ms Ela Gandhi, a political and social activist on the front page is an example of the varied images currently in the media. Ms Gandhi (the grand-daughter of Mahatma Gandhi) has a pair of running shoes in her hand and poses next to the bust of her grand-father. The caption highlights an annual event in Durban to commemorate the Salt March that Gandhi undertook in India in 1930. The Salt March is hosted by the city of Durban. Citizens, school children, politicians of all ethnic backgrounds walk from Gandhi’s homestead in Inanda to the Durban Beachfront, stretching some 19 kilometers. These findings support Carter and Steiner’s, (2004) assertion that, the “rigidity of such hierarchical feminine gendered identity has nevertheless begun to break down”. There are varied images of women now available, some often progressive.

5.2 A Deviant Case

Unexpected generalizations in the course of data analysis lead one to seek out new deviant (unusual – unexpected) cases. Silverman (2006) notes that deviant cases go against the pattern identified. The *Extra* (30 June 2013) portrays a deviant image, under the mischievous sub-heading ‘pimp my ride’, of Durban businesswomen Shivani Pillay. She poses, seated on the bonnet of her graffiti-covered black and grey Volkswagen Golf 6 GTI. The 23 year old Durban businesswoman is a part-time criminology student and is portrayed as an energetic, assertive, successful career woman.

Another photograph in the *Extra* (7 July 2013) depicts table-tennis champ, Danisha Patel. She is one of 120 participants, heading for Russia to represent her country. The table tennis champ is also a 2nd year BSc student at Johannesburg University. Representations of women have diversified, taking into account new roles and offering new identities. The cases identified above, seem to go against the grain of stereotype reporting of women and prove otherwise.

5.3 Romance, sexuality and relationships

The media thrives on the role that romance, love and drama play in a woman’s life. During teenage years, young women’s lives revolve around boyfriends and appearance. The romance eventually concludes in a marriage proposal and wedding. However, Milestone, and Meyer (2012) suggest that the media feed into the “conventional ideology of femininity” and “frames marriage and a family as life-goals”. With the new look of the *Extra*, (9 June 2013) devotes a full page with colour photographs to a couple’s dream wedding. Details of how the groom planned the proposal, the type of wedding ceremony, the menu at the wedding reception, the number of guests invited, the gifts given out at the wedding, the table settings and honeymoon details are accompanied by colour photographs.

In addition, there is a two page spread on Indian films from North India (Bollywood) and South India, lending to more romance, colour, dance and drama. The four photographs in The *Extra* (30 June 2013) in this section reflect
romance, dance, drama and colour of Bollywood. The Indian film industry entertains billions of people around the globe (Raheja and Kothari, 2004). Its influences have also spread. Besides the song and dance, Bollywood has had an immense impact on the Indian fashion industry and has always been in the forefront to set trends (Chadha, 2009). Bollywood is by no means traditional and conventional with the modern iconic Bollywood screen goddess Aishwariya Rai shown in exotic poses.

5.4 Women at the helm

In essence, in order to appeal to a wider range of audiences, there has to be fair and diverse gender representation (Gallagher, 2004). The process begins in the newsrooms. This is evident in The Extra where the editor of the newspaper Yasantha Naidoo, is a woman. All four reporters are women, (Santham Pillay, Siphiliselwe Makanya, Tashica Pillay and Doreen Premdev), so is their photographer (Jackie Clausen). The Extra seems to be fairly well balanced (if not titling towards a gendered newsroom. That could possibly be the reason women appear to be fairly represented in The Extra as suggested by Gallagher (2004).

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

The major findings of the investigation indicate that representations of the South African Indian woman has undoubtedly expanded, taking into account new roles and offering new identities, however certain stereotypical identities continue to prevail. In South Africa, ethnic women are producing their own representations, and there is increased visibility for them in the print media. Advocacy groups have assisted with increased and media representation of women. Stereotypical representation of the Indian South African has been challenged, changed and developed in the recent years. Based on the findings, the following recommendations are offered:

- The representation of ethnic women needs more exposure and should not focus on sexual attractiveness or stereotypical roles of women;
- Journalists need to guard against using photographs that sexualise women and detract attention away women’s real identities.

The accurate representation of women is at its infancy stages. Change is painfully slow, especially amongst minority women. More needs to be done by media professionals to increase accurate reporting on women.

References


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Assessment of Occupational Safety and Health Law in Turkish Industrial Relations

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Abstract

Occupational health and safety law is one of the most important developments in recent years in Turkish Industrial Relations System. The aim of this law is to introduce measures to encourage improvements in the safety and health of workers at work. Up to this law, there was no separate law on occupational health and safety. Occupational health and safety is being applied due to different laws. Therefore, it was not effective and led to confusion. Occupational health and safety law was established with the effect of the EU integration process in Turkey. There is a negative picture in terms of accidents at work and occupational diseases in Turkey. Therefore, whether the success or not of this law is an important issue. Although the law entered into force June 30 in 2012, it is difficult to say that businesses life prepared for this. In this context, the effects of the law are wondering what will happen. In this respect, it is important evaluation of the law. This study will consist of three main sections. The first section consists of occupational health and safety reasons. For this reason, the accidents at work and occupational disease rates will be examined in the world, EU and Turkey. Second, the arguments will be examined in the text of the law and parliamentary proceedings. Third, the effects of the law will be considered employees and employer in the Turkish Industrial Relations.

1. Introduction

Occupational Health and Safety is one of the most important issues discussed in social and political areas today. In the capitalist system where most of the society is working as wageworker, occupational health and safety is not an individual issue only but it deals with social aspects. Globally 317 million work accidents occur annually and 160 million people become victim of a work related disease. The cost of this issue is 4 % of Global GDP (ILO, 2013). In Turkey for the year 2011 70 thousand active worker suffered work accidents and 700 of them suffered occupational disease. Among these people 2216 of them became permanently incapacity and 1710 of them lost their lives (SGK, 2011). When we consider the reasons for work accidents and occupational diseases 98% of the reasons are avoidable. When we look from the scope side 57 % of these work accidents occur in work places having less than 50 workers are working (ASO, 2012).

Occupational Health and Safety has not been regulated separately in Turkey until the law no 6331. Previously this issue was regulated via Labor Law, Social Security and General Health Law, Code of Obligations and Criminal Code. Occupational Health and Safety has been acknowledged as an area required to be regulated by social state in the Turkish Constitution. According to these articles Occupational Health and Safety is an issue of public law and taking necessary measures is among the main duties of the state. This concept has been preserved also in the new Constitution Draft (NTVMSNBC, 2013). The issue has a lot of international aspects. Because while the Occupational Health and safety issue is being regulated within Turkish legislation, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, ILO Contracts, European Social Charter and European Social Security Charters have been referenced.

This study is aiming to examine Occupational Health and Safety Law. There are some questions need to be directed in order to expand the research. First of all it will be examined why a new law is needed to be legislated separately for Occupational Health and Safety and also the critics towards the law draft will be examined in the base of the records of the assembly. Secondly the Occupational Health and Safety regulations inside the law test will be touched on. Lastly the discussions and conclusions will be mentioned regarding the evaluation of the law by means of Turkish Industrial Relations.
2. Why a new law is needed?

The most important justification of this law is that Occupational Health and safety is a constitutional right. In article 49 of the Constitution, taking necessary measures in order to improve the life standard of the workers, to improve working life and to protect the unemployed and to provide labor reconciliation is counted as among the duties of the state. Again in article 56 it is stated that everybody has right to live in a healthy and balanced environment. In continuing it says improving the environment, protecting environmental health and preventing the environmental pollution are mentioned as duties of the citizens and the state. Article 60 stipulates social security as a right to be entitled for all the citizens. It will be the state to provide social security and to take necessary measures.

Another reason of the issue lies within the international aspect thereof. Our obligations rising from the documents such as Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), United Nations Economic, Social and Cultural Rights Charter of 1976, Contracts no 155 and 161 of International Labor Organization on Occupational Health and Safety and Working Environment, European Social Charter and Council Directive no 89/391/EEC on promoting the improved measures for health and safety of the labor while working are among the reasons of this legislation. These obligations are shortly listed as;

- Rights of everybody for working, selecting the occupation and work under fair and proper working conditions
- That these conditions meet the health and safety requirements,
- Removing the disadvantages of disadvantaged groups of women, children and youth,
- Removing the gender discrimination, providing equal opportunities for workers, right to information, providing consulting right,
- Emphasising to provide Occupational Health and security services without discriminating the public and private sector.

Aktay (2012) has stated that a healthy and safe working environment may not only be provided with good will of the parties. Supervising the working life to provide such environment is an important issue. However supervision shall not be perceived as a sole duty for the state. Participation of some NGO's and institutional social structures will improve the efficiency of the supervision. International body participation along with the internal law will provide improvement of the supervision of Occupational Health and Safety.

Until the law no 6331 the Occupational Health and Safety issue had been regulated within several laws. It is seen that Occupational Health and Safety is regulated in the section five of “Labor Law no 4857”. The restriction of 50 workers and industrial works were against the international contracts those were accepted by us. The Law no 5510 on “Social Insurances and General Health Insurance” is trying to assure the people by means of social insurances and general insurance policy and regulate the finance by benefitting method (Article 76). Turkish Code of Obligations no 6098 regulated this issue under the title of “protection of the personality of the worker. Again Turkish Penal Code no 5237 regulated the punitive responsibilities of responsible persons. This multi structured system was making difficulties. Identifying the power and responsibilities and extension of the process was making compensation of the losses harder. When we look from this perspective it was a necessity to regulate the Occupational Health and safety which is a basic issue in the working life under a single law.

Table 1: Work accident, occupational diseases, permanent incapacity and numbers of mortality per years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Number of Work Accidence</th>
<th>Number of Occupational Disease</th>
<th>Number of Permanent Disability</th>
<th>Number of Death</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>69.227</td>
<td>697</td>
<td>2.216</td>
<td>1.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>62.903</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>2.085</td>
<td>1.454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>64.316</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>1.885</td>
<td>1.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>72.963</td>
<td>539</td>
<td>1.694</td>
<td>866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>80.602</td>
<td>1.208</td>
<td>1.956</td>
<td>1.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>79.027</td>
<td>574</td>
<td>2.267</td>
<td>1.601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>73.923</td>
<td>519</td>
<td>1.639</td>
<td>1.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>83.830</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>1.939</td>
<td>843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>76.688</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>1.596</td>
<td>811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>72.344</td>
<td>601</td>
<td>2.087</td>
<td>878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>72.367</td>
<td>883</td>
<td>2.183</td>
<td>1.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>808.170</td>
<td>6.807</td>
<td>21.301</td>
<td>12.482</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: These has been compiled from the annuals of SCCI, SSI transferred data and TII data.
According to the researches it is claimed that 98% of the working accidents and 100% work accidents are avoidable (Milliyet, 2012; Zaman, 2012). Besides the results show that 50% of the work accidents are easily avoidable, 48% of the avoidable via a systematic study and 2% of them are avoidable (Domac, 2012). The mortality figure in Turkey for 1999-2011 due to work accidents and occupational diseases is approximately 12,5 thousand. These figures only cover the insured workers. In reality the mortality and occupational diseases are a lot more than that. One of the most important justifications of this law is that at least 98% of this mortality is avoidable (Aydınanat, 2012). The global cost of work accidents and occupational diseases and the death due to them is approximately between 600 billions of USD and 2,4 trillions of USD. For Turkey this figure is 3,6 billions of USD. Other than that occupational health and safety is very important for the reputation of the enterprises. This issue can directly effect on the product quality and market conditions (Celik, 2012).

The flexible working conditions in the working life have been increased via Labor Law no 4857. The justifications of the employers for the flexible working are the changing social-economic conditions, technology and compatibility to increasing competition. Although some sort of a freedom in the nature of determining the working time in their own discretion in against this, it still has an additional negative meaning. Some new implementations such as increase in non-typical employment, flexing the working times, working more than one employer, and outsource employment have brought some negative aspects together.

This issue was brought in the agenda of the parliament under the titles of “Draft Law on Occupational Health and Safety” and “Proposal on Law of Occupational Diseases and Occupational Health”. However the draft and the proposal have been integrated and the draft has taken as base. When the commission report is examined the following items are highlighted in the justification of the draft (TGNA, 2012):

- The Occupational Health and safety is not an individual issue but it has social aspects. The issue shall be taken at hand in international level and conformity shall be established for international charters and EU legislation. The discrimination of public and private sector shall be removed other than the exceptions. It shall cover not only the workers but all employees with a new regulation on all employees.
- It shall be extended to SMEs and some supporting services shall be provided.
- It is necessary to have workplace doctor and work place expert and with the participation of the work places having less than fifty workers the practise field and nature of the Occupational Health and safety services shall be expanded.
- Emergency policies, reporting and notifications shall be made obligatory under the frame of Occupational Health and safety prevention and measures.
- Permanent health monitoring for the employee in order to prevent the occupational diseases and work accidents.
- The information and consultancy process shall be improved in order to create a health and safety culture among the employee.
- The “National Occupational Health and Safety Council” which is established to create a social dialogue in making the Occupational Health and Safety policy and strategies all around the world shall have legal ground. 
- In the workplaces where there is more than one employer and sub employer relation the coordination between employers shall be provided. While this is being provided it shall be avoided to go for manipulative ways in establishing the “board of Occupational Health and safety” between the original employer and the sub employer.
- The principles regarding the classification of the work places for danger classes and work stopping.

3. Minority Report against the Law Draft

The “Occupational Health and Safety Law Draft” was discussed and voted in Sessions 120 and 121 of the assembly on the dates of 14th and 19th of July respectively. The political parties have criticised during this period. We will try to examine these critics shortly.

The opposition emphasized that the name of the draft shall be “employee health and safety” instead of “Occupational Health and Safety”. They stressed that the current draft is giving priority to the “business” which is the capital. The government stated that this concept is used as it covers all the employees working in workplaces and as it is written so in the international definitions (TGNA, 2012; Celik, 2012).

The opposition stated that the draft is not shared with all stakeholders of society and it is prepared with an approach to serve the riches. Again they emphasized that the main problem lies behind the neo-liberal policies and that it
cannot be solved without preventing deunionization, outsourcing, flexible and without assurance working (Baluken, 2012).

The other criticism is that the Occupational Health and Safety services to be marketed. It is stated that purchasing the Occupational Health and Safety services from common health safety unit, taking the workplace doctor and Occupational Safety expert out of the workplace shall reduce the nature and quality of these services and shall cause the works to halt (Yüceer, 2012).

Besides it shall be stated that a regulation to cover the work accidents occurring in the training, operation, exercises and similar practices of Turkish Armed Forces, Law Enforcers, and National Intelligence Service shall be prepared (Baluken, 2012).

What has to be done regarding the Occupational Health and safety has been summarized as below (TGNA, 2012: 99-101):

- Usage of outsourcing and flexible working shall be prevented.
- The supervisions shall publicised and increased in frequency.
- All the regulations regarding this area shall be taken at hand as Occupational Health instead of work health.
- The opinions of opposition and relevant occupational associations shall be taken with regards to the policies to be implemented in this area.
- The expert reports regarding the work accidents shall be prepared together with the relevant occupational associations and scientific boards.

With the new law it is claimed that 4 thousand new work place doctors and 2500 Occupational Safety experts shall be required. It can be problematic of how these experts shall be arranged. Besides it is stated that the accidents and deaths increase in the areas where most regulations are made. For example it is mentioned that the accidents and deaths increase in “urban transformation” process of construction sector. The main reason of this is the lack of number and quality of experts and lack of Occupational Health and safety culture. The lack of the supervision mechanism is also another problem. It is stated that there are many work accidents occurring however only some of them are investigated. The child labor issue is also debatable. The child labor are not registered therefore their work accidents and occupational diseases are unknown (Demirel, 2012).

The unrecorded employment has been 36.8% for March of 2013 (TUIK, 2013). It is stated that the work accidents and occupational diseases cannot be overcome without preventing the unrecorded worker are recorded. For example although the sector has developed a lot in Tuzla shipyards, however the number of the workers has not improved accordingly. This shows us that the workers have been worked more. Which means that the development of the profit is supported with reduction of the worker costs and using more outsourcing (Odman, 2008). The main reason of the deaths and injuries incurred in Tuzla shipyards are flexible production, unrecorded working, usage of outsourcing and seeing Occupational Safety expenditures as an obstacle for profit maximization (Yirmibesoglu, 2009: 408).

The validity period of the law also caused debates. Because the law shall be enforced for the wok places having less than 50 workers and being labelled as less dangerously classified two years after the enactment. For workplaces having more than 50 workers and being classified as dangerous or highly dangerous this time is six months. Such a practice will mean that the deaths will continue (Celebi, 2012).

We can examine the responds of the government against these critics (Celik, 2012):

- To create awareness and discuss the issue in academic environment one week has been assigned as “Occupational Health and Safety Week” in each year.
- Biennially international conferences are held “19th World Occupational Health and Safety Congress” was held in September 2011. The books and brochures published in this field are being presented to the information of the social stakeholders, academicians and industrial relation parties.
- The law is a preventive one instead of being a normative one. The law comprises all the employee of public and private sector and SME’s.
- Despite the house services are out of scope, it is stated that if this sector is taken under record they will included in the scope of the law.
- The law classified the business places as low dangerous, dangerous and highly dangerous. Making the risk assessment in the business places obligatory is an important issue which can go further to halt the works in danger risk work places. Making informing of the work accidents and occupational diseases obligatory will support the solution of the problems regarding the responsible people of these accidents and the relevant recordings.

It is an important draft considering the first draft within the related area. However it is stated that the law can meet the needs of labor world if it is reviewed with the opposition parties, NGO’s and relevant professional associations and
necessary regulations are made thereto (TGNA, 2012).

4. **Regulations on Occupational Safety and Health Law No:6331**

In the law no 6331 the term “employee” is used instead of “worker”. Thus the definition is made in the widest meaning without separating but including all the permanent or temporary, or full time or part time employees. Before this law the scope of the Occupational Health and Safety was “all the workplace under scope of the Labor Law no 4857”. As it is known there were some exceptions in Labor Law no 4857. However the scope is extended with the new legislation.

Especially the Environment Directive of European Union numbered 89/391/EEC covers the entire employee. This means that it defines all the different status of people such as worker, officer, public servant, seaman, journalist, judge or prosecutor etc. as “employee” and took all of them into the scope. Also in the directive there is an emphasis on that the Occupational Health and Safety shall be applied all the fields of activities of public and private sector (industry, agriculture, commerce, administrative services, service, education, culture, entertainment etc.) With the definition of employee the apprentices and internships who are receiving training in order to learn a profession and the workers of agriculture or forest works are included within the scope of the law (TGNA, 2012). Some sections which are conflicting with the text of the directive have been excluded.

The law did not make a child labor definition. The young worker has been defined as per the Directive of EU numbered 94/33. The workplaces are classified according to the danger levels. The workplaces are classified according to the danger classification. Therefore the definition of dangerous was included. The definitions of the Labor Law such as workplace doctor, workplace safety expert, common health and safety unit and education institutions have been preserved. In addition the technical personnel and support staff definitions have been made.

The employers shall be responsible for providing the health and safety of their employee against the dangers and risks caused from the workplace or the activity. Providing this activity from abroad does not remove the liability of the employer about this. Again the employers have the responsibilities of informing, training, supervising and monitoring about the risks of their works and the measures to be utilized in order to prevent thereof. This means that even they provide this service themselves or acquire it by outsourcing they shall be monitoring the training, informing and implementing in compliance with the taken measures (TGNA, 2012).

The employer shall be responsible all the risks which can be analysed and prevented in the source and to take the necessary measures (Law no 6331, Article 5). This is possible if the risks of the works and the specialities of the people are determined and by taking necessary measures. That said article 16, informing the employee and article 18 taking the opinions of the employee and providing their participation is important in making the work customized to worker. Because the dangers and risks of the work are best known by the people who are doing it. Besides this information and consultancy mechanism will boost the participation culture within the workplaces. Here the legal representatives also become functional. The representatives shall be entitled to provide recommendation for and ask necessary measures to be taken in order to prevent or diminish the risks at source to the employer (Article 20).

With the law no 6331 the employer shall assign the work place safety expert, workplace doctor and other health personnel among other workers. If there is no such personnel among the workers with these qualities then this service can be provided from outside. Besides provided that having these qualities the employer own selves can provide this service (Article 5).

SME’s provide 99% of the total enterprise number of Turkey and 77,8% of the employment (TUIK, 2012). Besides the rate of the SME’s having the number of workers between 1-9 is 95,6% when compared to all enterprises (KOSGEP, 2011). From this point of view the SME’s make important contributions to the economy and employment. As it is known the law no 6331 limits the scope of the Occupational Health and safety with 50 people in many cases. In the Labor Law no 4857, workplaces having 50 or more workers were obliged to establish Occupational Health and Safety board, to assign workplace doctor and work place safety expert engineer or technical personnel (Labor law no 4857, articles 80,81,82). As it stands the preventive and intervening functions of Occupational Health and safety cannot be applied to most of the enterprises of Turkey and their employee. From this aspect, other than the exemptions we mentioned before, this discrimination has been revoked and the wording of “the entire employee” has been brought (Article 2). However one of the key problems of SME’s is finance and costs. It is argued that such practices will bring additional load. With the new regulation the enterprises having less than 10 workers and remaining in the dangerous and highly dangerous classes will be supported by the Ministry of Labor and Social Security in order to provide Occupational Health and Safety services. The micro enterprises within the low dangerous class may benefit from such services with the permission of the Cabinet (Article 7).

Other than that SME’s can benefit from the support provided that at least 5 (five) SME’s come together and
prepare a project to solve all kinds of common problems and needs regarding Occupational Health and Safety, within the framework of “KOSGEB Support Programs Regulations” and under scope of the Collaboration – Cooperation Support Program (Satir, 2011).

As per the provisions of the Article 9 of the Law no 6331, the workplace danger classes are identified as low dangerous, dangerous and highly dangerous according to the Ministry of Labor and Social Security (OG, 2012b). Other than this the employer shall be responsible to have and perform risk assessment at their workplaces in accordance with article 10. This assessment is performed for determining the Occupational Health and safety measures and the protective equipment and tools to be used for this purpose. Besides according to the article 25, it is stated that non-performance of risk assessment in highly dangerous classified workplace shall cause halt of the works in that workplace. In order to perform the risk assessment in accordance with the current conditions of the workplace and making the control, measuring, examination and research in a regular manner are important for sustainable Occupational Health and Safety.

The employers are asked to predetermined the emergency cases which may arise due to used materials and work equipment, workers or environmental conditions and the measures to be taken. Besides the employer shall provide the evacuation of the workers in serious and unavoidable cases. In such cases the workers shall be entitled to demand assessment and necessary measures by applying to the employer. During such time if the board or employer shall decide in the direction of the workers, then the workers shall be entitled to cease working until the necessary measures are taken. Besides in cases when a severe and close danger is unavoidable the workers shall be entitled to evacuate the workplace without applying to the board or the employer. In such cases it is ruled that the rights rising from the provisions of the labor contract shall not forfeit (Article 11,12,13).

The law impose the obligation to record and inform the work accidents and occupational diseases for the employer. It will beneficial for the exploring the source of the work accident and occupational diseases when the necessary examinations are performed and relevant reports are prepared. Besides they are also imposed to inform the work accidents and diagnosed occupational diseases to the public or private health institutions. In this way the work accidents and occupational diseases of the unrecorded workers shall be properly identified (Article 14, TGNA, 2012).

Sustainable Occupational Health and safety to the workers require a regular health monitoring. The health monitoring shall be performed especially in the first employment, work changes, for the personnel who return to back to the work who had left due to work accident or occupational disease and in the regular intervals to be determined by the ministry as per the nature and danger class of the work place (Article 15). Besides, another important issue regarding the sustainability at the responsibility of the employer is training of the employee. Occupational Health and Safety trainings and informing of the workers shall provide support in establishing safety culture in the workplace. The employer shall be obliged to provide Occupational Health and Safety training to the employee before starting the employment, in workplace or environment change, in work equipment or technological changes. These trainings shall be of general, health and technical topics. The trainings are envisaged to be repetitive as per the changing conditions. Besides the employee working in dangerous and highly dangerous class workplaces shall not be permitted to work in such workplaces unless they produce the documents of the training that they took regarding the health and safety issues they will face in the workplace they will work (Article 17).

It is the responsibility of the workers to act in compliance with the training and instructions of Occupational Health and Safety. The workers shall use the production tools as per these trainings and instructions. Besides they shall use the personal protective equipment properly abiding these rules shall provide safety to the related worker and also to others (Article 19). According to the conducted researches a direct relation between the work accidents and the training. According to the results of a research showing the relation of the work accidents happened in Tuzla shipyards and the education level of the workers showed that the workers who are exposed to the accidents are generally primary school graduate workers. Therefore in the recruit of the employee the occupational proficiency and education status shall be considered and the worker shall be given a proper training regarding the work he/she will be working on (Dizdar and Toprak, 2012).

In the year 2005 the “National Occupational Health and Safety Council” was established by the Ministry of Labor and Social Security with the participation of social stakeholders, universities, NGO’s and other relevant institutions and corporations in order to determine policy and strategy. This council is provided with a legal ground via this Law no 6331 (TGNA, 2012). The objective of the council is to improve the current conditions regarding the Occupational Health and Safety and to expand the safety culture in all around the country. For this purpose it involves the social stakeholders to the policy developing process regarding Occupational Health and safety (O.G., 2013a).

The new law has conditioned the establishment of “Occupational Health and Safety Board” with employment of at least 50 workers like in the Labor Law no 4857 (O.G. 2013b). However in Turkey most of the work accidents happen in the works delegated to the subcontractors. It is seen that in order to avoid establishing a board they delegate the work to
the subcontractors (TGNA, 2012). The new law imposes to establish a board by the employer and the subcontractor together. Which means that if the number of total workers in the original employer and subcontractor workers is 50 or more, the original employer shall be obliged to establish a board in coordination with the original employer (Law no 6331, article 22 (2) paragraph ç).

The law determined the general framework. Other than that the Occupational Health and safety issue can be supported via some applications. For instance when the sectors which are necessary to take measures regarding the Occupational Health and Safety common projects can be developed in cooperation with the employer organizations and unions within those sectors. The content of those projects may cover the aim of preventing the work accidents and occupational diseases or improving the working environment and image of the sector via consultancy. This means that establishing the Occupational Health and Safety unique to the sector is essential. The consultants mentioned here shall be the expert persons to be selected from the employer organizations and unions (Celik et al., 2011).

The conducted researches emphasise the importance of increasing the efficiency of the Occupational Health and Safety trainings. Because the current trainings are only performed as they are legal obligations. The conformance trainings are performed as providing the worker with the OSH regulations, booklets and brochures or sending slides through e-mails. The trainings are performed in crowded groups. The conformity trainings are not beyond a few hours of work site visit the trainings of OSH shall be prepared by discussing with the health and safety personnel and shall be reviewed from time to time. In SME’s employer's observing the training obligation is a problematic issue. Here the training shall not be seen as a cost item but an investment (Kılıks and Demir, 2012).

Aytac (2011) indicate that the human resource is an important source affecting the enterprise efficiency. According to him the most effective tool of providing this source to work in a more safe and motivated manner is to provide safety culture. Therefore the management shall see the safety issue within the organization culture. Even the state, enterprises and unions act willingly to perform their duties, the support of the workers are most important. It is vital that the workers have the awareness of safety. Therefore effort shall be given to create occupational health and safety management system both on the basis of the country and the enterprise.

Akin (2012) draws the attention that the unions may have important roles in forming of the occupational health and safety organizations and increasing awareness in the society regarding thereof, and in solving the problems within the workplaces. The unions can undertake the functions of training and supervising the health and safety in workplaces in order to commence the occupational health and safety culture in the workplace level.

Other than that the SME’s can opt for an e-learning application for basic occupational health and safety as a more practical and cost saving training solution. Later they can go for varying the trainings (Celik et al., 2009).

5. Conclusion

The occupational health and safety has not only individual but also social aspects. In many EU countries it is regulated as a separate law. The laws can only be problem solver as they are deterrent. However drafting law will not solve the occupational health and safety issues singlehandedly. Raising social awareness is very essential. Which means workers, employers, and other social stakeholders shall act with consciousness regarding occupational health and safety issue.

The occupational health and safety culture in Turkey is a problematic. We need to mention some of the facts affecting this in a negative manner. The common problems of working life such as discrimination, unrecorded working, regular practice of working without security, flexible working, outsourcing and unemployment draws the attention from the issue of occupational health and safety. As a matter of fact the law has attracted critics while being drafted. These critics are; that it serves for the riches, that the business is prior to worker, and that it is not shared with wide range of society.

It has some positive aspects also when compared with the previous regulations. These are; to involve the entire employee, to remove the sectorial discrimination, to include the SME’s, to perform risk assessments of the workplaces according to the danger classes, to take measures to make the work conforming to the worker and the worker conforming to the work. And again in order to succeed all of these the applications of workplace doctor, workplace safety expert and workplace health and safety boards have been regulated.

The efficiency of the law cannot be measured in a short time properly. However it is a reality that the law forms a basis. Improving occupational health and culture on this basis with the participation of all the stakeholders will increase the efficiency of the law.
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1 (Most of the Turkish references’ original title have been translated into English for the sake of clarity)


E-Government as an Anti Corruption Tool. The Case of Albania

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Abstract

Governments worldwide are faced with the challenge of transformation and the need to reinvent government systems in order to deliver efficient and cost effective services, information and knowledge through information and communication technologies. E-government is the use of information and communication technology (ICT) to promote more efficient and cost-effective government, more convenient government services, greater public access to information, and more government accountability to citizens. One of the benefits of using e-government is the reduce of corruption. Corruption is commonly considered to be one of the most significant impediments to economic development so, for a less corruption society transparent - governance is highly desirable. E-government can ensure more transparency and easy access to information. More transparency means less corruption. This paper outline the role of e-government as an anti corruption tool in Albania.

Keywords: e-government, corruption, public services

1. Introduction

E-government is not simply a matter of giving government officials computers or automating old practices. Neither the use of computers nor the automation of complex procedures can bring about greater effectiveness in government or promote civic participation. Focusing solely on technological solutions will not change the mentality of bureaucrats who view the citizen as neither a customer of government nor a participant in decision-making. Understood correctly, e-government utilizes technology to accomplish reform by fostering transparency, eliminating distance and other divides, and empowering people to participate in the political processes that affect their lives.

2. Literature review

2.1 E-government definition

E-government is understood as the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to promote more efficient and cost effective government, facilitate more convenient government services and allow greater public access to information, and make government more accountable to citizens, where as governance is a wider term which covers the state’s institutional arrangements, decision making processes, implementation capacity and the relationship between government officials and the public. E-governance is the use of ICT by the government, civil society and political institutions to engage citizens through dialogue and feedback to promote their greater participation in the process of governance of these institutions. Thus, e-government can be viewed as a subset of e-governance, and its focus is largely on improving administrative efficiency and reducing administrative corruption (Bhatnagar Subhash, 2004).

2.2 Benefits of e-government

E-Government can also result in huge cost savings to governments and citizens alike, increase transparency and reduce corrupt activities in public service delivery. Previous studies have categorized public service delivery in three groups:
publishing, interacting, and transacting (Kumar et al. 2007).

It can transform old challenges and create unprecedented possibilities for sustainable economic development, just as it has done for businesses in the industrial world. ICTs offer the potential not just to collect, store, process and diffuse enormous quantities of information at minimal cost, but also to network, interact and communicate across the world (Crede and Mansell, 1998).

Main benefits of E-Government as identified by Ndou(2004) are:

- Cost reduction and efficiency gains (Tapscott, 1996; Amit and Zott, 2001; Malhotra, 2001);
- Quality of service delivery to businesses and customers;
- Transparency, anticorruption, accountability;
- Increase the capacity of government;
- Network and community creation;
- Improve the quality of decision making;
- Promote use of ICT in other sectors of the society;
- Improving services to citizens;
- Improving the productivity (and efficiency) of government agencies;
- Strengthening the legal system and law enforcement;
- Promoting priority economic sectors;
- Improving the quality of life for disadvantaged communities;
- Strengthening good governance and broadening public participation.

2.3 Corruption definition

2.3.1 What is corruption?

The term corruption is used to describe a variety of activities. The students of corruption concentrate on various issues such as bribery, kickbacks, ethics violations, illegal asset accumulation, violations of procurement regulations, political nepotism, cronyism, campaign and party finance violations, money laundering, illegal transactions, freedom of information, public governance, financial accountability and many other issues (see, for example, World Bank 1998; 2000a: 103-109; Transparency International 2001). Although numerous definitions of corruption might be found in the literature, depending on the focus of a particular study, there is convergence on a basic definition that understands corruption as the abuse of public office for private benefit (World Bank 1997; McMoy and Heckel 2001). According to the World Bank (WB), corruption is “the abuse of public office for private gain. Public office is abused for private gain when an official accepts, solicits, or extorts a bribe. It is also abused when private agents actively offer bribes to circumvent public policies and processes for competitive advantage and profit. Public office can also be abused for personal benefit even if no bribery occurs, through patronage and nepotism, the theft of state assets, or the diversion of state revenues.” (World Bank 1997: 8-9) This definition is broad enough to encompass all types of corruption one encounters in reality. It also places the public sector at the center of the phenomena of corruption. This report uses this definition of corruption.

2.3.2 What are the costs of corruption?

Bribery increases the prices of public works and services, makes the selection of contractors inefficient and wastes those resources that are used in covering illicit activities and obtaining political rents on the basis of manipulated political decisions and protection (della Porta and Vannucci 1999: 10). In addition to these immediate economic costs corruption brings negative long-term consequences mainly in the form of ineffective public administration and the general mistrust of the citizenry in political institutions of a corrupted state. In the words of Donatella della Porta and Alberto Vannucci, “the spread of corruption within the public service introduces elements of inefficiency, where the primary purpose of an operation becomes generation of payoffs. … the confidence of those in an organization not directly involved in corruption is undermined, leading to generalized inefficiency. At the level of the political system as a whole, the spread of corruption erodes the support and trust of citizens in democracy, in public institutions in general, and in the political class in particular.” (ibid.) Hence, corruption does not only hamper the functioning of public administration, but is able to substantially disrupt the democratic institutions of a corrupted state and progressively diminish public support for and trust in political institutions. Last but not least, corrupt members of the political class provide ample opportunities for the networks of organized crime to enter into the political system of a state affected by widespread corruption. Essentially, the costs caused by corruption are the reason why corruption should be fought against.
2.4 Types of corruptions

The World Bank in its didactic material from the Youth for Good Governance –distance learning program, defines the main types of corruption as:

*Bribery: An offer of money or favors to influence a public official.
Nepotism: Favoritism shown by public officials to relatives or close friends.
Fraud: Cheating the government through deceit.
Embezzlement: Stealing money or other government property.*

It also divides the corruption in two categories:

*Administrative Corruption: Corruption that alters the implementation of policies, such as getting a license even if you don't qualify for it
Political Corruption: Corruption that influences the formulation of laws, regulations, and policies, such as revoking all licenses, and gaining the sole right to operate the beer or gas monopoly.*

In addition, a classification by magnitude is proposed:

*Grand Corruption: Corruption involving substantial amounts of money and usually high-level officials.
Petty Corruption: Corruption involving smaller sums and typically more junior officials.*

2.5 E-government, transparency, and anti-corruption

The focus of e-government is shifting gradually from internal efficiency to value-added services for customers and other stakeholders (Melitski, 2003; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000; Stratford & Stratford, 2000). E-government means the use of technology to enhance access to and delivery of government services in order to benefit citizens, business partners, and employees (Silcock, 2001). E-government has the power to create new modes of public service whereby all public organizations deliver modernized, integrated, and seamless services for citizens. In this shift towards external services, transparency has been increasingly emphasized as a fundamental driver for e-government. E-government initiatives are regarded as a powerful schema for enhancing public transparency (along with internal efficiency and quality service delivery) to the public (Fountain, 2001; Brown, 1999). Northrup and Thorson (2003) cite increased efficiency, increased transparency, and transformation as important reasons for e-government initiatives. In addition, Mulgan (2000) points out e-government transparency efforts in relation to accountability, which has extended its meaning to include transparency initiatives within the work procedures adopted by the government. Compared with earlier forms of e-government infrastructures (Chadwick & May, 2001), most current e-government websites and systems encompass more interactive features and services in order to restore public trust by providing necessary information and regulations, in addition to quick responses to individual queries (Moon, 2003). By incorporating the agent-principal theory, Smith and Bertozzi (1998) explain the relationship between governments (as agents who work for citizens) and citizens (as principals). Because the government has more control than citizens over the flow of information, members of the government are prone to corruption. In order to narrow the distance between citizens and government, it is necessary to monitor the government's work and provide citizens with information about administrative processes and outcomes regarding, for example, permits or applications. Vishwanath and Kaufmann (1999) share this view and argue that more openness and information sharing enable the public to make informed political decisions, which can improve the accountability of governments.

More information delivered to citizens in a more timely fashion is expected to increase the transparency of government and empower citizens to monitor government performance more closely. Fiorini (2000) points out that transparency enables citizens to understand a government's accomplishments because the government provides them the necessary information. E-government is, therefore, viewed as a positive channel for enhancing trust in government through government accountability and the empowerment of its citizens (Kauvar, 1998; Demchak et al., 2000). The reality, however, is not so simple. By examining five cases of IT and public section corruption, Heeks (1998) reports that while IT often helps detect and remove corruption, it sometimes has no effect, or creates new opportunities for corruption. IT can lead to an 'upskilling' of corruption and reduced competition for upskilled, corrupt civil servants (Wescott, 2001). Since corruption is deeply "rooted in cultural, political, and economic circumstances" (Wescott, 2001), Heeks (1998) suggests ‘a more holistic vision,’ that includes an information system design and other organizational and environmental
factors when implementing a system for corruption control. These concerns about corruption and e-government are translated into practical strategies by some international organizations. UNDP (2004) defines corruption as “the misuse of public power, office, or authority for private benefit.” UNDP suggests four strategies to fight corruption: prevention, enforcement, access to information and empowerment, and capacity building (APDIP, 2006). Prevention refers to “reform[ing] administrative procedures, accounting, and procurement practices,” enforcement of “institut[ing] proper record-keeping and put[t[ing] in place effective systems of surveillance and enforcement,” access to information and empowerment in order to “promote access to information and enable public and media oversight,” and capacity building in order to “strengthen governance systems and processes and provide training.” When e-government applications are used to fight corruption, these four strategies need to be integrated in the design and implementation process.

3. **E-government in Albania**

In 2005, the newly elected Albanian government set as a priority the improvement of transparency for governmental services, while in its program for 2009-2013, considering the use of new technologies as a fast track towards development, the government announced the national program “Digital Albania” as one of its major projects, reconfirming its commitment to move forward as a knowledge based economy and the creation of an Information Society.

Public services and efficiency of their distribution have a major effect on economic and social development of a country. Unlike the situation presented in the strategy for Information Technology 2003, today all ministries have their web sites and databases where electronic presented legal acts and regulations, updates on ministry activities, strategic documents, reports different, etc. are published electronically. Work has been conducted GOVNET government network with the support of UNDP and European Commission. Thanks to this project, ministries and departments of the Government of Albania and two public service organizations (in total 18 institutions) are connected through a fiber optic network with high speed. Coming soon is expected to start proceedings for the second phase of this project aimed at reducing costs and improving the network. In this way will be made possible functioning of many government applications.

One of the most important initiatives undertaken by the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Energy is the reform of business registration procedures. This reform, is a significant step in the general government program to improve the business climate in Albania. This is a simple process, the faster and less cost for registering new businesses and registration which is tax administration, social insurance, health insurance and the Labor Inspectorate.

The new law on public procurement provides electronic procurement. E-Procurement supports the automation of tendering activities of different Ministries of the Government and Contractor authorities. This system enables transactions between public institutions and the Albanian national community and international business. Preparation and administration system provides safe, effective and transparent all tender documents and so avoid the delivery of paper documents by providing security throughout the process and avoid corruption and elements. Economic operators may use the services offered by this page to locate procurement competitions and to participate fully in electronic form. Directorate General of Taxation has begun offering for business declaration and payment on-line and also for larger taxpayers. The goal of tax administration is that all payments be made with the statement on-line administrative avoiding burocracy and reducing time.

**E-Customs** - AYCUDA is a modern system of data processing system during clearance. This process has led to rapid clearance of cargo, has improved control over income and provides accurate and updated information for the trade of goods.

Project implementation started in August 2002 with two main objectives: the establishment of the Albanian version of the program and putting into operation of the program in Tirana and Durres customs. Advantages of the system remain in the automatic processing customs declarations from the moment of registration to the moment of payment, performance unique customs procedures in all branches, the branches connecting customs center, electronic close of transit, processing a large number of data and producing extensive statistical reports. Until today the system has been extended at the Directorate General of Customs and customs of the country focal points enabling that 92% of transactions be processed through the system.

**E-Education** - In Albania there are 465 000 primary school students and 65 000 students of secondary education. There are about 2 900 primary schools and about 522 secondary schools. The implementation plan for the development of information technology in schools, include currently 379 operational computer cabinets. The situation as 1 computer for 45 student, in 2010 aims to be achieved in 1 computer per 25 students.

**E-Justice** - In this respect are taken some measures for installation of a software structure in intranet and internet for the Ministry of Justice as Bailiff computerization of judicial service, creating a digitized network internal Intranet for all
executive system, installing a computer network for the operation of the prison administration.

**E-Health** - In this sector has begun work to establish a management information system for health statistical package from the Ministry of Health in collaboration with the Institute of Insurance. Also with the support of the World Bank have been provided some projects as the creation of an integrated system of national health information

**E-Culture** - In this field it is aimed to become fund registration and establishment of national museums, cultural assets vice Academy of Sciences, the network connecting branches with a central database of cultural heritage in the National Center of inventory of cultural assets, the creation of a integrated network of cultural tourism guide.

**E-Cabinet** - It is a new form of electronic communication that allows government-government to draft laws and decisions issued and to be sent later to council of ministers. In this form is made possible online electronic signing after approval of the Draft by the Secretary General and Minister.

**E-Questionary** - As a result of the adoption requirements in EU, each ministry should meet the required questions. For this, is built an electronic portal that allows throwing the answers from each ministry, communicating with each other and then sending for approval in the council of ministers (AISEG, 2009).

4. **Conclusion and recommendation**

Governments generate huge volumes of information, much of it potentially useful to individuals and businesses. The Internet and other advanced communications technologies can bring this information quickly and more directly to citizens. Enabling them and businesses to readily access government information without having to travel to government offices, stand in long lines or pay bribes.

The employment of ICTs can bring more transparency into public administration and politics. Also, increased transparency will have a tangible effect on corruption only if it is accompanied by measures in two other dimensions of anticorruption struggle - minimizing corruption incentives, i.e. introducing a stable system of remuneration and career prospects for public servants and improving policing, i.e. increasing the probability that corrupt activities will be disclosed. Strengthened control mechanisms and strict penalty provisions should become important components of any successful anticorruption strategy:

E-government has the potential to involve citizens in the governance process by engaging them in interaction with policymakers throughout the policy cycle and at all levels of government. Strengthening civic engagement contributes to building public trust in government. Interactive e-government involves two-way communications, starting with basic functions like email contact information for government officials or feedback forms that allow users to submit comments on legislative or policy proposals.

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Filipino Adolescents’ Sexual Attitudes and Behaviors: Results from a University Cohort

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Abstract

This research describes the sexual attitudes and behaviors of a cohort of adolescents, 15–24 years old, attending a large state university in Manila, Philippines (N = 1,412). Results revealed high percentages for both male and female adolescents who still value virginity, and disclosed disagreement with premarital sex (PMS), multiple sex, casual sex, pornography, cohabitation, same-sex relationship, petting and female masturbation. However, male masturbation, necking, and holding hands and kissing were found to be acceptable. Results likewise indicated an increase in adolescents who engaged in PMS over time, although generally low (27.7%) compared to the findings of other studies. Of those who have engaged in PMS, 80% did not use condom, which puts the adolescents into risks of unplanned pregnancy and exposure to STIs or HIV. The study also examined the correlates and predictors of sexual behaviors of a cohort of students. Fourteen variables served as independent/predictive factors in the analyses. The dependent variable was their scores on self-report sexual behaviors measured on a Likert Scale. Six of the predictive factors (gender, sexual preference, age, school allowance, monthly family income, and attitude towards sex) were significantly correlated with sexual behavior. Stepwise regression analyses identified only four factors - attitude towards sex, monthly family income, gender, and sexual preference - as significant predictors of sexual behaviors. This composite term explains 16.1% of the total variance, with the overall equation significant at p < .001. Implications for adolescent sexuality and reproductive health programs and future research were noted.

Keywords: Filipino adolescents, adolescent sexuality, sexual attitudes, sexual behaviors, premarital sex, sex education

1. Introduction

Adolescence is a stage in life in which sexual behaviors are developing and becoming established (Bayley, 2003). During this stage both sexual ideation and engagement in a spectrum of sexual behavior increase (Crockett, Rafaelli & Mollanen, 2003) such as talking about sex, sexual intimacy, solitary masturbation, oral sex, and sexual intercourse (Chi, Yu & Winter, 2012). Reviews of recent scientific literature have revealed profound changes over the past decades in sexual behavior of adolescents, college students, and other young adults (Langer, Warheit & McDonald, 2001; Irala, Osorio, Del Burgo, Belen, De Guzman, Calatrava & Torralba, 2009; Teva, Bermudez & Buela-Casal, 2009). These changes include the decline in the age of onset of sexual intercourse; increase in percentage of adolescents who reported casual sex, multiple sex partners, and oral sex; and high rates of unprotected sexual activity both for males and females (Aras, Semih, Gunay, Orcim & Ozan, 2007; Chi, et al, 2012; Irala, et al, 2009; Ryu, Kim & Kwon, 2007; Teva et al, 2009).

This increasing sexual involvement posed alarming consequences. In particular, premarital sex (PMS) has significant impact on public health concerns. Despite efforts by competent authorities to increase awareness and education, the age of initial sexual contact among adolescents remains very low while unplanned pregnancies and exposure to sexually transmitted infections (STIs) is still high (Irala, et al., 2009). While these issues have long been recognized in many developed countries, there is still a dearth of literature and empirical data in different Filipino communities.

In the Philippines, the cases of HIV are relatively low but slowly increasing. As of January 2013, there were 380 new HIV Ab seropositive cases which was 79% higher than the 212 cases registered in January 2012; the 20 to 29 years old had the most number of cases, 61%, which is higher than the 59% in previous year (National Epidemiology Center, Department of Health, 2013). The vulnerability of adolescents to HIV and other STIs have also increased due to behavioral factors such as initiating sexual relations at a young age and having multiple (concurrent or serial) sexual partner (Irala, et. al, 2009).

The nationwide Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study among youth aged 15-24 (YAFS3, 2002) revealed that 23.2% adolescents have had engaged in premarital sex (PMS) (31% males and 16% females), with mean age at first sex
also provided during the actual survey. A team of senior psychology students enrolled in their Research I course assisted
the students, particularly in the sexuality and reproductive health domains. Considering the dynamic nature of adolescents, it is helpful to keep on updating and identifying research gaps and challenges in understanding the Filipino adolescents (Cabigon, 1999) particularly on the aspect of their sexuality.

The current study produced baseline information about sexual attitudes and behaviors of undergraduate students enrolled at the Polytechnic University of the Philippines, the largest university of the country with more than 70,000 students, during the academic year 2012-2013. The cohort’s personal and family characteristics, their attitude towards sex, and how they are correlated with sexual behavior were examined. The paper hopes to provide data about the college students’ views on sex as well as their actual sexual practices or involvements, which can be utilized in the planning and implementation of educational policies, and in espousing development programs that address the needs of the students, particularly in the sexuality and reproductive health domains.

2. Method

This is a descriptive survey participated by 1,412 undergraduate students enrolled in various courses in the largest state university in the country (in terms of student population) located in an urban center in Manila. Respondents came from 15 colleges which were all based on five Manila campuses. The survey was conducted during the second semester of SY 2012-2013. Permission to administer the questionnaires was obtained from the Office of the Vice President for Research, Extension, Planning and Development.

Two sampling techniques were employed in the study. The first was cluster random sampling where the researcher selected the classes to be included in the study. The second phase involved inviting the students in the selected classes to participate in the study, on a voluntary basis. The nature and purpose of the study were explained to the students and their verbal consent was obtained. Confidentiality was assured as no student names or numbers were collected with the data. The participants were advised that they are free to withdraw at any point without jeopardy on their grades or academic status.

The instrument was written in English language, which is a language of instruction in the University. It consists of the following parts: (1) the adolescents’ personal characteristics [gender, sexual preference, age, year level, marital status, employment while studying, and school allowance] and family characteristics [father’s educational attainment, mother’s educational attainment, family income, number of siblings, birth order, parents’ living arrangement, and whether the adolescent lives/stays with both or any of the parents]; (2) 15-item Sexual Attitude Scale; and (3) 15-item Sexual Behavior Inventory.

A modified Likert Scale was used for both the sexual attitude and sexual behavior. To facilitate interpretation, the theoretically relevant variables were all coded so that higher scores reflect more positive attitude and signify more liberal sexual practices. Responses to the sexual attitude items ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A five-point response format was also employed for each of the sexual behavior indicators: 1 (No, I have not done it, and will never do it); 2 (No I have not done it, but I am open to doing it); 3 (Yes, I have done it only once); 4 (Yes, I have done it a few number of times); 5 (Yes, I have done it frequently/many times).

The instrument was self-administering and contains instructions for responding. However, verbal instruction was also provided during the actual survey. A team of senior psychology students enrolled in their Research I course assisted
during the gathering and tabulation of data. Data were analyzed using statistical software. Frequency and percentage were calculated to draw a descriptive profile on the personal and family characteristics, the sexual attitude, and the sexual behavior of a Filipino university student. Bivariate analyses were used to examine association between sexual behavior and the personal and family characteristics of the respondents. Point-biserial correlation was conducted to determine the correlation between a dichotomous variable (e.g., gender, with female coded as 2 and male coded as 1; living arrangement, living with parent/s was coded 2 while not living with parent/s was coded 1) and the total score in sexual behavior. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was employed for non-dichotomous variables. The variables that flagged a significant correlation were used in the subsequent stepwise regression analysis to identify which factor or composite factors contributed to the total scores on sexual behavior.

3. Results

3.1 Descriptive Analyses

3.1.1 Personal and Family Characteristics

Table 1 describes the personal characteristics of the respondent adolescents. Of the 1,412 students, 58.9% are females and 40.9% are males. In terms of sexual preference, a great majority, 84.3%, declared that they are heterosexuals; 1.6% exclusively prefer same-sex partners, and 6.3% are bisexuals. In terms of year level, 22.8% are in their first year, 40.5% are in second year, 24.6% are in third year, and 9.4% are in their fourth or fifth year in college. Mean age of 18.2 approximates the median age of 18 years old. The majority or 52.2% are 17 to 18 years old; 30.9% are 19 to 20 years old; 6.7% are aged 15 to 16 years old, while 4.4% are between 21 to 24 years old. The respondents are mostly single, 97.0%. Only 0.5% are married while 1.3% live with a partner. There are 15.9% work while studying, and the majority, 72.0%, are non-working or full time students. The percentage of students, 42.7%, who have a weekly school allowance of 500 to 1,000 pesos is significantly higher than any other subgroups. A US dollar is equivalent to an approximately 45 Philippine pesos at the time of study. There are 19.9% who are in the lowest school allowance subgroup of 500 pesos and below; 11.2% have 1,000 to 1,500 pesos per week; and 4.5% have 1,500 to 2,000 pesos. Very few (0.6% to 1.6%) have weekly school allowance between 2,000 to 10,000 pesos.

Table 2 reveals that majority of the adolescents' fathers (42.1%) and mothers (44.6%) are college graduates, followed by 38.9% and 37.0% who have only finished high school, respectively. In terms of total household monthly income, the biggest subgroup is 10,000 to 20,000 pesos with a percentage of 25.7%, followed by 21.7% whose family monthly income is below 10,000 pesos; 18.5% have 20,000 to 30,000 pesos; and 15.7% have 30,000 to 50,000 pesos. The rest of the adolescents are distributed in the three upper subgroups: 50,000 - 80,000, 8.1%; 80,000 - 100,000, 5.9%; and 100,000 - 200,000, 2.5%.

More than half of the respondents (67.3%) have 1 to 3 siblings; 18.8% have 4-5 siblings. Nearly half of the respondents, 42.7%, are middle born; 37.3% are first born or only child; 13.6% are last born. In terms of parents’ living arrangement, 67.8% of the parents live together, while 31.0% live in separate places or residences. Majority of the respondents, 62.3%, are living/staying with either one or both parents, while 36.3% do not.

3.1.2 Sexual Attitude

Table 3 shows the respondents’ degree of agreement on the fifteen-item questionnaire that measures their attitude towards some aspects of sexuality. The adolescents demonstrated agreement on four items. More than half, 56.7%, strongly agreed that sex is sacred and should only be enjoyed by married couple (mean = 4.15). There are 47.6% who strongly believe that a woman should be a virgin at the time of her marriage (mean = 3.97). Likewise, 36.1% are strongly convinced that a man should also be a virgin at the time of his marriage (mean = 3.73). Virginity in this study refers to not having engaged in sexual intercourse. Nearly half of the respondents, 43.6%, agreed that holding hands and hugging in public is acceptable (mean = 3.71). The adolescent cohort disagreed (48.8%, mean = 2.12) with multiple sex partners. The rest of the items registered a neutral attitude based on the mode and mean statistics.

However, when the percentages of the ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ responses were combined, as well as the percentages of those who ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ on an item, the data suggest significant results. For instance, positive attitude was revealed in the following items: male masturbation (45.8%); necking (40.8%); and kissing in public (27.8%). Although 36.9% favors premarital sex, a slightly higher percentage (37.4%) disclosed disapproval.

Furthermore, the adolescents who revealed negative attitude outnumbered those who indicated positive attitude on
the following items: viewing/reading pornography through internet or other media (47.8%); cohabitation (45.2%); expressing one’s sexual feelings with a partner (41.8%); same-sex sexual relationship (41.6%); petting (45.1%); and female masturbation (38.9%).

3.1.3 Sexual Behavior

Table 4 discloses the adolescents' self-report on their sexual experiences. Using mode as the central tendency measure, it could be said that this university cohort is generally inexperienced when it comes to most indicators of sexual behavior. When the percentages of those who reported having experienced it at least once, few, and many times were again combined, data suggest that significant number have had the following experiences: having an intimate partner (48.1%); watching/reading pornographic videos/materials (44.2%); intimate kissing (42.8%); masturbation (39.7%); necking (39.5%); petting (31.7%); petting in a generally public but dark and secluded place (30.8%); oral sex (26.3%); premarital sex with person they like and intend to marry (27.7%); and, premarital sex with someone they like but do not intend to marry (25.9%). Few have reported having engaged in casual or "one-night stand" sex (19.2%), sex with person of the same-sex (14.2%), paying for sex (14.2%), and being paid for sex (11.1%). One important finding is in the use of condoms or pills during sexual intercourse. Of the 365 respondents who have had experienced PMS, 80.2% of them engaged in unprotected sex.

3.2 Correlation Analyses

The results of the correlation analyses are reported in Table 4. As shown, four of the individual factors were found to be significantly correlated with scores on sexual behaviors. These were: gender (male), \( r = .244, p < .000 \); sexual preference (bisexual), \( r = .119, p < .000 \); age (older), \( r = .075, p = .006 \); school allowance (higher), \( r = .123, p < .000 \); and sexual attitude (positive), \( r = .308, p < .000 \). Year level and working while studying were not significantly correlated with sexual behavior. Marital status was excluded from the analyses since very little variation was observed among the respondents (97% are single). In terms of family factors, only the total monthly household income was significantly correlated with sexual behavior, \( r = .205, p < .000 \). No significant relationship was observed between the adolescents’ sexual behavior and the rest of the family factors, namely, father’s educational attainment, mother’s educational attainment, number of siblings, birth order, parents’ living arrangement, and whether the adolescent is living or staying with his/her parent/s.

3.3 Regression Analysis

Step-wise regression analysis was conducted to determine which factors or composite factors provided the most powerful predictors of sexual behaviors. Only the factors found to be significant in the correlation analyses were included in the subsequent regression equations. The outcomes from the step-wise regression are presented in Table 6. Only sexual attitude, gender, sexual preference, and monthly family income were found to be significant predictors of the adolescents’ sexual behavior. Age and school allowance were not significant and were excluded in the model. As shown in the Table, sexual attitude was entered first and accounted for 7.5% of the total explained variance. In the second equation, monthly family income was added to sexual attitude and accounted for 11.9% of the total explained variance. In the third equation, Gender was added to both sexual attitude and monthly family income, which accounted for 15.3% of the total explained variance. Sexual preference entered last and increased the explained variance by 16.1%. The \( R^2 \) score changes occasioned by adding each of the terms were significant, and the overall equation was also highly significant at \( p < .001 \).

4. Discussion

4.1 Sexual Attitude

Data revealed that Filipino adolescents still hold conservative attitude towards sex. Specifically, this was evidenced in the belief that sex is sacred and should only be enjoyed by married couples. More than half (56.7%) strongly agreed that sex is sacred and should only be enjoyed by married couple. The same conventional attitude was observed in the aspect of virginity. There are more adolescents who believe that a woman as much as a man should be a virgin at the time of her marriage. Furthermore, higher percentage also reported disagreement on the following: premarital sex, multiple sex, casual sex, pornography, cohabitation, same-sex relationship, petting, and female masturbation. These findings reflect
the generally traditional cultural mores about premarital and non-marital sexual activity. This conservative attitude may be influenced by strong religious beliefs and deep-rooted cultural values. As a predominantly Christian country, the Philippines considers sex between married couples as morally and legally acceptable. The Catholic Church remains influential in legal, political and religious views on sexuality, contraception, including how sex education should be taught in school. Premarital sex, pornography, prostitution, nudity, cohabitation and similar variants are still considered illegal and taboo.

Male masturbation, necking, and holding hands and kissing were found to be acceptable to a certain degree. The Church prohibits masturbation as sinful and unnatural but this religious proscription has begun to loosen up with male sexual exploits provided by an abundance of social opportunities (e.g., birthdays and community celebrations, public dances, fraternities) (Leyson, 1991), and exposure to various forms of media (e.g. romantic teen television programs, showbiz personalities, internet), which generally encourage sensual and erotic activities. Furthermore, adolescents are faced with social and biological pressures to engage in sexual activities, and may find it difficult to match what they practice with what they believe to be desirable (Adaji, Warenius, Ong’any & Faxelid, 2010). This situation is specifically prevalent among adolescents with friends who are sexually active and view sex as a defining aspect of masculinity (Somers & Gleason, 2001).

4.2 Sexual Behavior

There is an increase in the percentage of adolescents who engage in sexual behavior over time. Engagement in intimate relationships have increased from 21% females and 38.6% males (Cabigon, 1999) to 48.1% for both genders; and from 18% (Cabigon, 1999), 23.2% (YAFS 3, 2002) to 27.7% in the present study who have had experienced premarital sex. Despite this increase however, the figures reflected a generally low sexual behavior of this cohort of university students compared to the findings of other studies.

In the study of Nahom et al (2001) involving early adolescents of an urban district in the Pacific Northwest, the percentage of teens who have engaged in sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) increased across grades: 18% among 8th graders; 30% among 9th graders; 43% among 10th graders. In Spain, Teva et al (2009) reported that 37% males while 9.5% females had sex with a casual partner; 52.1% males and 46% females in the age group between 15 and 16 years have oral sex once or more a month; 91.1% males and 87.6% females between ages 15 and 19 years used condom in their first sexual intercourse. The mean age at the onset of sexual intercourse was 14.8 for males and 15 for females.

A study of 1,048 Asian-American adolescents, Hahm, Lahiff and Barreto (2006) found that 24% women and 20% men reported having sexual intercourse. Foreign-born adolescents who spoke English at home had the highest rates of sexual intercourse for both women (37%) and men (34%). But for most acculturated group, a much higher proportion of female than male U.S.-born adolescents who spoke English reported having had sexual intercourse (31% and 18%, respectively). In a more recent study involving students of a Canadian university, Dalton and Galambos (2009) stated that penetrative sex (sex in which the penis penetrates the vagina or anus) was experienced by 31% respondents, and 38% have received oral sexual contact from a partner, both in at least one month during the first year in college.

In Jamaica, 64% males but only 6% females reported having engaged in premarital sex. However, mean age at first sex for both gender is considerably low at 11.3 years old for girls and 9.4 for boys (Eggleston et al., 2007). In Turkey, masturbation was high at 51.3% (82.5% males and 14.5% females), sexual intercourse with intimate girlfriend/boyfriend (42.6%), casual sex (28.9%), sex with paid sex worker (28.5%), and multiple or more than two sex partners (54.5%). The median age at first sexual intercourse is 16 (11-18 range) for males, and 17 (14-18 range) for females (Aras, et al, 2007). Nwankwo and Nwoke (2009) reported that 47.4% of Nigerian student cohort from nine schools/colleges have ever had sex; in the last six months, 63.2% have had sex more than four times, more than three times, 11.3% one to two times, and 3.4% more than 5 times; 43.9% of them are with more than three partners while 42.7% are with single partner; and 53.6% have tried having sex with an unknown partner.

The present findings, however, indicated higher percentage of engagement in some sexual activities among the Filipino adolescent cohort compared to their Asian counterpart. An investigation on the prevalence and correlates of sexual behaviors among university students in China showed that: 10.8% of students are engaged in oral sex; 12.6% had heterosexual intercourse; 2.7% had same-sex sexual activities. However, higher proportion of Chinese students had experienced masturbation (46%) and more than half (57.4%) viewed pornography (Chi et al, 2012). Among Korean adolescents, the study of Ryu, et al. (2007) indicated that 14.4% of high school students had experience sexual intercourse; 6.8% of those who reported having had sexual intercourse have no girl/boyfriend, suggesting casual sex experiences.

These variations in the proportion of adolescents who were engaged in various sexual practices may be explained...
by differences in cultural and social context. One alarming finding is in the use of condoms or pills during sexual intercourse; 80% of those who have experienced sexual intercourse also reported that they did not use or does not like using condom, which puts the adolescents into high risk of unplanned pregnancy and exposure to STIs or HIV.

4.3 Correlation Analyses

The relationships between individual and family factors and the scores on sexual behaviors were consistent with some of those reported in the literature, and inconsistent with others. This study found out that although adolescents may hold different values concerning sexuality, their attitude about sex are related to behavior. Sexual experience increased with more positive attitudes towards sexuality (Huerta-Malacara, 1999; Werner-Wilson, 1998). Moreover, investigations into the effects of human sexuality generally support the assertion that sexual experience has a reciprocal relationship with sexual attitudes (Eggleston et al, 1999; Tobin, 2011). Greater average positive affect was associated with oral sex, and permissive attitudes toward sex were associated with more positive affect in relation to experience of penetrative sex (Dalton & Galambos, 2009).

The positive correlation between the respondents’ sexual preference and sexual behavior suggests that adolescents with bisexual orientation tend to engage in sexual behavior higher than the homosexuals, while both genders have more liberal sexual practice than the heterosexuals. There is a dearth of investigation on this area as most of the studies specifically focus on a particular group of sexual orientation [i.e., bisexual and homosexual risk behaviors (Matteson, 1997; Rosario, Meyer-Bahlburg, Hunter & Gwadz, 1999; Rew, Whittaker, Taylor-Seehafer & Smith, 2005)]. Available literature comparing heterosexuals, homosexuals and bisexuals were focused on patterns of sexual arousal and sexual attraction (Cerny & Janssen, 2011; Lippa, 2007).

The significant correlation between age and sexual behavior supported the findings of Huerta-Malacara (1999), Langer, et al (2001), Hahm, et al. (2006), Aras, et al (2007) and Mustanski (2008) and Teva (2009) but was contrary to what was reported in Chi, et al. (2012) and Akinwande and Brieger (2007). These discrepancies may be due to different samples, methods, and modes of analyses used by investigators, aside from the fact that these studies were conducted in different temporal and cultural context.

The relationship between gender and sexual behavior indicated higher sexual permissiveness and activity among males than females provided support to Werner-Wilson (1998), Langer (2001), Hahm, et al (2006). Akinwande and Brieger (2007), and Chi (2012). Adolescent males are much more likely than adolescent females to engage in sexual activities. Furthermore, the significant correlation between total monthly household income and sexual behavior among adolescents was consistent with Aras et al. (2007) who also found that mean household income were higher for sexually experienced males, (Aras, et al., 2007).

4.4 Regression Analyses

Statistical analyses were conducted separately and simultaneously for individual and family characteristics because they are both theoretically relevant and have been identified as important predictors of sexual attitudes [and behavior] (Werner-Wilson, 1998). The findings from the regression analyses indicated that the combined factors (sexual attitude, gender, sexual preference, and total monthly family income) in the final equation were powerful predictors of sexual behavior. These data are quite informative and contributed to the understanding of Filipino university adolescents. In the case of university adolescents, it could be assumed that they already possess the assets and resources that will allow them to maximize the benefits of sexuality, minimize the risks and mitigate any negative consequences that may arise (Dalton & Galambos, 2008). The important role of the school administrators, guidance and counseling centers, and relevant units in the university is to provide appropriate sexual education programs that will address the sexual issues and promote healthy sexual development among students. The challenge is to balance the demands of the social mores and the reality. Adolescent sex education should first and foremost strongly advocate abstinence, while at the same time providing comprehensive and informed knowledge on reproductive health, condom and contraception use, and the negative consequences of risk behavior (e.g. unwanted pregnancy, STIs, HIV, etc.) that will help foster a safe, healthy, and responsible sexual behavior among young people.

The findings of this study indicated that several of the factors were not always significantly correlated with sexual behavior and/or they were not significantly correlated with sexual practices. This does not mean, however, that they should no longer be considered when designing future sex education programs or interventions, since research with other samples might alter the findings reported in this paper. This study, like the others, is not without limitations. First, the data are based on self-report of the respondents and the use of questionnaire may only have evaluated their sexual attitudes.
and behaviors without further exploration of the motivations and influences behind the attitudes and behaviors. However, questionnaire-based studies of this sort have been employed in several sexual and reproductive health surveys (Adaji, 2010; Aras, 2007; Chi, 2002; Eggleston, et al 1999; Langer, et al, 2001; Langstrom, 2004; Ryu, 2002; Teva et al. 2009). The study may not totally represent the views of all Filipino adolescents, since the sample was limited to only one university. Adolescents from other state or private universities, the out-of-school youths, and those coming from various socio-economic status also maintain certain attitudes and may behave in a similar or different ways from the sample of this study.

Future studies may also focus on other factors that influence sexual behavior such as peer pressure to conform to sexual standards; and parent’s influence on sexuality (i.e., parent-child communication parent) (Werner-Wilson, 1998; Somers & Gleason, 2001); and further examination of the multiple and distinct and simultaneous influences of individual and family factors, and gender differences on sexual attitudes and behavior to expand our understanding of Filipino adolescents. Furthermore, studies using qualitative methods may be helpful, particularly in identifying the subgroups that are most at-risk, and suggesting effective means of intervention.

References


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### Table 1. Respondents’ Personal Characteristics

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### Table 2. Respondents’ Family Characteristics

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<td>Agree</td>
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<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Sex is sacred that only married couple should engage on it.</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I do not find anything wrong with a man and a woman who kiss in public.</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. It is alright for an unmarried couple to have sex as long as it is their own decision and that no one has been forced to do it.</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It is alright for a couple to hold hands and hug in public.</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>43.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I believe that a woman should be a virgin at the time of her marriage.</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I believe that a man should be a virgin at the time of his marriage.</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. It is alright for a couple to live together and make love without the benefit of marriage as it is their own free decision.</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I do not find anything wrong with enjoying pornography, e.g. pornographic movies, internet videos and sites, magazines, etc.</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I do not find anything wrong with having sex with</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
more than one person (not at the same time) as I like/love the person I’m having sex with.

10. Necking (caressing/touching body parts from head to shoulder) is acceptable between a couple. 8.8 32.0 33.0 15.5 10.7 3.13 Neutral

11. Petting (caressing/touching private body parts from breast/chest and down) is acceptable between a couple. 8.5 17.9 28.6 22.6 22.5 2.67 Neutral

12. There is nothing wrong with a male who masturbates. 17.7 28.1 30.0 13.2 11.0 3.28 Neutral

13. There is nothing wrong with a female who masturbates. 11.4 18.2 31.5 19.8 19.1 2.83 Neutral

14. Nowadays, teens have the right to express their sexual feelings with partners. 8.6 18.4 31.4 20.9 20.9 2.73 Neutral

15. Gays and lesbians have as much right as the heterosexuals to enjoy sex with the persons they choose as long as there is mutual consent. 11.4 16.3 30.7 17.1 24.5 2.73 Neutral

4.50–5.00 = Strongly agree; 3.50–4.49 = Agree; 2.50–3.49 = Neutral; 1.50–2.49 = Disagree; 1.00–1.49 = Strongly disagree

Table 4. Sexual Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Yes, I have done it many times</th>
<th>Yes, I have done it a few times</th>
<th>Yes, I have done it once</th>
<th>No, But I am open to doing it</th>
<th>No. I will never do it.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Verbal Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have had an intimate partner/boyfriend/girlfriend.</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>Yes, once.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I have intimately kissed my partner.</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>Yes, once.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I have engaged in mutual necking with my partner.</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>Yes, once.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I have engaged in petting/touching of private parts with my partner</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I have had premarital sex with the person whom I like/love and intend to marry.</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I have had sex with the person whom I like but I do not intend to marry.</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I have tried oral sex with my partner.</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I have tried kissing and petting in a generally public, but dark, hidden, and rather secluded place (e.g. movie house, comfort room, classroom).</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>56.2</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I use/have used some form of contraceptives (e.g. pills, condoms) when I engage in sexual intercourse with my partner. (n = 365)</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I enjoy/ have enjoyed reading or watching pornographic materials/videos.</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I do/have had experienced self-masturbation.</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I have had experienced casual or a “one-night-stand” sex.</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I have had engaged in a sexual activity with a person of the same sex.</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I have tried paying to satisfy my sexual fantasies/urges.</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>No, but I’m open to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I have tried receiving/accepting money or material things or have engaged in sexual</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>84.1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>No. I will never do it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
activity in exchange of a seriously wanted favor.

4.50–5.00 = Yes, many times  
3.50–4.49 = Yes, a few times  
2.50–3.49 = Yes, but only once  
1.50–2.49 = No, but open to it  
1.00–1.49 = No, I will never do it

Table 5. Correlation between Predictive Factors and Sexual Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictive Factors</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal characteristics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender</td>
<td>1406</td>
<td>-.244**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sexual Preference</td>
<td>1301</td>
<td>.119**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Age</td>
<td>1328</td>
<td>.075**</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Year Level</td>
<td>1373</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Working while studying</td>
<td>1259</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. School allowance</td>
<td>1158</td>
<td>.123**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Sexual attitude</td>
<td>1410</td>
<td>.308**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Characteristics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Father’s educational attainment</td>
<td>1360</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Mother’s educational attainment</td>
<td>1367</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Total household monthly income</td>
<td>1384</td>
<td>.205**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Number of siblings</td>
<td>1323</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Birth order</td>
<td>1319</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Parents' living arrangement</td>
<td>1393</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td>.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Living/staying with parents</td>
<td>1390</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.580</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the p < .01.

Note: Gender and Sexual preference were categorical variables. For gender variable, male was coded 1, female was coded 2. For sexual preference variable, opposite sex was coded 1, same-sex was coded 2, bisexual was coded 3.

Table 6. Regression Analysis of Predictive Factors on Sexual Behavior Scores among the University Cohort

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable(s)</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>R² change</th>
<th>Beta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sexual attitude</td>
<td>.273</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual attitude</td>
<td>.345</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>.236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly family income</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.401</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>.197</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All R² changes are significant; F = 32.395, p < .001
Ways to Increase the Effectiveness of Cultural Tourism in Albania

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Abstract

Albania, as a result of the democratic developments, based on the market economy and on competition as well, has achieved satisfactory results in the development indicators. We are in the stage of sustainable development as an important goal, which will lead us to the parameters of a developed country. As it already known and often emphasized, sustainable development means sustained high rates, environmental and cultural monuments protection, these last as integral elements of cultural heritage. The number of cultural monuments, the level of their physical condition, of their restoration, maintenance, and valuable use of them is a responsibility not only of the governmental authorities to turn these into an added value to the national economy and local individual. Cultural heritage is an important element that expresses the identity of a nation or of a human community. It is a precious unpredictable asset almost non-renewable. This is why the care for preservation and restoration of cultural heritage elements remains a permanent task of the specialized institutions and beyond. Monuments constitute a key element of cultural heritage. Their value is of pleni-dimensional, i.e. scientific, archaeological, historical, tourist, and why not economical and beneficial. In terms of market economy, this element of national wealth takes a special importance in the approach of a sustainable economy development. Besides, it is a source that may generate incomes by developing cultural tourism, without prejudice to other important aspects.

Keywords: Cultural heritage, the cultural monuments, maintenance, restoration, revitalization, cultural tourism, politics concession, leasing, economic benefit.

1. The Need to Increase the Effectiveness of Cultural Tourism

Cultural monuments in Albania are numerous. Their discovery, preservation and maintenance, including the possible revitalization, should be conceived as a permanent obligation of specialized governmental institutions, by exploring other possibilities of expanding their multi-dimensional value. In the contemporary world, the cultural monuments are considered a way of expressing the level of sustainable development of each country. The policies on tourism that the Albanian government is applying in the field of cultural tourism, aim at achieving this objective. This means that the cultural monuments should be treated in light of economic benefits. There exists controversial viewpoints on that. In a modest way, we try to shed lights on these views, prejudices and try to argue the need to change the so far mentality of the beneficiary character of cultural tourism.

Cultural tourism in Albania as a profitable activity by making use of cultural monuments, works for a long period of time. The content of this benefit is conceived only as a benefit of amusements judging by the archaeological, historical, scientific values of the cultural monuments as object of cultural tourism. Today the range of economic benefits goes beyond. It is already accepted by well-known experts even in Albania that cultural tourism is an "equation with two legs." On one side there are the tourists with money in their pockets greatly wanting to consume and on the other hand it is the product being offered to them.

The cultural monuments, as a very important element of the diversity of cultural heritage values, constitute the more convenient product that may be offered to local and foreign tourists. In order to have this product playing its proper role, so as to maximize the availability in terms of satisfaction and benefit from the economic perspective, it requires a
new concept on their management and use. Such requirement is related to the need to avoid the current character of tourist guide practice. Nowadays, it is not only required to improve the so far organizational but also the further development of road infrastructure and, what is most important, the expansion of full and functional identification of those elements that lead to maximizing of revenues. We mean the ongoing work for further discovery of cultural values, their conservation and maintenance, revitalization and other elements that make possible the realization of this objective. The above-mentioned components make the cultural tourism a value-added product.

In the developed and sustainable economies, the cultural monuments along with indicators of economic growth and of the environment, take into consideration a third indicator that characterizes a sustainable development of the economy. The strategy that the Albanian government has worked out to transform the Albanian economy into a developed one requires a stable conception of cultural tourism related to organizational, methodological and procedural aspects to build-up a new tourism policy.

By passing-by the first two indicators, i.e. the pace of economic growth and the environment, we will try to give, in a modest way, some thoughts on the wide range of possibilities to profit as much as we can by cultural tourism.

2. The need for new notions and practices.

Albania numbers about 2400 cultural monuments of various categories and different physical condition in its inventory. There exist movable and immovable cultural monuments estate in every territorial units. To this viewpoint, besides archaeological museum parks, Albania can be considered as a park, archaeological oasis taking into consideration its small space restrictions. In its archaeological structure there can be evidenced various elements according to time period they belong to. Figuratively, they represent a mosaic of tourist and color values. Unfortunately, the situation of this large inventory of tourist value is not in the required level for better functioning as a contemporary tourist product. The worst is that in most cases, there began the process of damage lacking the restoration, maintenance, caused by erosion of natural factors and unfortunately by intervention of evildoer's hand. At the same time the "invisible hand of the market" is not performing its own function. Here we are not dealing with market distortions, but with conceptual problems that deny the use or application of European positive experiences in terms of wider use of monuments of culture as a mere product that offers genuine added value.

Currently, the tourist product "cultural monument" offered cognitive value, historical, archaeological and scientific values. We think it is time to consider another aspect of the economic benefit without damaging the above mentioned values. This means gaining an added value as a result of offering other services of purely economic nature, of product service character. This service product will meet the current needs of tourists for their recreation, personal needs and various amusements. All these express what in economic theory is called utility or satisfaction level deriving from the consumption of a particular product.

We think that it is the above approach that made the Albanian government to work out the cultural monuments concession policy. Such practice in our country has an early start. It began 20 years ago with leasing "Lekursi" Castle, not mentioning here a few services of this character before '90. Nowadays, it is laid down the problem of having a completed comprehensive strategy better organized and managed, at least so it is launched in the political and media market. Does it stands or not or is this policy fair and defensible or is it a wrong one matching the interests of certain individuals, it need time to prove itself.

Unfortunately in Albania everything is prejudiced, everything becomes public and media issue by avoiding the experts thinking and viewpoint and the positive contemporary experience. It is natural that every step done in important aspects such is the increase of the efficiency of monuments as tourist product, be viewed with distrust. The bad thing is not the hesitating approach of the aspect but the prejudice.

Unfortunately the above argument is used by politics following the particular interest of the development of the society.

3. Contemporary experience in terms of increasing the usefulness of cultural tourism.

The strategies of the Ministry of Tourism, Culture, Youth and Sports and the establishment of specific projects in terms of raising the level of work for more efficient use of monuments of culture as a multi-dimensional tourist product, we think that is a good asset.

Their use in a sustainable way for economic benefit, is the optimal way to restore, maintain revitalize the values of the cultural monuments. We are convinced that here aims the policy of giving by concession certain monuments of culture, which is the program designed by the Ministry of Tourism, Culture, Youth and Sports. We emphasize the word
“concession”, because such a policy has nothing to do with alienation (sale). Out terminological confusion is intentional and is done on purpose to raise public sensibility and create the idea that such national property is being sold out. Without prejudice on the debates that has long started in this direction, we feel it reasonable to present some problems related to the concept and the experience existing today in various countries.

To better clarify the interested readers we point out that there is a wider European experience in terms of private management of cultural monuments without changing its owner “the state”. Such experience exists in Austria, Spain, Germany, France, Portugal, Belgium, but also in countries of Eastern Europe and wider. The relatively long experience in this field can be summarized in terms of economic theory in three models that generalize the private state relation.

The first model is the unique state administrator, who does everything and takes over everything. This atavistic totalitarian model has been used not only in socialist countries, but also in capitalist ones. Due to the importance the monuments have as indicator of national identity, such treasure is administrated and managed for a long period of time by state authorities, despite its character.

The second model is the mix one, which means establishing a partnership between the state and the individual based on certain interest relations expressed in well-defined contracts. It is a positive experience and used effectively.

The third model is the type of administrating certain monuments by private entity, in the form of lease/concession for a certain period of time.

Spain is the model where the state cooperates with private and from where one can get a positive experience. Forms of cooperation, called "Parador" model, comprises the highest and beneficial quality results from an economic standpoint.

Leaving aside the first two models, we tried to follow strictly the third model. Why?

First, this model has to do with private state report, where privatization has advantages in terms of the general theory. The question is should or should not monuments be administered and used by the private entity? This is not for residential buildings cultural monuments administered and used by their owners. We mean cultural monuments like fortresses/castles that in their entirety are still administrated by the state. The Albanian experience in this regard is limited and problematic. The use of accessories in the territory of natural monuments as bars and restaurants began before 1990, in the castles of great tourism potential such as of Shkodra castle or the underground bar in the castle of Gjirokastra. After '90, such practice was applied in Lëkurs castle. In its first phase such experience was considered as positive, but as time passed, the terms of the agreement establishing the rights of tenants were deformed. Greed for profit led to indiscriminate interference in unlicensed premises of cultural monuments (castles), and the same thing happened to the fortress of Lezha, even worse, where tennis courts are projected to be built.

These two cooperation agreements with private entity were characterized by lack of state control. In 2004, this practice was considered as law offense because the law "On Cultural Heritage" of 2003 did not anticipate such a practice.

Leasing contracts on Bashtova Castle, the premises on the terrace of the Porto Palermo castle, Acropolis in Berat Castle, the North Tower of Preza castle, an area of the fortress of Shkodra, Tower B in Durres castle and the Turkish Baths in Durres, reflect the Albanian experience with its good and bad aspects.

Lack of visible state control, with or without purpose, is no less important subject. Following up the line of our analyze, we emphasize that instead of awareness of positivity and regulation of the distortions in the functioning of state private partnership in the Albanian market, it is cultivated a biased opinion even counterproductive leading to political allergies in the concession aspect of certain objects cultural monuments. In the Albanian politicized environment prevail views three viewpoint group representing two political positions.

The first group includes all those individuals who think that the practice of leasing or concession of certain cultural monument is wrong and is treated as a sale of national assets. According to them, providing cultural monuments under private administration will result in cultural monuments degradation, loss of archaeological and artistic value up to their physical damage. According to this group of people, not less in number, generally representative of the left wing, private owner would consider only the economic benefit and not the preservation of multidimensional objects (accessories) that will be used by them as beneficial business. There are among them who think that it is not the time to implement such practices as they lack the legal basis. When referring to world experience, this group of people underlines that in countries where such practices do exist, it is possible due to the fact that the state is stronger and it operates with all its power. In addition to the above, refusal or disagreement on such practices argue with the fact that the time period for providing the private use are very large. But in this regard to this group of people encountered individuals who own correct position, thus underlined the necessity of making agreements and projects with defined tasks for prospective holders. However, it is evident an ideological political position when it said that this practice is national property sale. The problem is that we accept the market economy as system and deny the instruments used for the operation of a market economy as such.
The second group includes experts who hardly recognize such a practice and support the idea to carefully consider this partnership. According to them, it can be done with limited agreement on the number of items and the time and the observance of the state should be powerful. They recommend drafting comprehensive legislation and the creation of appropriate specialized institutions that will supervise the implementation of the agreement and will have the full right to apply penalty policy in case of contract violation, therefore are required institutions of independent integrity.

The third group comprises governmental representatives who in opposition status did not ho nihilist and prejudicial attitudes towards leasing contracts. They argue that the time has come that the cultural monuments, without losing state ownership and their of multiple values, be subject to greater economic benefit. The use of accessories of cultural monuments for service purposes and bars would be an opportunity to implement a preservation, maintenance and revitalization of their economic benefit without excluding the holders. According to them, the relatively adequate legislation, being amended, will create the conditions for the functioning of this mechanism, whereas the specialized institutions which nowadays are weak can be empowered. Their argument that the current Albanian state in is weak seems sound, therefore it is justified even the practice of concession. The contemporary experience with positive values should serve for the perfection of everything that has to do with the economic instruments enabling the market functioning.

Without prejudice to the economic laziness we are in favor of the best defined and well controlled concessional policies. The rapid development of tourism and cultural tourism in particular in Albania pose the task that by maintaining the traditional values of cultural monuments as a basis to cultural tourism, to further work on the increase of new values of cultural monuments by improving the legislation and building the necessary institutions.

4. The problem of regulating the legal framework

Today the cultural monuments should not be treated as a thing in itself, but as an important element of national wealth, cultural tourism and of policies for sustainable development at the national or smaller territorial administrative units.

To achieve this objective, inter alia, it is important to make improvements in the legal framework which should provide for a right relationship between the state and private entities. In this regard a good orienting is the recommendation 1730 for private management of cultural heritage, issued the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe for a better balance in the state private partnership. According to it, the private sector can be a part of the services entrusted to the monuments, the administration of separate parts as shops, museums and conservation of museum funds. The bias in this direction, which means the state or a private conceived only as an imbalance. This imbalance directs an unsustainable model of development. Current legislation does not appear to meet these requirements. For this reason it should expand the content and have no restrictive when it comes to a partnership with the State PRIVATE cultural monuments in view of cultural tourism.

Referring to the point ‘e’ of the article 29 of Law 9048, dated 07.4.2003 "On Cultural Heritage", as amended, “monuments of culture of category I and II in the historical center, museum city and museum ensembles can also be used to other functions that do not affect their values. It can be set public or private institutions, such as museums, libraries, monuments workshops, phototeques, art galleries and exhibitions. "And Article 39" 1.

Cultural monuments can be revitalized for administrative and socio cultural, provided that the new function should not affect the value of the monument. 2. In any case, the use of cultural monuments is allowed only after signing the contract between the user and the owner, who is asked to inform the Institute of Cultural Monuments. "Shows that he has character limit activity on the ability of subjects private service in several activities that can generate income. Here we do not consider the provision of hotel or sports projects.

Based on experience to date is important in law to define an optimal timetable which does not create the idea of property alienation, which allows a private entity to make unlawful interference gradually in line with the country's political rotations. These changes should be followed by restructuring the activities of the institutions responsible for the protection and management of cultural monuments. Creating more flexible structures which provide an optimum territorial coverage, creating efficient structures that provide not only protection but also beneficial management of monuments, creating modern structures that ensure maximum coordination between central government bodies and local governments, communities and local civil society organizations, are among the important objectives that determined sectoral development strategy for the period 2007-2013.

We think that these tasks pose as the requirement elements of public and political consensus. We do not mean mass measures but a consensus on strategic problems of long-term development issues so that laws and regulations be made in favor of better functioning of specialized institutions and of not political change rotations.

A stable legislation is a key weapon in the regulation of all anomalies and strengthen legal accountability.
Its ongoing improving need to seek legal unification of the EU countries, to establish higher standards governing the relationship between state and individual. Legal unification seen as a process of openness and integration will serve as a means of legal protection.

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Tourist Expectation and Satisfaction towards Physical Infrastructure and Heritage Elements in Melaka UNESCO World Heritage Site

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Abstract

The expectation and satisfaction level of tourists are required in order to identify the weaknesses that exist in an area. From there, improvements could be conducted to fulfill the needs of tourists regarding heritage elements and physical infrastructure that exists in a Heritage City. Heritage elements are significant as a main attraction force for tourists to visit historic areas. The need for infrastructure is important to improve tourist accessibility when they are visiting a destination. This research is conducted with the hope of studying the expectation and satisfaction of tourists when it comes to heritage elements and physical infrastructure at Melaka UNESCO World Heritage Site. This research applies the quantitative analysis through questionnaire survey forms to a total of 161 domestic and international tourists, together with visual analysis and inventories conducted for the core zone of Melaka City. The results from the visual analysis using the principal component analysis with varimax rotation has identified 24 relevant items that could be divided into three main factors such as heritage elements, infrastructure and supporting elements. From the analysis, the most dominant findings for heritage elements is the museum; in aspects of physical infrastructure, is the most accommodating centres, while facilities factor is in terms of trishaw services. This most dominant finding shows the level of satisfaction accepted by the tourists. On the whole, the satisfaction level is higher than the expected outcomes regarding heritage elements, infrastructure and supporting facilities.

Keyword: Expectation and Satisfaction, Heritage Elements, Physical Infrastructure, Heritage Site

1. Introduction

Each tourist possesses a different level of satisfaction between one another. This is due to the fact that every tourist has their own expectations, inspirations and experiences. A deeper understanding of the expected target will provide guidance in regards to the development of areas of attractions which will help enhance tourism services (Aksu et. al., 2010). Infrastructure is deemed an important aspect in determining the development of an area. Potential attractiveness of a tourist destination determined is the basic infrastructure of a country based on Gunn (1988) and Inskeep (1991). Crouch and Ritchie (1999) stated that tourism development plans will not succeed without basic infrastructure such as roads, ports, electricity and water. Meanwhile, heritage tourists concentrate on the story of a community and also the places of interest through interpretations of cultural landscapes and the conservation and preservation of historical appearance (National Association of Tribal Historic Preservation Officers 2011) which are the elements found in the heritage site.

2. The Study Area

Melaka is located south of the Malaysian peninsular, has an area of 1650 square miles and is situated on the waters of the Malacca Straits. The city that is divided into 3 main areas and has 81 parishes is a city rich in history with tangible and intangible heritage from the days of the Malay Sultanate of Malacca in the 15th century until it was conquered by the Portuguese and the Dutch in the 16th century and finally by the British. Now, the city of Melaka is known as a world
heritage site, recognized by UNESCO together with George Town on 7 July 2008. This world heritage site area is divided into 3 parts; Core Zone, Buffer Zone and Heritage Village (Refer to Figure 1). Division in the area is due to the fact that there are many areas of attraction and constitutes as a move by the local authority to focus all their energies into preservation and conservation. Melaka city is under the management of the Malacca Historical City Council.

Figure 1: Site plan of Melaka World Heritage Site.

Source: Special Area Plan for Melaka (SAP, 2007)

3. Research Approach

A total of respondents were involved in this study. The choosing of the samples for the survey carried out was done at random at the location identified by the researcher during the course of the previous pilot study. Research has been conducted in the vicinity of the Core Zones which are the Christ Church, along the Melaka River, Independence Park, the Porte De Santiago, Old Quarter of Melaka, Taming Sari Tower and accommodations. This study aims to identify the expected levels of satisfactions of tourists visiting Melaka Heritage City. Quantitative methods were used through questionnaires distributed to tourists. Questionnaires were modified based on research done by Homsud (2012) dan Huh (2002). The main theme of this survey is to assess the effectiveness of physical infrastructures in Melaka heritage sites from the perspective of tourists. There are 3 main sections in this questionnaire; respondents’ profiles, travel features and finally, heritage elements. 25 heritage elements were selected and modified following the work done by previous researchers like Homsud (2012), Huh (2002) dan Millman (1993). The expected level of tourist satisfaction was measured using the 5-level Likert scale which are very low (1), low (2), moderate (3), high (4) and very high (5). Data analysis using the SPSS software version 20.0 uses descriptive analysis, crosstabs and paired statistical tests (Homsud, 2012; Lather, 2012; Salleh, 2011; Aksu, 2010; Jaana Tonge & Susan, 2006; Huh, 2002; McQuilken, 2000).

4. Data Analysis and Finding

The objective of this study is to investigate the expectations and satisfaction levels of tourists regarding the heritage elements available in the Heritage City of Melaka. Initial expectations of this study are that most tourists are satisfied with the infrastructural and heritage elements available in this heritage site. Elements that will be discussed is regarding the validity and reliability as well as the expectations and satisfactions of tourists towards the heritage, infrastructural elements and infrastructure support. Based on Table 1, it is found that international tourists overcame domestic tourists with a difference of 4.4%. Meanwhile, the majority of respondents are 21-30 years old totalling at 58.4% and consisted of students by 41% compared to other areas of employments.
Table 1: Profile of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profile</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continent</td>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>52.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>58.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>41.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>20 and below</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>58.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51 and above</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>Academic / Education</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Technical / Engineering</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Health / Dentistry / Pharmacy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Building / Architect / Construction</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Retirees</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sociologist / Economist</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Researcher</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-government Organization (NGO)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1 Factor Analysis on the Heritage Elements

This study involves expectation and satisfaction levels of tourists in Melaka Heritage City. Thus, factor analysis should be carried out to reduce the data according to the appropriate size. Data entered into the SPSS program will be reduced by an appropriate factor. The researcher listed 25 heritage elements to be evaluated by respondents. Based on the factor analysis, 24 of the 25 heritage elements is an important factor to gauge the estimated and satisfaction levels of tourists to Melaka Heritage City. Elements divided by the factor will be tested using the reliability test (Cronbach Alpha). Table 2 shows the results of factor analysis and alpha values.

Table 2: Validity and Reliability Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>Heritage</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Architecture of building</td>
<td>.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Historical Building</td>
<td>.676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Traditional Scenery</td>
<td>.672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Traditional Handicraft</td>
<td>.670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Arts (Music/ Dance)</td>
<td>.640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Monuments</td>
<td>.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Varieties of Food</td>
<td>.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Local Community</td>
<td>.576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>.550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Cultural Villages</td>
<td>.448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Accessibility</td>
<td>.719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Signage for tourists</td>
<td>.685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Tourist information centre</td>
<td>.681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Safety Around City</td>
<td>.659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Climate/Weather</td>
<td>.446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Guides &amp; Assistance</td>
<td>.577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Traffic Congestion</td>
<td>.402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td>Supporting Infrastructure</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Trishaw Services</td>
<td>.541</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Principle component analysis (Principle Component Analysis) shows the correlation coefficient is 0.3 and above. Kaise-Meyer Olkin value is .898; higher than the value proposed .6 (Pallant, 2010) and Barlett’s Test of Sphericity reached the significant level set (p=.000), which supports the ability of correlation matrix. Then, the validity of the test is done by determining the anti-image correlation. The results show the value of the resulting anti-image is .5 and above. Results of the factor analysis produced 3 factors based on the principal component analysis (Principle Component Analysis) and varimax rotation. This factor is named heritage (factor 1), infrastructure (factor 2), and infrastructure support (factor 3). Reliability test conducted on these factors indicates the alpha value is 0.8 and above. Pallant (2010) suggests that a good alpha value is 0.8 and above.

4.2 Expectation and Satisfaction on the Heritage Elements

The expectation and satisfaction levels of tourists is measured based on the 5-level Likert scale and analysed using the mean and gap analysis. Table 3 shows the results of the mean and the gap between expectations and satisfaction levels of tourists to Melaka Heritage City for heritage dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heritage Elements</th>
<th>Estimated Satisfaction</th>
<th>Difference Mean</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Architectural Buildings</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>.437</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>5.058</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical Buildings</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.405</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>4.732</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monuments</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>.368</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>4.367</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional View</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.303</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.267</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Crafts</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>.380</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>4.118</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Dwellers</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>3.708</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>1.915</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Variety</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>2.352</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>4.872</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage Village</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>.341</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>3.737</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

S= Significant NS= Not Significant

4.4 Infrastructure Elements

According to Getz (1987), tourist infrastructure planning is one of the process that follows the research and continuous
analysis that optimises the satisfaction level of tourists, and also takes into consideration the environmental quality, while at the same time providing high satisfaction level among tourists and locals. By referring to Table 4, the minimum analysis of results shows that not all elements have satisfaction levels exceeding the expectations of tourists. Tourist Information Centre has the expected and satisfaction level that is constant throughout, hence is regarded as insignificant. This is due to the unclear location of the tourist information centre, and its inconsistent operating hours. At times the centres are closed and obtaining information regarding existing tourist facilities provided at the heritage site is proving to be difficult.

On the other hand, accommodation centres consists of the highest mean difference = .514, due to the appraised quality of accommodation services, and the abundant options available be it ranging from budget hotels, to 5 star hotels (Tourism Promotion Division, Melaka Chief Minister’s Department, 2012).

Table 4: Analysis Results for Infrastructure Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infrastructure Elements</th>
<th>Estimated Satisfaction Mean</th>
<th>Difference Mean</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Signage</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>2.115</td>
<td>.036 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistance</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.234</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>2.954</td>
<td>.004 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.310</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>3.429</td>
<td>.001 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist Information Centre</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.000 NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>4.462</td>
<td>.000 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.514</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>5.265</td>
<td>.000 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weather</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>.517</td>
<td>.606 NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic Congestion</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td>.439 NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

S= Significant   NS= Not Significant

4.5 Supporting Infrastructure Elements

According to Table 5, the mean analysis result for supporting infrastructure discovers that the satisfaction level has exceeded the estimated level. The trishaw and shopping facilities factor exceeded expected level of satisfaction with a mean difference = .441. The trishaw factor attracted tourists by providing services to go about discovering the heritage site at a reasonable price. Same goes to the shopping activities that offer a variety of products on sale at the heritage area. However, public toilets provision shows a relatively low mean difference = .149 because most tourists are unsatisfied with this particular supporting infrastructure provision. According to Jamil et. al (2012), there are 3 public toilets in this heritage area that were built at shop housing lots and at a position that is not strategic. Besides that, the clear lack of maintenance and upgrading, added to unsuitably located signage indicating directions to the public toilets add to the low satisfaction level of tourists. This is compared to the other elements that have exceeded the expected satisfaction level.

Table 5: Analysis Results from Supporting Infrastructure Elements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supporting Infrastructure Elements</th>
<th>Estimated Satisfaction Mean</th>
<th>Difference Mean</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trishaw</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>.441</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>3.881</td>
<td>.000 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenirs and Gifts</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.353</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>4.287</td>
<td>.000 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilets</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>1.495</td>
<td>.137 NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gallery</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.409</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>4.794</td>
<td>.000 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dirty Environment</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.252</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>2.534</td>
<td>.012 S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping Facilities</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>.441</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>5.357</td>
<td>.000 S</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

S= Significant   NS= Not Significant

According to Table 6, the highest mean difference is observed at the heritage factor (Mean Difference = .35) and supporting infrastructure (Mean Difference = .35). This difference shows the acceptance of respondents on the provision of heritage elements and supporting infrastructure at Melaka Heritage Site that have exceeded expectations. This difference shows the existence of significance between estimated level and satisfaction on heritage factors (p=.000) and supporting infrastructure (p=.000). Infrastructure factor shows the slight difference between the estimated level and tourist satisfaction. However, coupled t-analysis shows that there exists a significance for this factor (p=.008).
Table 6: Estimated Level and Satisfaction of Tourists according to Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Estimated Mean</th>
<th>Satisfaction Mean</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heritage</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>-4.524</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>-2.690</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Infrastructure</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>-5.132</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Positive responses are received from respondents concerning the heritage elements infrastructure and supporting infrastructure at Melaka Heritage Site. However, a research done by Aksu et. al. (2010) discovers that the expectation of tourists exceeds even their own satisfaction level. In a general perspective, tourists are satisfied with the heritage element infrastructure and supporting infrastructure that are provided a Melaka Heritage Site. Observations that were conducted by the researcher discovered that there are many unique heritage infrastructure elements that are well preserved and maintained in Melaka Heritage Site. According to Mohd. Samsudin & Sulong Mohamad (2013), heritage elements are significant elements and are main reasons as to why tourists visit heritage sites. Further into that, infrastructures are elements needed by tourists in order to increase their level of accessibility to attraction sites. This is supported by Jamil et.al.(2013) by stating that infrastructure provisions play significant roles in supporting and preserving heritage elements. Local Authorities are very particular concerning the provision of infrastructure elements for the continuous development of the tourism sector in this city (SAP, 2007).

5. Conclusion

According to the findings from this research conducted, infrastructure plays an important role in ensuring the effectiveness in mobilizing the heritage elements. Without infrastructure provision, it would be relatively harder for an area to continuously develop and attract tourists to constantly arrive and explore the heritage site. According to Aksu et. al. (2010), tourists have their own personal expectations regarding tourist destination chosen, according to the source and attraction pull of an area. A certain expectation could be high or otherwise according to the publicity and marketing conducted in developing a particular tourism destination. Expectation and satisfaction level aspects that are known are fairly hard to predict, because every tourist has their own personal opinion which differs from one tourist to another. In general, there is no clear list on infrastructure that is needed in this world heritage site (Jamil et. al., 2012). According to Jamil et. al. (2012) however, the infrastructure that is of existence at Melaka heritage site is available and adequate in accordance with the heritage city status owned by Melaka. The success of Melaka obtaining UNESCO recognition as a historic heritage city is associated with the maintenance of historical monuments of the Portuguese and Dutch in their current form (Mohd Samsudin & Mohamad Sulong, 2013). This includes elements of infrastructure provision, and strong based tangible and intangible heritage relating to the history of the golden age of the Malay Sultanate of Melaka that gave a profound impact on attracting tourists from both within and outside of the country.

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The European Union Integration Process and the Place of Turkey

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Abstract

The European Union integration project, established to enlarge the political structure and power of the EU, has rapidly evolved according to the changing dynamics of the international system and has developed different strategies over time due to the problems accrued in the decision-making mechanism of the EU and the institutional weight brought by new members. Turkey has tried for inclusion into this process for fifty-four years with its application to the European Economic Community. The historical relationship between Turkey and the EU should be viewed as a challenging ideological engagement. Since the Ankara Agreement was signed in 1963, there have been some changes in political expectations on both sides, but the fact remains that neither Turkey nor the EU has desired to end this process. This paper evaluates Turkish–EU relations from the perspective of the integration process.

Keywords: European Integration, European Union, Turkey, Enlargement, EU-Turkey Relations

1. Introduction

The experience of endless wars for hundreds of years and the tragedies of the Second World War forged a desire among the European countries to integrate and cooperate so as to deflect future tragedies. The major purposes of the cooperation were to re-build the countries and cities economically, socially, and politically that were damaged during the wars, and to stop the possibilities of future wars. There were two primary creators of the cooperation/integration project in Europe: France and Germany. Their first attempt was the Paris Agreement, which was signed in 1951 by France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, Holland, and Luxembourg. Based on that agreement, the European Economic Community and European Atomic Energy Union emerged and the second attempt was the Rome agreement, which was signed by the same countries. Based on that agreement, the European Economic Community and European Atomic Energy Union were established.

Evolving through time, this movement of economic unity grew to become a very important political structure. Since the foundation of modern Republic in 1923, Turkey had consistently turned toward Europe in attempts to join to the Western European Union. In July 1959, Turkey submitted an application to join the Union for the first time. This date was a milestone, though Turkey had been taking roles in almost all of Europe’s political, economic and military institutions. Turkey desired to become part of the growing European projects, considering them as inevitable, transformationally significant, and socially evolutionary in its own process of Westernization. Based on Turkey’s ideal of Westernization, the first part of this paper will discuss Turkey’s journey in the process and the obstacles it has faced in attempting to join the EU. It will also discuss how the EU has perceived Turkey’s attempts and attitudes toward being a player in the integration process.

It should be noted that the naming of the “European Union” varies in different literature. Prior to 1967, the European Economic Community (EEC), the European Coal and Steel Union, and the European Atomic Energy Union were united under one umbrella: the EEC. From 1967 to 1993, it was known as the European Community (EC); following the Maastricht Agreement, it became known as the European Union (EU).

2. European Integration Process

The idea of a European Integration Process dates to the 11th century and marked a desire to bring all the European states together for peace. In other words, most European thinkers had been considering ways to create a united European state formed by all European countries for centuries. They could finally adopt and practice that idea after the Second World War because of the emerging social and political climate (Nugent, 2006, p.13).

In 1306, Pierre Dubois, in his book named Saving Holy Land, discussed this idea with the leadership of the Pope,
the idea that it would be possible to provide peace in Europe through Christian unity (Özkan, 2011, p.31). In 1623, Emeric Cruçé suggested that the problems and conflicts among the European States could be solved based on fair decisions made by a group of monarchical representatives that would meet regularly (Meray, 1977, p.29). In 1693, William Penn, in his book Europe’s Peace for Now and the Future, offered to found a European Parliament in which Ottoman and Russian representatives could also participate as a way of resolving conflicts based on consensus (Meray, 1977, p.31). All of these attempts, however, to unite the Continent remained as mere mental speculation until the Second World War, at which time similar actions and ideas continued and were judged worthy of implementation owing to new forms of domination. It should not be forgotten that the political attempts of Napoleon and Hitler should, ironically, be considered as parts of actions meant to unite Europe, also (though their methods and tools were different). Their political actions and ideals, of course, to stage European integration resulted in disaster. After the Second World War, the continent was divided into East and West with the Soviet “Iron Curtain” militarily, economically, and ideologically. As a result, the continent became the political field of two powers: the United States and the USSR (Gürkaynak, 2004, p.11). This bitter experience of the ensuing Cold War put the idea of integration on hold, as the notion of singular domination had left a bitter taste on Europe’s tongue. This historical moment forced political thinkers to consider new ways that European integration process might come about, ways which would be based on equal, free-willed and volunteered parameters.

After the Second World War, the European States feared that the main actor of the Second World War, Germany, would again rise as a threat for the Continent again and cause another war scenario (McCormick, 2005, p.59). This fear, ironically, became the driving force to unite the European states. After the war, the major consideration at play in Europe’s will to integrate was to control Germany’s economic and military power and to pursue peace in Europe (Preston, 1997, p.185).

The European integration project (with the leadership of France, Germany, Italy, Belgium, Holland, and Luxembourg—Benelux) officially began after the signing of the European Coal and Steel Agreement (ECSA) in 1951. The purpose of this agreement was to remove the custom barriers for the coal and steel sectors. Because ECSA brought about a lot of successful results, European countries decided to expand the cooperation and redouble their efforts. As a result of this attempt for European integration, the founding countries formed the European Economic Union (EEU) and European Atom Energy Union (EURATOM) in 1957. These two new unions followed ECSA’s principles and integrated “transnational” characteristics for the Continent. Founded initially for ECSA, the Parliament and Court of Justice also functioned for EURATOM and EUC. In 1965, the decision-making mechanism of these three unions was also combined and this development led to the formation of the European Community (EC). The EC became an international actor in the political arena. After these important developments, the European integration process gradually evolved toward “cooperating, trying to find middle ground and consensus on economic issues and finally uniting for common economic and political ideals” (Çiftçi, 2005, p.475). Today, it would not be wrong to say that the European integration process was a unique cooperation experience in the history of Europe and resulted in the European Union (EU) project as an ideal.

When we consider the decisions of Rome Agreement, we can see that the EEU wanted to build the Union on two important ideals: the addition of more European countries to the Union and to expand the Union geographically to emphasize possibilities and fields of cooperation (Preston, 1997, p.189). The European Union evolved with these two ideals. In the 1970s, the movements to realize these ideals were very encouraging for the Union in terms of integration, but still the aspect of geographic expansion as an ideal was slow and struggling to gain a foothold. For instance, French President Charles de Gaulle vetoed England, Denmark, and Ireland’s application twice for inclusion in the European Economic Union (EEU).

De Gaulle moved away from the political scene in France and his absence resulted in multiple outcomes: the EEU no longer had to deal with France’s barrier for the expansion of the union; also, the EEU displayed very successful economic cooperation and these developments encouraged additional political cooperation. In 1970, the European Political Cooperation Agreement was signed. The main purpose of this Agreement was to expand the integration movements from the economic to various other fields, and finally to add structural depth to the ideas of European integration (Dedeoğlu, 2003, p.45).

Following De Gaulle’s withdrawal from politics, England, Denmark, and Ireland signed an agreement in January 1973 to join the EEU and they were accepted. Their inclusion—which increased the EEU’s number of members to nine—meant that the EEU finally could expand geographically. This expansion is considered a milestone for the history of Europe’s integration process. In 1981, Greece completed negotiation requirements and joined the EEU as a full member; this addition is also known as a critical tum in the expansion process for the Union. This development was received positively among member countries. Yet, for Turkey, a country that also aimed to join the Union, this was not a positive development. The reason is that, following Greece’s membership in the Union, EEU left its political tradition to balance the relationship between Turkey and Greece. As a full member of the EEU, Greece continuously pressured Turkey
and decisions were shaped by its desire for membership in the EEC. At the same time, Turkey's application raised

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In addition, the Nice Agreement was signed in 2003. It was also very crucial both strategically and symbolically prior to Eastern European inclusion, aiming to secure a number of important issues in the body of the Union (especially in terms of institutional structure and operation for the 25 member nations). Following the implementation of the Nice Agreement in May 2004, as had been planned, Czech Republic, Estonia, Southern Cyprus, Slovakia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovenia became full members of the European Union, giving the EU 25 members. The agreements discussed above, along with Eastern European expansion, allowed the EU to traverse its major geographic obstacle.

The most notable phase in the European integration process was the preparation of the constitution of the European Union. It should be emphasized that this phase was an important development in the process of building a “European United States.” With the Laeken Summit decisions signed in December 2001, the draft of the constitution was prepared; it then gained legal eligibility with the Rome Agreements of July 2004. First, the draft of the constitution was submitted for approval by the national legislatures of the member states. Subsequently, the Rome Agreements would become effective after November 2006. With these developments, the EU hoped to have a legal and valid constitution.

In May 2005, the EU constitution was voted on with a plebiscite, and rejected by 54.87 % of the electorate. Later, in Holland, the plebiscite took place once again, and again it was rejected by 61.8 % of the electorate (Eralp and Şenyuva, 2011, p.83). As a part of the European integration process, the European constitution was very crucial. It came as a surprise that two important founding nations and their society citizens rejected the European constitution. The rejection of the constitution was considered a break and a shock in the process of European integration. It also revealed critical issues and debates regarding the European integration process itself, and impacted negatively on the entire structure of integration developments (Kuus, 2007, p.161). After this experience, the process went into a critical phase. The Lisbon Agreement—also called the Reform Agreement—was signed in October 2007, and was intended to move the integration process toward more clear and decisive actions (Baç, 2008, p.29 ). The EU added two former Eastern Bloc countries—Romania and Bulgaria—in January 2007, thereby increasing membership to twenty-seven states. This addition was considered to be a positive move within the expansion aspect of the integration process. Taking effect in 2007, the Lisbon Agreement is viewed as a revised version of the 2004 EU constitution. In July 2013, Croatia became the twenty-eighth member of the EU. These expansion policies of the EU were important in terms of getting over the cultural hegemony of the western European states in the EU and being more tolerant of different cultural structures and norms.

3. Europe’s Integration Process and Turkey

Following the Second World War, Turkey chose to be on the side of Western allies, and to become a member of NATO. In July 1959, Turkey applied to the EEC for membership. Following this submission, all of Turkey's political aspirations and decisions were shaped by its desire for membership in the EEC. At the same time, Turkey’s application raised
important debates and issues regarding relations between itself and Europe. One of the major debates involved Turkey’s geographical location. The EU Amsterdam Agreement (Article 49) stated that only European States could join to the Union (Berksoy, 1998, p.37). Regional characteristics of full membership were emphasized in terms of regional and geographical qualities. Ninety-five percent of Turkey’s land mass is in Asia, while only five percent (Thrace) rests geographically on the European continent. Geography has thus been a major debate during Turkey’s journey for European integration. This debate also shaped the nature of Turkey-EU relations. Framed by the Ankara Agreement, which was signed in 1963, the EU recognized Turkey as a European state (Vali, 1971, p.335), marking the first step toward the nation’s European integration.

With Ankara Agreement the following intentions were declared by both sides: to tighten and enrich the relationship between Turkey and Europe; to develop Turkey’s economy and life standards as it can be compatible with European economy through enriching relations; to decrease the economic and social differences between two sides; to help Turkey economically so that it can be a potential candidate of EEC for the future. In order for this happen, Turkey and EEC signed a protocol in 1970. After having the petrol crises in 1974, West Germany, Benelux Countries, and France required Visa from Turkish citizens in 1980. This development affected Turkey EEC relation negatively (Çayhan and Güney, 1996, p.100) In addition to economic crises, Turkish intervention in Northern Cyprus and 1980 coup also changed the direction and quality of the relations between Turkey and EC. This was the beginning of problematic relations between Turkey and EC. After 1980 coup in Turkey, EC became more distant and cautious about integration process.

Right after 1980, surprisingly Turkey expresses its desire to be a full member of EC as soon as possible. According to Çayhan and Güney (1996, p.102), the following developments motivated Treaty to not to change its direction and mission toward becoming a part of EU: Greece, Spain and Poland would become the full members of EU soon and this would put extra weight on Turkey in terms of competitiveness; changing dynamics in the region such as Iranian Revolution, and Soviet occupation in Afghanistan. Beginning with mid-1980s, Turkey too important steps in th integration process. For instance, although it would cause economic disadvantages for Turkey, it accepted Custom Union Agreement toward the nation’s European integration.

Turkey experienced its major disappointment about EU in the mid 1990s. Some “Iron Curtain” countries which were behind of Ankara in many ways were considered as potential candidates for EU. Luxembourg Summit done by EU in 1997 was also a disaster for Turkey. Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Poland, Letonia, Estonia, Slovenia, Romania, Bulgaria, Latvia, Estonia and Southern Cyprus were chosen as candidate states in that Summit. Turkey was not even mentioned and Turkish public reacted against that. EU’s rationale for that was about human rights violations, Cypress issue and Turkish-Greek conflicts. Turkey protested EU and suspended some relations with EU. Although there were positive steps taken toward Turkey’s membership in Cardiff, Vienna and Koln Summits, Turkey’s EU candidacy was declared officially in December 1999 at Copenhagen Summit. After that Turkey-EU relations faced with another problem durin 2000s that negotiation frameworks and dates were not declared.

Turkey kept preparing reform packages and positive changes in the constitution. It also took serious responsibilities for Cyprus issue and accepted “Annan Plan.” While Turkish Cypriots voted approved “Annan Plan,” Greek Cypriots rejected the Plan.

EU always considered Turkey as an important partner in common security issues and foreign policy and they started negotiation process. In October 2005, the scanning procedure was done on Turkey and EU declared how Turkey is compatible with EU. With the help of this scanning, Turkey’s responsibilities in the negotiation process became clear. This has to be emphasized that Turkey-EU relations would never break off and they would continue integration process.

4. Results

For hundreds of years, the European integration project has been evolving both in theory and practice. Today, this project remains very crucial. The EU has 28 members, which means that nearly all of the European states are under its umbrella. The geographical scope reached bt the EU should be considered a big success. The economic and monetary gains of this integration have been perhaps the greatest achievement of the “European United States,” and should be seen as an example of success for the rest of the world. Beginning with Father Pierre L’ermit's offer to unite all of the European states against Turks and Islam in the 11th century, this project has evolved and transformed dramatically. As an example, Turkey (at one time the enemy) and the EU began the membership negotiation process in 2005. The EU has also been able to adapt and transform itself and its integration procedures based on changes in the international political system. After the Cold War, the "Iron Curtain" countries struggling with poor economic, political and social conditions were able to enter the EU within 14 years of the collapse of the USSR. Turkey, however, a nation that
has been trying to enter for the last 54 years, still is not a member. According to Lucius Annaeus Seneca, "the one who does not know which door to enter cannot catch the right wind." By the late 1950s, Turkey knew which door to open, but as yet has not been able to catch the right wind.

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International Criminal Law and Extradition of Persons with Penal Responsibility.
Albanian Experience

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Abstract

While the borders are open and the world has become more global even for Albanians, there are created some conditions which favorite some citizens who commit crimes in one country and flee to another country to escape facing justice and deserved punishment. To serve such a purpose in 1923 was created the International Criminal Police Organization, known as “Interpol”. This institution has branches in all countries that have signed agreements of international criminal cooperation, as well as Interpol Tirana. These are bodies that help in different ways the extradition of wanted persons. The purpose of this paper is to give an overview on extradition procedures and the way it is fixed by international and national laws. The paper will start with the specific rules for the person extraditions in both cases: when the person is required to be transferred from outside and when the person is required to be transferred from inside out. Then a special analyze will be made to cases when extradition is possible as well as cases when extradition may be refused due to legal provisions or procedural violations. To present the Albanian experience in person`s extradition, some specific cases in which the extradition is rejected will be analyzed, giving the reasons of this rejection. At the end, the authors are giving some recommendations on how to have a more efficient extradition process in Albania.

Keywords: extradition procedures, penal responsibility, international criminal law

1. The Legal Basis and Conditions for Extradition in Albania

The opening of borders in Albania since 1991, created the possibility of movement of Albanians to others countries and foreigners to our country. The most common reasons of these movements for Albanians varied from tourism to work. The same can be said for foreigners who have come in Albania during this period. Besides the positive sides, this movement has been followed by negative consequences, particularly in the area of crime. Now is a known fact and a more widespread opinion that Albania is a country with relatively high level of criminality. Every day in the media channels and police press release are given information about criminal nature events, which are espied by investigators who start the criminal proceedings, to carry out further investigation actions and to collect and administrate the evidences for these cases. This is the moment in which perpetrators should be given legal responsibilities, and this does not excluded the cases in which persons commit an offense in one country move to another country in order to evade justice taking advantage of the principle of territorial sovereignty of countries. Given this reality, international cooperation in criminal matters become necessary. In the absence of such cooperation between states a large number of offenders who leave the country where they have committed the crime, can not be condemned as repressive power of the state lies only within its territorial boundaries. Therefore the integrating developments in global processes must also bring an intensive development of judicial cooperation instruments, raising it to a higher level in order to make it more effective.

Catching of perpetrators and confronting them with justice bodies it is done in different ways. It is easier to work with the following categories of persons caught in the act of crime by the police, as well as those who surrender themselves to the police. A third category consists of those who are identified later. After the examination and expertise of traces has been done, capture of these persons can be done at home or in other places frequented by them. But there is
another category that after committing the crime manage to flee abroad, to hide the traces of the crime and to escape confrontation with the investigation. Even for these offenders, law enforcement authorities examine evidence collected at the scene and, following an investigation, after reaching the conclusion that it is done correct identification of the author or authors of the offense, make announcement on national and international research, to capture them, in view of the investigation, trial and sentencing.

When there are evidence that these persons are abroad, then the activation of police services in other countries is requested. To ensure the complete identification of the person and the transmission of necessary documents, these law enforcement authorities coordinate with each other through Interpol, in order to realize the extradition of persons to the country that has declared them wanted. To have clarity regarding the procedures and bodies involved in this activity, we should do some preliminary definitions dealing with international legal relations and institutions.

Based on Article 10 of the Criminal Code Procedure, legal relations with foreign authorities mean the relationship created between states according to international agreements, bilateral or multilateral, on the basis of recognized principles and norms of international law and the provisions of the Criminal Code Procedure, in order to have an international cooperation in criminal matters. From the above definition it follows that these relationships are based on the norms of international law and the norms of domestic law of each country. Specifically Albanian state has ratified a number of multilateral agreements, which have the major share of conventions within the Council of Europe and their additional protocols, which regulate legal relations with foreign authorities. The following can be mentioned as the most important:

- Convention "On the transfer of proceedings in criminal matters", ratified on 10.06.1999.
- Convention "On mutual legal assistance in criminal matters" and its Additional Protocol, ratified on 10.06.1999.

Mutual legal assistance consists of acts carried out by a state appointed under the Criminal Code and international cooperation aimed at assisting the development of criminal proceedings being conducted in another state to the author of an offense. All these actions are carried out in view of extradition of persons. **Extradition is a legal action that is realized in the framework of international cooperation, according to which a given state submits a person found in its territory a requesting country, where he is suspected to have committed a crime, in order to enable the investigation, trial or suffering of a conviction by the court**. By this definition means that extradition is made for three main purposes:

- The transfer of persons against whom criminal case was started in the state where he is considered a wanted person,
- To implement a security measure, according to the decision of the judicial authority of the requesting state,
- For executing a penalty final decision, provided by the requesting state.

By this definition it is meant that the state to which is requested a person found in its territory, give him back to the state which made the request for extradition. The legal basis were extradition is based, as a legal procedural action consists of:

- Interpol's Constitution,
- Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania,
- Bilateral international law, according to the model developed by the UN,
- Multilateral conventions, such as the European Convention on Extradition,
- Basic documents Interpol as general regulation, financial regulation, etc..

The extradition of wanted persons is of two kinds, because there are two directions of movement of people who are associated with the underworld. Extradition is inactive when a person wanted by a state is inferred outside Albania, and is active when a person is brought in Albania, where he is suspected of committing a crime. In the Constitution of the Republic of Albania, Article 39/2 is sanctioned that extradition may be allowed only when it is provided in international an agreements to which Albania is a party, and only if there is a court decision.

2. International Extradition Institutions

Announcement on international search and then the search for persons who become subject to extradition, is carry out by

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1 European Convent on extradition, 1957.
2 Penal Procedure Code of Republic of Albania, article 488, page 243, year 2004
the International Criminal Police Organization, known mostly by the name of INTERPOL. Interpol was created by the Congress of Vienna in 1923 and its center is in Lyon, France. In the international police organization are members only those states that have accepted and subsequently ratified by law constitution of Interpol.

The scope of Interpol is directly related to issues of special importance, such as public safety and terrorism, criminal organizations, drug related crimes, high-tech crimes, financial crimes, trafficking in human beings. Interpol also deals with the support of investigative procedures in the field of the fight against crime. One of its tasks is to provide its members with the list of the names and information about the persons wanted by international police force. For example, if Interpol is looking for a particular trafficker, police member has a legal obligation to register it in the list of persons wanted by Interpol. This means that the tracking and arresting the wanted person is the responsibility of the state where he is staying. In such cases, Interpol support police action by information exchange, creating convenience for cooperation and coordination of actions among member countries. It provides assistance to all police authorities and other institutions have a legal obligation to cooperate in the prevention and fight against crime raised. In this process, all these institutions operate within the framework of the "Universal Declaration of Human Rights".

3. Tirana Interpol

Interpol's institutional structure is wide enough due to the fact that its offices are located in the territories of all member states, also in our country. National Central Bureau Interpol Tirana is a special structure in the General Directorate of State Police, responsible for relations with the central structures and the Interpol National Central Bureaus counterpart. It implements the service standards of a National Central Office. Its activity also takes place in accordance with:

- Constitution of the Republic of Albania;
- Interpol's Constitution, the law "On accession of the Republic of Albania in the International Criminal Police Organization Interpol";
- National criminal legislation and criminal procedure;
- Law "On the State Police";
- Every international agreement to which Albania is a party.

The following basic Interpol documents serve as legal basis on which the National Central Bureau (NCB) of Tirana Interpol is based for its activity: general rules, financial regulations, operation standards of head national offices and regulation on international cooperation and control of Interpol archives. These documents are required to be implemented by each state. However, in the case of provisional arrest with a view to extradition of a citizen of our country from an NCB counterpart, Interpol Tirana, upon notice, cooperates with the Ministry of Justice and the Attorney General to send the necessary documents for the extradition of citizen. This documentation is forwarded through diplomatic channels, respecting the time limit provided in the Convention or bilateral agreements.

In cases where an Albanian citizen has committed a crime out of our country and is declared wanted by an NCB international counterparts, while the citizens is in the territory of the Republic of Albania, Tirana Interpol, upon notice, inform and cooperate with central and local structures of our State Police to identify its location. Then it notifies the competent Ministry of Justice and the Prosecutor General. Whereas in cases where the person is a foreigner, especially Albanian citizen who has acquired citizenship in a foreign country, and international research announcement is made from one of the countries with which we have bilateral extradition agreement, the person is arrested to be extradited to the requesting country. At the same time, National Central Bureau of the state which requires the person to be arrested in order to extradite him is informed and them is proceed with the delivery of the documents by diplomatic channels, through our Ministry of Justice, within a 40 day period.

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3 Interpol Constitution, year 1956, article 2, 1 & 2, page 1.
4 Approved by 33European Regional Conference for Interpol, Kiev, May 12-14, 2004.
5 Law nr. 8427, December 14. “For the adhere of the Republic of Albania in Interpol”.
8 Law nr. 9749, June 04.2007, “For State Police”.
9 Approved by the Law nr. 10183, December 03.2009 “For jurisdictional relations with foreign authorities in criminal matters”.
10 Article 16, European Convention on extradition.
Based on our Constitution and the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania, extradition is possible only if approved by the court. In this case the Ministry of Justice shall send the relevant documentation to the requesting country, which should definitely include the court along with an order for enforcement of Interpol Tirana, within the time limit. Extradition shall be granted only when it is expressly provided for in the international agreements to which Albania is a party and when there is a court decision.

In the case when our law enforcement bodies seek for the extradition of a person prosecuted or convicted in a foreign country, to whom must be executed a measure that restricts his personal freedom, is the Ministry of Justice which has the competence to perform this procedure. To achieve this goal, court prosecutor, in whose territory it is processed or rendered the sentence, made a request to the Ministry of Justice, sending it the necessary acts.

4. Extradition Procedures

When extradition of a person from abroad is required, is the Ministry of Justice that has full authority to request to a foreign country for extradition of a person prosecuted or convicted, to whom should be sung a penalty measure, which restricts his personal freedom. Before the police begin to work for the international research of an Albanian citizen or a foreign citizen, or a stateless person who has committed a crime within the territory of our country, first they should start with the opening of "overseas research record". Then, at the request of the central or local police or judiciary, when there are available evidence that the person is abroad, the person is declared wanted internationally. The request for extradition is presented in a written form and is forwarded through diplomatic way. This means that the application should be submitted through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and must be based on information received from the Prosecutor General. The application must be accompanied by some additional documents required, as follows:

- Original or certified copy of the decision formalized as a final sentence, and the order of arrest or any other act that has the same active force, issued in accordance with the laws of the requesting party.
- List of the the facts upon which supports the request for extradition, such as the time and place of the offense, its legal definition, references to relevant legal provisions that apply in such cases and a complete report on the procedural acts basis of which the person is identified as the author of the event.
- A more accurate description of the individual features required and any information that can be used to determine his identity and citizenship. This includes the evidence which fully identify the person, such as photographs, passport card, fingerprint records, fingerprints etc.

In cases where both countries have certain direct agreement between them, they can act as procedural specifications set out in these agreements. But despite the concrete path to be followed in a particular case extradition, the requesting state should be party to the agreement in the context of the European Convention and its two protocols.

When it is needed the extradition of a person from other countries, the request is presented to the Ministry of Justice, which, in the case of approval, forward the documents to the prosecutor of relevant court. After reviewing the documentation within three months prosecutor submits to the court a request for review.

The person for whom the extradition is request, based on the request of the Ministry of Justice, prosecutor may order coercive measure and set the seizure of material evidence related to the criminal offense. According to the Article 495 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, in urgent cases, judicial police can make arrests of the person against whom is requested temporary arrest.

When there is implemented an austerity coercive measure, the court no later than five days after the execution of the measure or its assessment, provide the identity of the person and his possible consent.

The court decides in favor of extradition when there are relevant evidences on culpability or when there is a final sentence. The court decides not to extradite a person when there is the case of non-extradition. After the decision is given by the court, is the Ministry of Justice that has the power to make the final decision whether or not the request for

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12 Regulation nr. 759, May 21, 2008 “For the functioning of National Center Office Interpol Tirana”, pg. 22., according to the European convent for extradition.
13 Constitue of Republic of Albania, article 9, page 7.
14 Penal Procedure Code, article 504, page 252.
16 The interpretation is found in the Penal Procedure Code of Republic of Albania, Article 489, which refers to the European Convention for Extradition, year 1957, article 12, pg. 5.
extradition will be accepted. Extradition decision loses power when, and the detainee is released, when requesting state does not act within the time specified for receipt of the extradition. Execution is suspended when the extradition person should be tried in the territory of Albanian State, or must serve a sentence for offenses committed before or after the offense for which is decided extradition.

Legal procedures for extradition implementation are very complicated. They are designed in such a way as to ensure the transfer of an accused to the jurisdiction of a country under the jurisdiction of another country. But these procedures should not be confused with the mutual legal provisions relating to the evidence obtain.

But legal provisions for extradition of a citizen from a country's jurisdiction to that of another country can vary greatly depending on the nationality of the person who is requested to be extradited, on the country or countries concerned by this person, and on the type a criminal offense that may have committed. These actions can be more subtle when in the extradition issue intervene certain political point of view or principles, especially in the case of a possible capital punishment.

The requests for extradition or enforcement decisions should be reviewed and managed by specialized lawyers, located near the respective ministries. The main condition remains the obligation that the requesting state should be part of the multilateral agreement in the framework of the European Convention on Extradition or bilateral agreements. While the "golden rule" that should be followed is to establish contacts with relevant legal department within the right ministry and carry out their advice and instructions.

5. Cases of Extradition Refuse, Albanian Experience

Taking in consideration the police practices in different European countries in recent years regarding the procedures for the extradition of the person, it is noted that authorities are often confronted with facts such as: request for extradition from several states at once for the same person, with refusal of extradition for reasons related to the lack of documentation or other unforeseen reasons. If the requests for extradition of a person are refused by the countries where he is been arrested him because the serious charges, then the consequences will fall upon the requesting state, damaging all initiated criminal proceedings.

In cases where there is competition for extradition requests, which means that the extradition of a certain person also required by some states, it is the party to which have been addressed the request for extradition who decides. In its decision the party should take into account all the circumstances, particularly the fact that which of the offenses it is considered most serious, it should also take into account the place of the offense, the dates of request for extradition submission, citizenship of the person required to be extradition and the possibility of its further extradition to another state.

In many cases, for the persons who are subject to criminal responsibility, extradition can not be accepted by the country to which it is made the request for extradition. Such a possibility should be considered in all cases where extradition is requested. What circumstances can serve as potential causes for rejection request, should be taken in consideration in advance in order to take all measures to prevent them. For example, one of the reasons for rejection may be the case when the prescription of the act or punishment, enters into force by the legislation of the two countries, the one which has requested the extradition and that to which requests for extradition have been addressed.

The extradition is refused in the cases when for the offense, due to which the extradition is requested, based on the law of the country which make the request for extradition it is required capital punishment and based on the law of the country to which it is made the request for extradition such a punishment it is not applied. But extradition can be admitted to be conditional, in order that the requesting country guaranty that there will not be any capital punishment.

Such a case is the refusal of extradition request made from Interpol Beijing to the Albanian authority, regarding the extradition of five Chinese citizens, originating from Uighur tribes, who where accepted in the Albanian Asylum Centre. The refuse of the Chinese request for extradition where made because according to the Chine law the punishment for the offense which these persons where accused is death penalty, and if they were extradited to China, they were executed. The rejection of the request from the Albanian side was based not only on fundamental international documents relating to extradition, such as the European Convention on Extradition, and the Rome Statute of Interpol's Constitution, but also

17 Dr. Hasan Shkëmbi, "International collaboration", Tiranë, Albania 2006
18 According to the European Convent for Extradition.
19 This Fact is interpreted even in the Penal Procedure Code.
in our domestic legislation, such as the Penal Code and Penal Criminal Code. The right of the Albanian derives from the "Universal Declaration of Human Rights", which our country has ratified by law.20

One of the cases where extradition is refused is the case when the country to which the request for extradition is made evaluates the requests as politically motivated or considers the arguments of this request as related to a political reason.21 As an example of such a case, we can mention the refusal of extradition request made from Albania to the Belgium and Switzerland, for the members of the criminal organization "Revenge of justice".22 The argument for refusing extradition of these persons, from the Belgium and Switzerland authorities was the fact that their families origins connected with several high political officials of the communist regime in Albania and the mention of their names in political debates by various members, inside and outside parliament. The defense presented offenders as victims of a fierce political struggle, where extradition would bring them political persecution. Thus the measure of punishment given to the Albanian court was not taken into consideration even though there were convincing evidences that they were the authors of serious crimes.

The same rule applies when the country to which it is made the request for extradition believe that the real reason for extradition is the race, religion, nationality and political opinion of the person.23

6. The Consequences of Delays in the Exchange of Documents

According to the opinions of specialists of Interpol, the procedure for extradition of wanted persons there are significant delays in the practice of exchanging documents between the respective ministries of homologous countries. Some countries, such as Australia, England and the Netherlands are punctilios deadline for documentation forward. They even require detail regarding the identification of the person, event, collected evidences.

Extreme delays in sending documents to fully identify the person especially noticed in the case of Albanian citizens that are arrested abroad. Local police authorities often send these documents outside the legal deadline of forty days. So it often happens that the person extradited does not have any valid identification for moving from one state to another. This fact makes the transit through airports difficult.24

Special difficulties are faced in the case of extradition of persons which are been convicted in absentia, especially for those who are arrested to be extradited from United Kingdom. This is because the authorities require convincing guarantee that after the extradition, the person will be retried. They justify this attitude with the concern that the principal of human rights are violated. The great difficulty lies in the known fact that police authority which execute the transfer of the person does not have the legal right to give such a guarantee.25

7. Conclusions and Recommendations

From the analyze of the process and procedures of extradition of persons we can conclude as follow:

1. Documents drawn up in accordance with the requirements of international conventions is a prerequisite for the successful extradition of persons. If documentation will present shortcomings, the person subject to extradition, makes it easier to present an alibi or to gain asylum.

2. If the documentation for a correct identification of the person wanted is not submitted within the legal limits, extradition may fail because the state in which the person is been arrested can not keep the person detained more than forty days and immediately performs his release.

3. Lack of bilateral agreements on extradition and mutual understanding between our country and some other countries, such as Greece, Belgium and the UK, is used by some Albanian citizens to shelter in Albania, after the commission of the crime in those countries, in order to avoid extradition.

Therefore, in order to improve the legal and institutional framework of the process of extradition of persons, should

20 Interpretation according the Penal Procedure Code of Republic of Albania.
21. Based on the Convent, the murder of a person or attempted to murder the head of the state or any of the members of his family, are not considered political action. This is the only limitation posses by this convent for what is consider offense. In all other cases is up to the state to which it is requested the extradition, to decide if there is a political action or not.
22 Information is taken from counter terrorism sector General Directory of Police.
23 European Convent on Extradition, year 1957, articles 10 and 11, pg. 4.
24 This fact was presented from the interview of a specialist of National Headquarter of Tirana Interpol.
25 According to the interview of the officer of the Interior Minister of the United Kingdom.
be taken into consideration some recommendations:

1. To extend institutional cooperation between the Ministry of Justice and Ministry of Foreign Affairs and counterpart ministries of other countries, in terms of the correct completion of documentation and accelerating the transferring procedures to their respective destination.

2. The police departments should make greater efforts in order to respect deadlines for person identification procedures, because any delay causes limit exceeding which leads to the release of the prisoner.

3. Bilateral agreements should be signed with some countries, such as Belgium, France, Greece etc., in order to extradite Albanian citizens who have commit crimes abroad and currently are billeted in Albania, because of the lack of these agreements is was no extradition from Albania in these countries.

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Quest for Love through Self-Exploration: Edna Wu's Women Narrators' Search for Fulfillment of the Body and Soul in the New Land

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Abstract

Love, gender, sex, and sexuality are omnipresent and constantly intertwined with political and racial issues and other aspects of humanity in each one of Edna Wu's three books: Clouds and Rain: A China-to-America Memoir (1994), Two Eves in the Garden of Eden and a Male Mother (A Screen and a Play) (2006), and A Single-Winged Bird (2010). A Chinese immigrant, Edna Wu painstakingly examines what Jonathan Spence calls the “erotic and intellectual fulfillment” for her narrators in this new land of freedom. She, more than any other writers, male or female, who have left China and set up homes in America, uses a combination of genres and forms—from fiction to poetry and from memoir to drama—in exploring the Chinese immigrant’s experience that embodies acute conflicts between the old and the new, the restricted and the free, and the East and the West. She is equally free in utilizing bilingualism in her writing to reveal the emotions of her characters and to enhance the crippling effects of the very act of uprooting oneself from one place in order to settle in another. These techniques that she so adeptly employs allow her to absorb deeply in her soul search in each of the three works. In this paper I attempt to analyze the theme of universal erotic love Edna depicts in the fictionalized experience of her narrators in the three works. Specifically, I elect to focus on the feminist perspective unique to Edna in seeking self-realization through unbounded means and approaches. In so doing I want to argue that, insofar as the purpose of migration is to start anew, women immigrants as portrayed by Edna seek their newness and renewed selfhood through a range of experiments unknown to them in the world they have come from. The free exploration of their own bodies and sexuality constitutes a major and primal part of these experiments.

Commenting on Bai Hua’s 《苦恋》 [Unrequited Love] and other novels, Qingyun Wu notes, “Taken together, the[se] dramatic tragedies of sexual repression and monogamy comprise Bai Hua’s indictment of patriarchy as a cause of all social evils” in the Maoist China, especially during the eleven-year period of the Great Cultural Revolution (Wu, Q. 1995. p. 125). Perhaps influenced by him as she worked on many of Bai Hua’s works both as a translator and an analyst, Wu, “Qingyun” as her given name in Chinese, but “Edna” as her English penname, apparently shares the same view with him on the issue of sex. “Sex is a natural part of human life,” Wu observes, “but men create laws and entire ideologies that make sex a matter of politics and property” (p. 125). Such laws and ideologies, in Wu’s opinion, are to blame for all sorts of what she calls “patriarchal evils: sexual repression, sexual starvation, rape, prostitution, monogamy, adultery, jealousy, and murder” (p. 124). Exposing such evils and calling for sexual freedom are thus a pivotal component of her themes in the three literary works she has thus far published: Clouds and Rain: A China-to-America Memoir (1994), Two Eves in the Garden of Eden and a Male Mother (A Screen and a Play) (2006), and A Single-Winged Bird: Poems, A Short Novel, and One-Way Emails (2010).

The way Edna Wu tries what appears to be autobiographical, using a genre that she calls “personal book.” In her own definition, a “personal book” is “a sum total of genres as poetry, diary, letter/email, travelogue, prose and mini-fiction, and mini-drama or an amorphous mass of traditional, modern, postmodern or whatever nameless hodgepodge” (2010. p. xiii). In a manner similar to the Bakhtinian notion of “hybridization” (1981. P. 356) or deliberate mixing of an array of languages and forms, Edna Wu painstakingly explores for what Jonathan Spence sees as the “erotic and intellectual fulfillment” for her narrators both in the old country of China and in the new land of America. She, more than any other writers, male or female, who have left China and set up homes elsewhere, uses a combination of genres and forms—from fiction to poetry and from memoir to drama—in examining the Chinese immigrant’s experience that embodies acute conflicts between the old and the new, the restricted and the free, and the East and the West. She is equally free in utilizing bilingualism in her writing to reveal the emotions of her characters and to enhance the crippling effects of the very act of uprooting oneself from one place in order to settle in another. These techniques that she so adeptly employs allow her to absorb deeply in her soul search in each of the three works.

All writing is necessarily autobiographical insofar as human beings are cognitively caged in their own egocentrism
and ethnocentrism. In Edna Wu’s arguably autobiographic writing, a notion she ostensibly disagrees with and, tongue in cheek, insists that her personal books are “fiction in the camouflage of a reality show” (2010. P. xiii), the “self” she writes about is a rather complex entity made up of personal experience, observations, and imaginations. The female narrator in each is simultaneously the product and process of many things. This multi-faceted persona, however, can be split into two halves in general. One half follows the social norm set up by socio-political conventions. The other half rebels against these very same conventions in an effort to seek emancipation and selfhood. In this sense, Edna Wu is, consciously or unconsciously, doing exactly what many women writers are doing as described by Sandra Gilbert and Susan Gubar in their Infection in the Sentence: The woman Writer and the Anxiety of Authorship:

To heal herself, however, the woman writer must exorcise the sentences which bred her infection in the first place; .......

Or, to put the matter in terms of a different metaphor, to “set the crystal surface free,” a literary woman must shatter the mirror that has so long reflected what every woman was supposed to be. For these reasons, then, women writers in England and America, throughout the nineteenth century and on into the twentieth, have been especially concerned with assaulting and revising, deconstructing and reconstructing those images of women inherited from male literature, especially as we noted in our discussion of the Queen’s looking glass, the paradigmatic polarities of angel and monster. Examining and attacking such images, however, literary women have inevitably had consciously or unconsciously to respect the values and assumptions of the society that created these fearsome paradigms. Thus, even when they do not overtly criticize patriarchal institutions or conventions, these writers almost obsessively create characters who enact their own, covert authorial anger.... It is significant, then, that when the speaker of “the Other Side of a Mirror” looks into her glass the woman that she sees is a madwoman, “wild/With more than womanly despair,” the monster she fears she really is rather than the angel she has pretended to be (Richter. 1998. p. 1365).

Of course, the “madwoman” Gilbert and Gubar describe in the above quote is in fact perfectly sane and normal. She is mad only in the eyes of the patriarchal world where rules of conduct have been set up to govern the way she behaves. Any deviation from such rules on her part would result in necessary madness. In this sense, Yun in Clouds and Rain is mad; the lesbian lovers in the Two Eves in the Garden of Eden are mad; Jenny Morita and Meiyin Hu in A Male Mother are mad; and the poetess, the drarist, and the one-way email writer in A Single-Winged Bird are all mad. In the pages below, I will take a close look at the madness of these women as depicted by Edna Wu. I will specifically focus on Wu’s presentation of the sexuality of her female immigrating narrators/characters whose life’s paths happen to "coincide" with that of the author. In so choosing, I will leave out one of her work, Two Eves in the Garden of Eden, out of this discussion because it is the only one whose theme does not involve immigration.

Edna Wu’s depiction of sex is direct, graphic, detailed, and unapologetic. Although the acts of sexuality in her works range from incest to queer romance, heterosexuality is what she writes about the most. "After a few weeks of tears and pain,” Edna Wu thus begins her 1994 novel, Clouds and Rain: A China-to-America Memoir, “I finally killed the angel of love in me…” (p. 6). She wastes no time to cast aside the socially conforming half, the one that stands outside of the mirror in Gilbert and Gubar’s description. Now that the angel in Yun, the protagonist, is dead, she is ready to let the mad demon take over. She immediately rushes to have Yun share with the reader the scene of her masturbation over the fantasy of Ramon: “she felt a tightening of her bras and a thrill shot up from the deep red valley, radiating through and through; nothing could help relieve such an intensity, except an auto-erotic release” (p. 6). Interestingly, Yun’s longing for Ramon, a Mexican-American colleague, is greatly intensified mostly because he does not seek any sexual favor from Yun for helping her with her academic writing. An assistant professor at a state university in Los Angeles, Yun is faced with the same cruel "publish-or-perish" reality as anyone in the profession; however, being a new immigrant with English as her second language, she faces enormous challenges in writing and getting published. Her experience in seeking help in such matters has been one of “trade.” You pay for what you get, although the way of payment may vary. Everyone who has helped edit her writing in the past either demanded sex or money, often times both. She is used to such demands and willing to cut deals as in any business transaction. After all, this is America. There is no such a thing as a free lunch in this new country of her choosing. She must pay for what she wants. Sex is perhaps the easiest way to settle the transaction once the moral values are taken out of the equation. Ramon’s not wanting such payback, paradoxically, greatly arouses her and sexually excites her. Frustrated at her failure in getting romantically involved with Ramon yet afraid of being so involved, Yun writes in Chinese verse, “Without clouds and rain/the friendship won’t last long; With clouds and rain/the friendship won’t last long” (p. 19).

This is a typical “Catch-22” situation. Without getting sexually involved, a woman cannot achieve a full friendship with a man; getting involved, her friendship with him cannot last long, either. Edna Wu here uses the Chinese metaphors of “clouds” and “rain” in reference to the act of sexual intercourse. She deliberately highlights Yun’s bafflement and frustration as to whether she should aggressively pursue Ramon in order to enlarge the confusion and puzzle that
every immigrant, especially a female immigrant, constantly encounters in getting assimilated into this new culture and
country. While sexual freedom is held in high regard in this land of the free, uninvited sexual advances can have
groans with pain and with pleasure, simulating an orgasm.

Edna Wu’s examination of the role of sex continues to be a major part of her theme as she moves forward with her
creative writing. Her second book, Two Eves in the Garden of Eden and a Male Mother (2006), bears much evidence of
that continuation in the two parts of the book, the first part being a screenplay and the second, a play. As explained
earlier, Wu’s screenplay in this book is about two lesbian lovers—a daughter and a daughter-in-law—who are caught in
the act of love-making by their father/father-in-law. Out of fear, and in what they feel as an act of self-defense, they kill
the old man. Although the screenplay is every bit an exploration of sex and sexual freedom, I choose not to go into any
analysis of it because it is set in China, without any resemblance of her other stories that all deal with the immigration of
the female protagonist.

The second tale in the book, “A Male Mother,” is about immigration of a different kind, and therefore very much in
sync with Edna Wu’s overarching theme about sex and sexuality in the new land. The play begins with Allen Morita and
his wife Jenny Morita adopting an infant girl from a Chinese orphanage and ends with the trial for the rape and murder of
that Chinese girl 16 years later. Its melodramatic conclusion has the girl suddenly run into the courtroom very much alive,
thus showing an apparent contrast between the tragedy of real murder in the screenplay of “Two Eves” in China and the
happiness of a grand reunion when the supposedly raped and murdered 16-year-old girl returns safe and sound in “A
Male Mother” in America. This contrast, as Edna Wu wants us to believe, is the result of two strikingly different socio-
political systems: one suppresses sex and sexual expressions of any kind, and the other guarantees freedom of love,
sex, and sexual orientation of their own choosing. The author’s intention is made clear through the words of Meiyin, Allen
Morita’s longtime lover, as she tries to confess to the killing of Alice, the girl whom Allen Morita adopted 16 years ago and
has been mothering ever since:

I am a writer and can be carried away by my imagination. But the imagination is not always beautiful and noble. I have
known Allen intimately for twelve years. Allen loves me mainly because of my free spirit… I was brought up in a
totalitarian society [in China] where people were brainwashed to negate the self and individualism. Since coming to
America in 1980, I have tried to act according to American values. What is feminist assertiveness? What is the concept
of being self-centered? What is individualism? In the final analysis, all are beautified means of hiding selfishness for self-
advancement. In moments of confusion, my dark imagination overtook me. I imagined I knelt in a gold-gilded temple
before the Bodhisattva and wished for the disappearance of Alice and Jenny as they are obstacles to my pursuit of love
and happiness.

......

I admit that my imagination deserves legal punishment because it abuses and kills Alice—the living body of youth,
innocence, and beauty (pp. 93-95).

The reader of the play knows that this is a false confession. It nonetheless summarizes the typical mindset of an
immigrant woman who confuses sex and sexual desire with the pursuit of love and happiness in her adopted land. What
constitutes happiness to Meiyin, the Chinese female immigrant author, is the freedom to “smoke, drink, and date men” (p.
77). Acting upon her narrow, if not misguided, understanding of the American type of happiness, she, as an angel,
pretends to live a single life without men since that appearance makes her look traditional, look Chinese, while in her
secret reality, she is sexually involved with Allen, a married man with an adopted daughter. When conditions permit,
Meiyin openly declares that she is “not an angel” (p. 78) as she appears to be. On the other side of the mirror, she sees
herself every bit as mad as any other woman. Her obsession in love-making with Allen drives her wild with imaginations,
including imaginations to kill his wife and daughter. That is why her confession of hiring a beggar to murder Alice seems credible in the courtroom.

Although less graphic, Edna Wu’s depiction of love and sex remains thematic in her third and last book: A Single-Winged Bird (2010). The title of this book is a rather vague metaphor. Edna Wu wants to use it to convey her lack of love and everything else that love entails, including sex and other acts of intimacy. She makes a contrast between a “double-winged bird” and a “single-winged bird” in a one-way email to her imagined lover later in the book:

“双翼鸟 (her original Chinese without English translation) [or a “double-winged bird” (the translation is my addition)] is perhaps the idealist image of love between a man and a woman. Yet in my life I have always been flying with one wing and this wing is very often in a broken condition. Perhaps, as you see, the only worth of me is perseverance—I will keep flying to my last breath in this world (p. 172).

The author’s intentional mixing of languages and genres is at her freest and most deliberate in this book. Comprised of three parts, the book begins with a collection of poems that appear unrelated to each other. Each one is in both English and Chinese, without any indication as to which was the original and which the translation. The second part is what Edna Wu names “a short novel.” By length, it is more like a short story rather than a novel, again both in Chinese and English. It is written in the form of a diary, each entry dated the 6th of some months from September 6th, 2001 to June 6th, 2002. The diary documents a fifty-one-year imagined love affair between Edna—another coincidence—and DC, both of whom grow to be over a hundred years old in the end. The third part, titled “One-Way Emails” with a very liberal Chinese translation 只见鱼往而不见雁来 (literally “only seeing the fish swimming away without any sight of the geese returning), echoes many of the scenes in the “Riddle” story, with some slight changes of the characters’ names. This time the emails are either in English or Chinese without any translations. Fortunately, the previous story makes it possible for readers who know only either English or Chinese, but not both, to stay on track of the storyline without missing much.

Since the poems in the first part of A Single-Winged Bird are mostly unrelated and without any unified storylines, long and detailed exploration of sexuality seems absent. This is not to say that Edna Wu does not use poetry to express sex and love. In fact almost all of the poems deal with love, with a few suggesting the poet’s sexual longing and frustration. In “Travel the West Heaven along Rowing a Crescent Moon,” for instance, the persona finds herself unable to think or sleep because of sexual cravings. One can very well assume that the “West Heaven” may refer to America and the traveler, a lonely female immigrant. Sleepless, the persona sighs: “Easy to imagine lust/Hard to lust by skin. How I hate the intertwining of this world/I, a born female vagrant, travel the West Heaven alone, rowing a crescent moon” (p. 10). The poet creates a very sad scene of a woman unable to find peace and gratification because of her failure in materializing her maddening “lust by skin.” This is indeed rather pathetic given the length of her repeated quest and repeated failure.

Unlike the loosely clustered poems, the diary in the short story, in contrast to the poems, offers a clear storyline, although the blur between imagination and reality can be a cause for confusion or a source of pleasure depending on the mood of the reader. In one of the middle entries, the diarist tells her reader that she is merely supposed that “DC is an appointed lover, sculptured by my imagination” (p. 120):

On the sixth day of each month, I would go to meet him in Olive Garden, sitting always at the same table in a dim corner. Every time I would order two dinners, but eat alone all by myself amid simpering chuckles, and completely forgetting who I am. I would never ask for a doggie bag, but always give a generous tip before leaving. My oddity must have given the servers an eerie feeling of my mysteriousness. Obviously, magnanimity and mysteriousness have made me the most welcomed diner. On the sixth day of each month, they would take care to leave the compartment table in the corner especially for me. If I failed to appear, there must be more than one person feeling disappointed.

Conversing while dining. My words are voiceless and back flowing. Only he, he alone, can hear through the wires of his sixth sense (p. 120).

What do they talk about according to the narrator’s or the diarist’s, imagination? What else except love, romance, and love-making? Although gone are the graphic expressions of sex and straightforward references to the human genitals as were often the case in Clouds and Rain, scenes of sexual acts still dominate the diary entries. Take the April 6th, 2002, entry for example. The reader is presented with an intoxicating scene of how the two lovers drop “into that unknown realm of senses” when the “two drenched chicks staggered across the huge kitchen into the indoor spa,” “I rub[bing] his back and he massag[ing] my neck and shoulders” (p. 122). The December 6th entry of the same year depicts a similar scene of intense love-making, except that it is more subtle and more artistically done with the author’s
use of the metaphor Xtreme Trek joyride in Magic Mountain, but the familiarity of sexual pleasure and orgasm is inescapable:

I shut my eyes obediently like a timid child. Let the flying churning revolving chair throw me up into the sky and then dump me back to the ground. I was being tortured in unimaginable ways back and forth, left and right, front and behind, top and bottom, spinning like a helpless spindle. I was a tiny boat in a stormy night, completely losing its direction. I was screaming at the top of my voice and howling desperately as if the world met its judgment day. Screaming, hysterical screaming. Only such scream can relax every nerve of intensive love. Die, let me die like this. Let me die like a fool in the surging waves of the love sea. Only being such a fool can you fully enjoy the thrills of the most dangerous game (p. 135).

The one-way emails that make up the third part of A Single-Winged Bird seem to retell the story of “A Riddle”, the 51 years of romance between Edna and DC. This time, instead of focusing on the diarist or the narrator, the emails have an assumed one-member audience: first DC, as in the previous story, later on C. In spite of the email writer’s repeated claim that it is their intellectual unison that makes her want to email him and be with him, physical gratification still plays a big part in their relationship. Even though her emails go unanswered, she continues to fantasize about the love they share. She tries desperately to make it clear to him that she needs him body and soul. In one email, written in Chinese without any translation, she tells him one of her affairs that lasted for over six years:

Edna 说她和一位男士保持五六年的关系, 全是他的功劳。他住在地球的另一边，一个月大概能见一两 次面。但他一年三百六十五天，天天打电话，随时互通情报。他简直 成了他们之间感情的温度计， Edna 稍有冷漠他便有察觉，不是自我调整，便是提出让对方调整。虽然交流重要，游戏更重要。那位 是不会玩游戏，只会床上运动，于是他们俩的关系濒于有首无身，Edna 时常陷入孤独 (164-165).

In a nutshell, this Chinese email reveals Edna’s love affair with a man who can only talk to her on the phone and make love to her once or twice a month. Not being together with him all the time leaves her feel that the love affair is only focused on the body, not on the mind. That is why she wants to be with C, the intended email recipient. From a different perspective, the above quote also highlights Edna Wu’s theme that nothing works in the old world of China. Sex is no exception. In spite of the man’s daily phone calls and his powerful moves in bed, the sexual and love relationship simply cannot sustain itself. To fulfill her bodily desires and emotional longings, her female narrator must immigrate to the new land where everything promises to be free, abundant, and gratifying.

Ironically, she is fairing no better in the new land because, her emails being only one way, her love is not being reciprocated. In the end, she remains bitterly disappointed. In spite of her decades of perseverance in chasing love, in seeking sexual freedom and fulfillment, and in indulging herself in the process of her quest as she tries to settle in in this new land, she still finds herself “a single-winged bird.” Her disappointment, however, does not mean that she regrets her passage to America. Perhaps Edna Wu simply wants her female narrator Edna to tell the reader that uprooting oneself from her homeland to set up a new home in this adopted country will take much longer than expected. So let the pursuit continue. The process, however baffling, is what must be observed, documented, and perhaps even enjoyed and celebrated in its own right.

References


Re-Assessing the Cultivation Theory in Relation to Critics: Research Made Through Positive and Negative Patterned Questionnaires

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Abstract

In terms of cultivation analysis, cultivation concept explains the contribution of television watching to global perception and social reality conceptualization of the viewers (Morgan, 1984: 500). In the first cultivation study, the theory was defined as the random and unintentional learning, and unconscious gaining of demographic realities of television world by the viewers (Gerbner and Gross, 1976: 170). Cultivation analysis examines the relationship between the most recurrent and expansive images and ideologies in television content with the social reality conceptualization of the viewers (Gerbner et al., 1980; Morgan and Signorielli, 1990). The component focuses on the overall results of growing up and living with television. The research of the article based on the conceptualized criticism called participant bias in the cultivation studies carried out by George Gerbner and his friends has been conducted at Ankara Kurtuluş High School. In the field research, in parallel to the purpose, negative patterned questions reflecting the television world used by Gerbner and his friends, and the positive variations of these are used; in the analysis whether the two groups with the same indicators gave the same answers to each question has been studied. The results seem to be confirming Gerbner and his friends.

1. Introduction

The research of this article is based on the conceptualized criticism called participant bias in the cultivation studies carried out by George Gerbner et al. and has been conducted at Ankara Kurtuluş High School. In the field research, in parallel to the purpose, negative patterned questions reflecting the television world used by Gerbner et al., and the positive variations of these are used; in the analysis whether the two groups with the same indicators gave the same answers to each question has been studied.

2. Cultural Indicators Project

With the surveys conducted for Cultural Indicators Project, Gerbner attempted to put forth the proof regarding his belief that mass communication media are an arm of established industrial order. The Project, also referred to as Cultivation theory, involves a three-pronged research strategy. The first strategy known as the institutional process analysis investigates how the flow of media messages is produced and managed, how decisions are made, and how media organisations function. (Gerbner, 1973)

The second prong, message system analysis, is important as it addresses the questions establishing cultivation analysis. The questions used in cultivation analysis reflect from content profiles that have settled in television message system presented to vast viewer groups throughout a long period of time since babyhood (Gerbner, 1990: 253). Any kind of misanalysis here would simply lead to false results in field research.

Message system analysis identifies how communities are formed through mass communication process, what the most shared dispositions and propositions are (Morgan, 1995: 107). To Gerbner, any message is a socially and historically determined expression of concrete physical and social relationships. Messages imply propositions, assumptions and points of view that are understandable only in terms of the social relationships and contexts in which they are produced. Yet they also reconstitute those relationships and contexts. Messages thus sustain the structures and practices that produce them (Morgan, 1995: 104).

There are many critical discrepancies between the world and the world as portrayed on television (Gerbner et al., 1994: 25). Findings from systematic analyses of television’s message systems manifest those discrepancies. Message system analysis identifies the most recurrent, stable, and overarching patterns of television content. These are the consistent images, portrayals, and values that cut across most types of programs and are virtually inescapable for heavy
viewers. They are the aggregate messages embedded in television as a system rather than in specific programs, types, channels, or genres (Gerbner et al., 1986).

The third prong, cultivation analysis, is used to define the television’s contribution to viewers’ social reality conceptualisation (Morgan, 1984: 500). In the first cultivation research the fact that viewers unconsciously obtain demographic realities of the television world is defined as random and indeliberate learning (Gerbner and Gross, 1976: 170). Cultivation analysis examines the relationship between viewers’ social reality conceptions and most repetitive and long-range images and ideologies (Gerbner et al., 1980a; Morgan and Signorielli, 1990). The prong focuses on overall results of growing up and living with television.

Cultivation analysis was first conducted in early 1970s, with a field research targeting adults (Gerbner and Gross, 1976). In its simplest form, cultivation analysis suggests that heavy viewers of television perceive the most common and recurrent television world messages as an accurate depiction of the real world. It compares the answers of light viewers and heavy viewers using demographic variables as controls (Morgan and Signorielli, 1990: 16).

In this part, it is necessary to emphasise a point that is also important in terms of the research. Gerbner et al. postulate that exposure to violence on television leads to a “mean world” perception.

3. Research on the Cultivation Role of Television in Turkey

Some researches defining the world of television based on all or some of the components of Cultural Indicators Project, developed by George Gerbner in the USA, focusing on the (cultivation) role of television on the social reality conceptualization and the world perception of people have also been conducted in Turkey. The first of these was the subject of the doctoral dissertation by Veysel Batmaz (1986) in the early mid-1980s. In the study, only a cultivation analysis was made, and the role of television was seen in the commercials, but not in the violent acts. The study not only conducted a cultivation analysis but it also highlighted some different aspects. In that sense, it is necessary to identify it as a model experiment.

Around the time when Batmaz completed his dissertation, Konca Yumlu substantially made use of Gerbner’s project in her doctoral dissertation and revealed the television content (Yumlu, 1987).

In another research carried out in the early 1990s and published in 1995, both message system and cultivation analyses were used and the role of television was determined (Batmaz and Aksoy, 1995). This research has a unique importance as it centres around Turkey, and other than using message system and cultivation analysis, it also reveals to what extent television is used in Turkey (as part of daily life).

In 2000s, in a study that has used all three prongs, it is determined that television has a role of cultivation on university students (Özer, 2004). In this research, for the first time in Turkey, institutional process, message system, and cultivation analyses were used together and the role of cultivated messages of televised world on people was questioned. It was concluded that television does have such a role, and also institutional process analyses, which proved that the cultivated messages of television were not randomly prepared, were also made.

Following this research, which revealed the cultivational role of television on students, in another research with a different group of university students, it was concluded that television does not have a cultivational role (Özer, 2005c). In another research examining whether violence comes from immediate surroundings or television, it was concluded that cultivation relates to television (Özer, 2005). In a research examining the cultivational role of television on employees also produced proof to assert cultivation (Özer, 2005a). Another research on university graduate employees also displayed similar results (Özer, 2005b). In a recent doctoral dissertation only cultivation analysis was used (Taylan, 2011).

4. Criticisms of the Studies of Gerbner and His Friends

Many researchers criticised the studies of Gerbner et al. in terms of Message System and Cultivation Analyses from the starting point until mid-1980s. A summary of these criticisms was presented by Rubin et al. (1988). In 1990s, Potter (1991; 1991a; 1991b) also made some criticisms. In Turkey, there has not been a substantial criticism of Gerbner’s ideas and his project (Erdoğan: 1998). Under this title some of the criticisms are reminded:

Newcomb criticised them for using an arbitrary violence conceptualisation (transferred by Shanahan and Morgan, 1999). According to Morgan and Shanahan (1997: 10), who are among the foremost representatives of Cultivation research, although Newcombs’ approach is correct, it does not contradict with the proposals of Cultivation Analysis.

Criticisms towards the definition of violence by Gerbner et al. are directed to the fact that images containing natural disasters and such are also considered part of violence. Furthermore, Gerbner et al. received criticisms for founding their definition of violence on a “narrow sense confined with physical actions” (Çelik, 2000:12).
One of the other criticisms of Cultivation Analysis can be called as other variables problem. The most known of these came from Hirsch. Between Gerbner et al. and Hirsch harsh disputes took place in the form of claim (accusation)-response (accusation) \((\text{Hirsch, 1980, 1981; Gerbner et al., 1980, 1980a, 1982})\). In response to Hughes and others' criticisms, Gerbner and his associates pioneered the factors of "mainstreaming".

Cultivation Analysis also received criticism in terms of individual differences from Gunter and Wober. On the other hand, the media-effect researches on its contribution to socialisation remain distant to the hypothesis of Cultivation Analysis that "there is a correlation between television viewing and negative socialisation, and individual perceptions". These criticisms were made by Robert and Maccoby (transferred by Rubin et al., 1998).

Cultivation Analysis of Gebner et al. was also criticised for its hypothesis that admits the relationship between television viewing and cultivation could only be fake or explained by other factors. This is called fake relationship. This criticism comes from Doob and Mcdonald (1979).

Gebner et al. suggest that television is unique in its presentation symbolic messages about the society. This view was criticised by Hawkins and Pingree (1981: 297): Cultivation can be associated with some television content, but not with some others and total viewing. Besides, Slater and Elliot (transferred by Rubin et al., 1988) criticise cultivation theory for not proving that viewers accept the television reality. Some researchers reminding the criticism made by Lenski and Luggett that claims Srole’s alienation scale is sensitive to ‘I agree’ response set criticised Gebner et al. who used the scale (transferred by Rubin et al., 1988: 110).

Following information can be related in terms of the criticism that forms the basis of the study: Hirsch and some other researchers argue viewer bias could foster cultivation. That’s why; negatively constructed survey questions are more likely to produce a result more than the positive ones. Hughes pointed out the same issue. Wober discovered different cultivation questions lead to different results. An English case research demonstrated that questions on interpersonal distrust and interpersonal trust problems did not give the same results. As a result of a research they conducted on 2nd grade Australian primary schoolchildren, Hawkins and Pingree found that only a survey with negative questions is related to television viewing (Transferred by Rubin et al., 1988: 110).

5. Methodology

The field research was carried out at Kurtuluş High School in Ankara. For each survey group (negative and positive) 90 students took part. 45 of them were girls, 45 were boys. 6 questions were used for the field research. The survey with negative questions was given to one group; the other one with the positive varieties was given to the other group. Here are the questions used in the field research:

1. “Generally speaking, we live in a dangerous/safe world.”
2. “Generally speaking, people are unreliable/reliable.”
3. “Generally speaking, many people behave dishonestly/honestly and try/do not try to take advantage of you when they find the opportunity.”
4. “Generally speaking, people usually do not help/help others; they act selfishly/unselfishly.”
5. “Generally speaking, walking out alone at night is dangerous/safe.”
6. “Generally speaking, most people do not feel safe/feel safe.”

SPSS has been used to evaluate the data. The medians of questions were found in accordance with the aim of the study. Median is the central tendency measure. In such kind of researches, of the three measures of central tendency, which are mean, median and mode, median is the main determiner along with mean. Mode and average also give an idea. However, median gives where a particular group stands: 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5. Mode shows which category is the most chosen one.

In terms of evaluation, each question is expected to give the same median with both negative and positive questions. The same medians have falsified the criticisms; different medians have justified the criticisms.

6. Findings

In order to understand the results, a point should be emphasized. In two tables there are 6 categories. In each category, the words interrelate with each other. For instance, in Table 1 the word “safe” represents the positive variation of the question; and in Table 2 the same word represents the negative variation. Expectedly, if the median is 1 in one of the tables, in the other one it should be 5. For 2, 4 is expected; for 3, again 3 is expected.

**Table 1**: Medians of Positive Variation Questions
The medians of the first and sixth questions came out differently. The medians of the second, third, fourth and fifth questions corresponded to each other. As a result, it is seen that the responses for positive and negative questions are the same in four questions whereas the responses for two questions are different (Table 1 and 2). Therefore, in terms of 6 questions there is a 67 % of correspondence. It is, thus, possible to suggest that cultivation tests are valid for 67 %. Nevertheless, this could be valid only for a cultivation research to be conducted at Kurtuluş High School. A more acceptable evaluation could be explained as follows: for a cultivation research to be conducted at Kurtuluş High School, using questions 2, 3, 4, and 5 would eliminate the participant bias criticism.

7. Conclusion

In this study, the criticism conceptualised as participant bias and directed at Cultivation researches developed by Gerbner et al. has been examined. For the validity of the abovementioned criticism, the results of the research with negative and positive-patterned questions are analysed. The research does not generalise. The results did not completely verify the criticism. The medians for two questions did not match. 4 medians out of 6 matched with each other. These results could suggest that participant bias is relative.

Two suggestions can be made in the light of this research: In Turkey, the number of Cultivation researches has increased despite the limited number researchers. The number, however, is still not adequate especially when the fact that Cultivation researches should be carried out constantly is considered. Furthermore, the researches could also relate to the other criticisms of Cultivation Analysis. Finally, conducting cultivation researches regarding the new media would be quite beneficial.

References


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The Corsican Mazzeru at the Dawn of XXI E Century:  
The End of a Shape of Shamanism?

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Abstract

The mazzeru or the mazzera is a key character of the Corsican society, he is at the same time an intermediary psychopompe and an actor of the symbolic passage of the land of the living towards the world of the deaths. In Corsica, the said person mazzeru is a very real individual being a member of the community, which dreams mostly about a hunting during its sleep. During this dream, he brings (shoots) down an animal; at this precise moment his function of intermediary of the worlds, boatman of souls, is going to become a reality because when he turns the animal, the head represents a person who will soon die. This intermediary of the worlds is situated in the sociopolitical limits of the villages of the island, his powers him being similar in a genre of chamane. In Corsica, this phenomenon seems to have resisted partially the christianization and the numerous religious prohibitions, which were able neither to cover completely this archaic religion, nor to transform it. The mazzeru is situated after all in the center of a vision meadow and post-mortem specific, which makes perceive (collect) the death as a passage. We shall develop our reflection around the testimonies, the evolutions of this survival and the problem of its transmission at the time of the globalization.

Il est admis que la prise en compte de la mort remonte à la préhistoire : dès lors que l’homme prend soin de la dépouille et ritualise, par un enterrement la gestion du corps, l’acte va s’accompagner également de la gestion de l’au de là, de la prise de conscience d’une possibilité d’une vie autre. Ainsi on va réserver aux morts des espaces particuliers, la plupart du temps proche de l’espace des vivants mais bel et bien délimités ; des temps différents vont également être perçus comme des jonctions entre un monde et l’autre, lesquels semblent entrelacés et non séparés. On sait aujourd’hui qu’en plus d’un certain nombre de rituels liés à la préparation du corps (ocre rouge) comme à la mise en terre (position, choix du lieu, présence de pollens supposant l’ajout de fleur avant la fermeture de la tombe ou la mise en terre), des outils, des ornements, des « armes », et même des mandibules et des ossements d’animaux accompagnaient le défunt vers son autre monde.

En Corse, une croyance concernant la composition de l’être humain met en évidence cette gestion du passage de la vie à mort, d’un espace à un autre, d’un monde à l’autre. En effet, on considère que l’être humain est composé de trois « corps » : u corpu à sali, le corps physique, ou l’enveloppe carnée, u corpu à spiritu, l’esprit , et l’anima, l’âme ; le corps de chair, tangible, est celui qui nous représente dans le monde des vivants, l’esprit est notre représentation dans le monde des rêves mais également lors du passage ultime dans l’autre monde, sorte de véhicule permettant à l’âme le franchissement vers l’Altru Latu, l’autre côté, l’Autre Monde, l’âme étant notre représentation dans l’au-delà. Ce rôle de passeur est endossé par un être désigné par le terme mazzeru, qui deviendra générique au fil du temps ; il désigne donc un personnage au rôle psychopompe, c’est à dire qui a le devoir (ou le don ?) de guider l’esprit vers le monde des morts, de permettre ce franchissement vers l’autre côté. Nous considérons par cet acte de séparation que le corps, ainsi privé de son âme ne peut plus vivre, le passage définitif provoque alors la mort du corps physique. En s’éveillant, le mazzeru retrouve son esprit, il peut ainsi se remémorer son rêve et comprendre ainsi qui va mourir. Si on peut considérer de manière simpliste que le mazzeru possède le don de voir la mort en rêve, il convient de souligner que son rôle consiste plus précisément à détacher la vie du vivant, de conduire l’âme du mort dans l’Autre Monde.

Le mot mazzeru découle sans doute de mazza, massue ou maillet, outil de bois qui rappelle l’ancienne pratique consistant à assommer le moribond afin de l’aider à franchir lorsque l’âme passée, le corps tarde à s’étendre. Ammazzà, tuer reprend également cette idée d’assommoir.

Plusieurs termes employés pour désigner cet initié lié à la mort nous amènent aussi vers l’idée de guerrier : u
lancieru, le lancier, tout comme les termes de culpadori et acciaccadori participent également à la réputation de tueur qu’endosse u mazzeru.

Ainsi, de nombreux rêves symboliques rapportent des scènes de chasse où le mazzeru, retournant le corps de l’animal qu’il vient d’abattre, reconnaît la personne qui va mourir. L’aspect violent, sanglant prend aussi une forme plus conviviale par le biais d’un autre type de rêve mettant en scène également une pratique culturelle réelle, celle du repas de deuil. A manghjaria désigne ainsi le repas où se retrouvent la famille et les alliés du défunt ; on tuait, à cette occasion, un veau ou un cochon selon la région ou la saison. Le pendant rêvé est désigné par le même terme et met en scène une tablée où se retrouvent en esprits les mazzeri. Ils y consomment également de la viande, parfois crue ou bien des racines. Il s’agit ici de la représentation du corps du défunt à venir ainsi partagé et ingéré par la communauté. L’Eglise a d’ailleurs tenté d’interdire le repas de deuil justement à cause de cet aspect symbolique. Cependant, il s’agit des types de rêves les plus fréquents, la forme que peuvent revêtir ces « prémonitions », restent intimement liées à la personne qui rêve, à celle dont elle rêvé, chacune s’appuie sur un système symbolique propre, parfois fort difficile à expliquer. Le mort peut être une personne qui franchit un cours d’eau ou bien qui gravit une colline, ce peut être une flèche tirée d’on ne sait où, ou encore la pierre que l’on jette au fond d’un pozzu, d’un trou d’eau, ou bien encore l’animal qui s’enfuit et disparaît, plusieurs fois de suite et toujours en un espace symbolique ou ayant une importance pour la personne qui doit mourir ; c’est au réveil, à partir de ces indices, de ces messages qu’u mazzeru va justement comprendre qui va mourir. Celui qui agit et qui a accès à ce monde sait interpréter et faire la différence entre un rêve ordinaire et un rêve que l’on qualifie de manière inappropriée de « prémonitoire ». En effet le terme de prémonition ne peut résumer le sens des rêves des mazzeri. Il signifie avertissement, pressentiment et intuition, il a le sens de deviner l’avenir, de voir avant. Ce sens est en fait incomplet car il ne permet pas d’exprimer qu’il y a, au delà de la vision rêvée d’un futur, un acte qui initie ce futur en même temps qu’il l’indique à celui qui rêve et donc qui le commet. Le mazzeru agit sur l’esprit, puis l’âme, ce qui a des conséquences sur le corps physique de la personne représentée en rêve. Le fait de comprendre un rêve est bien une prémonition, mais ce terme est la finalité de tout un processus actif qui renvoie à l’inconscient et n’englobe donc pas la réalité rêvée, et la symbolique qui en découle.

Le mazzeru prend aussi une dimension plus grande encore dès lors qu’il endosse le rôle de meneur. Il dirige à Cumpagnia di i morti ou a Squadra d’Arozza, qui sont les processions venues pour chercher l’esprit de celui qui doit mourir afin de le conduire aux portes du monde des morts. Il s’agit ici d’une parodie d’enterrement, et il faut arrêter la procession aux ports de l’église afin de sauver la personne concernée. Il est également conseillé de ne pas se saisir d’un éventuel objet tendu par l’un des confrères (un cierge la plupart du temps) car cet acte enclenche alors le début d’une initiation, l’homme se retrouve « condamné » à sortir en esprit, participant aux processions, allant chercher les siens afin des les guider jusqu’aux frontières de l’au delà. Celui qui dirige cette confrérie composée de morts, d’esprits et d’animi in pena, l’âme des morts sans sépulture est désignée par le terme de Capistrigono. Le terme stironu ou strigonu, dérive de streia, stria ou strega dont nous allons définir le rôle plus loin. Il signifie « sorcier », cette entité étant aussi désignée de différentes manières et renvoie également aux différentes dénominations du mazzeru, tout comme magu et ses dérivés - maga, magnou, magaccia.

Le regroupement de différentes forces, de différentes entités se retrouve également dans les mandraghi, les batailles nocturnes. Il s’agit des batailles opposant les mazzeri des villages rivaux et qui ont lieu dans la nuit du trente et un juillet au premier août, i mazzeri combattent les uns contre les autres, souvent à l’aide du tarabuchju, l’asphodèle, et l’issue du combat déterminera le village qui perdra le moins d’âmes dans l’année et la qualité comme la quantité des récoltes. On remarque que ce combat symbolique dans le monde des rêves a des effets dans la réalité ainsi qu’une alliance Vie/Mort concrétisée par l’enjeu des moissons et de la « fin » humaine, et qui illustre bien l’ambivalence du mazzeru. De ce fait, n’est pas seulement lié à la Mort, mais également à la Vie, indissociables moments formant le Destin.

Pour résumer le rôle du mazzeru, on soulignera le fait qu’il n’est pas de tuer, mais d’aider au passage, au

1 Cancellieri J.A. Bulletin de la société des sciences historiques et naturelles de la Corse n° 652, 1985
2 Ces processions s’apparentent à la Compagnie Hennecquin, ou Hellequin de la tradition française représentant le cortège des morts mené par un personnage à figure humaine, vêtu de peaux de bouc, de chèvre ou de loup.
3 Cet terme renvoie aussi au masque, rejoignant la notion de double, puisque le masque montre, d’une certaine manière l’autre visage de l’humain, la révélation de son inconscient.
franchissement, car c'est de ce moment que dépendra la vie dans l'au-delà. La religion chrétienne nous dit que c'est la vie sur Terre qui détermine la place de l'Homme dans l'autre monde, elle met ainsi en place de nombreux devoirs et interdits qui, s'ils sont respectés assurent un au-delà paradisiaque. Les religiosités pré-chrétiennes expliquent que c'est aussi le passage qui détermine le repos de l'âme, même si la vie humaine l'influence aussi. La punition, c'est d'errer sur Terre, entre deux mondes, sans attache, et c'est ce qui se passe si le mazzéru fait mal son travail, si on le dérange dans son sommeil actif.

Autre personnage psychopompe, le Strega, la sorcière, est donc également un être humain qui a la capacité de se dédoubler ; de la même manière que les mazzeri, elle a un sommeil actif, pendant lequel son esprit quitte son corps pour se rendre aux frontières entre les mondes. Elle fait partie elle aussi de la compagnie des morts-, que mène u capistrigounu. Il s'agit donc d'un être intermédiaire qui se situe aux endroits de franchissements comme les ponts, les cols, les cours d’eau, les pozzi ; mais contrairement au mazzéru qui semble subir le don qu'il possède sans pratiquement aucun moyen de le maîtriser, il est dit que la strega semble capable de maîtriser ses agissements nocturnes lorsqu'elle sort en esprit.

C'est un personnage semblable à d'autres intermédiaires perçu de par ce fait par la communauté de manière plus négative. On l’accuse d'ailleurs de boire le sang des nouveau-nés, cette pratique vampire lui servant à se régénérer. A contrario, elle est aussi guérisseuse. Son rôle est donc très ambigu, car si elle voit la mort, si même elle la provoque, et qu'elle attaque volontairement sa proie comme un animal, elle est aussi capable de soigner, et est sollicitée au besoin. Elle provoque aussi bien effroi que fascination et reste moins bien intégrée dans la société que le mazzérù même si pour tous les deux, le don de voyager entre les mondes est mal perçu. Nous l'avons vu, l'Eglise a contribué à créer la croyance que le fait d'avoir cette capacité de circuler découle d'un baptême non valide. En effet, des paroles mal prononcées, un oubli du curé peuvent faire que le nouveau-né n’entre pas entièrement dans la société des hommes, puisque tel est le but du baptême. Ainsi il erre entre deux mondes et « subit », du moins pour l'Eglise, sa capacité à franchir les limites entre les mondes. Le don de « voir » est compris comme un maléfice, véritable manifestation du Malin que certaines prières peuvent atténuer, du moins pour un temps. Or on soupçonne la strega de tuer volontairement, « consciemment », de jeter des sorts.

I mazzeri et i s'drei de Corse, les strugi de Slovénie, les Molphars des Carpates, les chamans sibériens, africains ou amazoniens, les hommes-médecine d’Amérique nord, i benandanti du Friul, i lupi mannari, les loups-garous, l’architi de Sardaigne, quels que soient les noms qu’on leur donne, tous appartiennent à la même catégorie universelle, celle des guérisseurs et de ceux qui voient au delà du visible. Ce qui peut aujourd’hui disparaître, c’est simplement le savoir qui accompagne ces actes nocturnes. Effacer certaines croyances, en détourner d’autres, les diaboliser, permet à l’Eglise de confisquer les outils qui permettent d’interpréter les rêves symboliques mais pas d’empêcher que ces rêves aient lieu, ceci afin d’imposer ses propres règles et d’être l’unique intermédiaire entre en bas et en haut.


Comment peut-on définir le « mazzérù » ou la « mazzera » ? Personnage clé de la société corse, il est à la fois un intermédiaire et un acteur du passage symbolique du monde des vivants vers le monde des morts. En Corse, la personne qui est dite « mazzérù » ou « mazzera » est un individu bien réel, homme ou femme, faisant partie de la communauté, qui rêve le plus souvent d’une chasse pendant son sommeil, de là l’analogie faite avec le chaman, qui lui, peut cumuler plusieurs fonctions : prêtre, sorcier, magicien, devin, et guérisseur traditionnel.

Lors de ce rêve, le « mazzérù » chasse ou participe à une battue collective, abat un animal, le plus souvent un sanglier, et il est vrai qu’en Corse la battue au sanglier est remarquable dans son interaction profonde avec l’imaginaire collectif. Au poste de sanglier, le chasseur doit faire face à l'imprévisible, c'est un face à face avec la mort qu'il va donner, en ce sens le parallèle avec la chasse du mazzérù, personne de la communauté qui voit l’avenir dans des rêves, est logique. Certains ressentent la rencontre avec l'animal comme une rencontre avec la mort, le destin. Dans la pratique, chaque chasseur est posté à un endroit de passage, a posta, lieu de franchissement où aboutissent l'andati, les sentiers tracés par les sangliers, endroits où se rejoignent le maximum de voies propres aux animaux, lieu du choix et de la rencontre avec le destin.

Certains témoignages mentionnent également d’autres animaux : chien, lapin, cochin, etc...C’est à ce moment précis que la fonction d’intermédiaire entre les mondes, de passeur d’âmes va se concrétiser car lorsque le « mazzérù » retourne l’animal, sa tête représente un proche de la famille, du village, une personne qui est « la victime » choisie par le destin, lors du rêve de cette chasse nocturne. Mais le mazzérù a également une fonction salvatrice et peut ainsi
sauver la future victime en l’empêchant de franchir l’entrée d’une église ou en faisant retourner le cercueil d’un enterrement fantasté en s’asseyant devant la porte de sa maison.

Le « mazzérisme » est un mot créé par Roccu Multedo à partir du mot corse « mazzeru », ainsi le phénomène à proprement dit des mazzeri peut-être donc apparenté à une certaine forme de chamanism, tout en sachant que le chamaniisme connait de nombreuses variantes sur la surface de la terre. Ce phénomène du ‘mazzérisme’ en Corse semble avoir résisté en partie à la christianisation, aux nombreux interdits religieux, qui n’ont pu ni recouvrir complètement cette religion archaïque, ni la transformer.

En vérité, nous ne sommes pas ici en présence d’un sorcier chaman traditionnel revêtu d’une peau d’animal ou d’un vêtement comportant des symboles représentant un animal. Mais la relation homme-animal y est bien présente puisque le mazzeru peut prendre la forme d’un animal lors d’une rencontre avec l’humain, jouant alors son rôle d’accompagnateur dans l’autre monde.

Tel le chaman il s’affirme comme un intermédiaire entre les hommes et les esprits, et sa relation avec l’animal et la nature est particulière. Il voit un animal mort lors de ses visions mais peut très bien se transformer en animal (chat, chien, renard) lors de sa rencontre au seuil des mondes avec la victime.

Comment devient-on mazzeru ? Plusieurs hypothèses sont évoquées. On mentionne tout d’abord une erreur de prononciation des prières de la part du parrain ou de la marraine pendant le baptême de celui qui deviendra effectivement mazzeru, ou alors un don inné que l’on ne peut esquiver, car le mazzeru ne peut aller contre le choix du destin. De même au Frioul, ceux qui naissaient coiffés c’est-à-dire recouverts de la membrane amniotique, ne pouvaient échapper à leur fonction de benandante, celle de voyager en esprit pour lutter contre les mauvais sorciers, les malandanti. Le mazzeru n’est pas responsable de la mort de la victime qu’il aperçoit lors de sa chasse, il assume cependant sa fonction de régulateur de la mort, car il l’accompagne.

Certains témoignages émettent l’hypothèse d’une véritable initiation comme dans les sociétés secrètes, mais on dispose de peu d’éléments à l’heure actuelle pour étayer cette version. Enfin on évoque une affiliation par le rêve, ce qui le rapproche d’une vérité la plus forte de la définition commune du chamani. Mais ce sont des personnes ayant toutes les prédispositions innées à exercer cette fonction, ce pouvoir psychopompe.

Ainsi à travers des lieux propices au franchissement, à la métamorphose, finalement à la périphérie du changement, apparaissent ces êtres de la limite, des personnes détenant un pouvoir, exerçant une fonction, activant ce ‘franchissement’ par une métamorphose en chat ou en chien.

Les mazzeri (hommes et femmes) se déplaçant souvent en société, sont censés être accompagnés de leur meute de chiens, toujours dans le but de chasser. Des témoignages évoquent précisément toutes les modalités d’une battue au sanglier, son organisation nocturne en rêve est la réplique d’une vrai battue avec des mazzeri chargés de rabattre le gibier, d’autres faisant les voix, et les mazzeri tireurs qui tuent l’animal lors du franchissement du poste qui bien évidemment est dans ce cas un passage des mondes tout à fait symbolique.

Cet intermédiaire des mondes va se situer aux lieux de franchissement, aux crêtes et aux limites sociopolitiques des villages ou dans les fleuves. Toutes ces limites sont des crêtes de montagnes, des cours d’eau, des gué, des ponts, et donc considérés comme des espaces de transition et de conflits entre les mondes.

Le mazzeru se situe en définitive au centre d’une vision pré et post mortem spécifique, qui fait percevoir la mort comme un passage, sans doute les traces d’une religion archaïque bien plus importante, avec tout un complexe de croyances associées : feux rituels, purifications, batailles symboliques annuelles, culte de l’ancestralité.

Sa fonction de véritable régulateur de la mort apparait de manière significative à travers les croyances de la « Calendula d’aostu » ou « Mandraca » de la nuit du 31 juillet qui voit s’opposer lors de luttes imaginaires, les mazzeri de villages et régions différentes. Cette croyance transmise par de nombreuses générations, mentionne une lutte annuelle collective de sociétés de mazzeri.

L’enjeu est de taille : il s’agit d’une bataille fictive en rêve où les mazzeri sont les représentants de leur communauté qui vont lutter pour la survie des lignées de leur groupe. Les affrontements ont pour cadre les espaces délimitant les régions ou villages, en général les cols de franchissement des vallées proches. Ces seuils sont bien évidemment des entrées symboliques faisant communiquer le monde des vivants avec l’au-delà du monde des morts.

Lors de ces batailles annuelles qui se déroulent dans la Corse entière, la mortalité sera plus forte dans le camp des perdants. D’après la tradition orale, c’est la direction prise par le brouillard matinal qui annonçait la victoire d’un camp ou de l’autre. Ainsi, le signal indiquant le camp victorieux est constitué par un signe naturel, le sens de la fumée qui descend du col principal de la vallée vers un camp ou vers l’autre.

La date n’est pas anodine, les batailles ont lieu dans la nuit du 31 juillet au 1er août, époque la plus forte de la canicule d’été, période propice à toute perte de limite depuis les temps les plus reculés. Cette date correspond à la conjonction symbolique des mondes des vivants et des morts, un espace flou, en rupture, véritable moment chamanière de
l’année similaire au 1er novembre, période de la fête des morts.

Agissant au nom de la communauté villageoise ou de la vallée qu’elles représentent, les sociétés de mazzeri sont engagées dans des batailles fictives sur les points culminants des montagnes. Peut-être que la bataille est analogiquement comparable à l’initiation des bouriates de Sibérie constituée par l’ascension d’un arbre qui est symboliquement l’axe du monde, acte rituel indiquant l’entrée du chaman dans sa fonction, et donc une ascension mythique le long de l’axe du monde.

Ces batailles connaissent une grande variété linguistique au niveau de leur appellation : a mandraca, a battaglia di i mazzeri, a calendula, parfois a battaglia di i morti. Il faut dire que de nombreux toponymes cadastrés et connus de la tradition orale évoquent les lieux de ces batailles et confirment l’existence de la croyance : A Bocca à a Catarazza (le Col de la bataille), A Bocca à a Catarazza (le col de la trappe, lieu de passage symbolique) ainsi que beaucoup d’autres. On remarquera d’ailleurs que plusieurs de ces cols ont sans doute été christianisés et portent fréquemment le vocable de Saint Pierre.

Le lieu et la date sont fondamentaux, les batailles fictives se situent sur les sommets des montagnes séparant les communautés, aux limites sociopolitiques des villages et vallées. Car la rencontre avec le mazzeru a lieu en général dans des lieux de franchissement : ponts, gués, fleuves, entrées d’églises, crêtes, il est un passeur symbolique entre les mondes.

Lors de ces batailles nocturnes, les mazzeri s’affrontent avec des tiges d’asphodèles, ou même d’autres plantes, comme l’osier, selon la variété des témoignages dont on dispose dans les microrégions de l’île. Dans le village d’U Salice c’est l’immortelle qui est utilisée le même soir mais cette fois par les villageois dans un but de purification et de protection contre les mazzeri. On mentionne également des tibias, des os ou des bouts de bois utilisés lors de ces batailles cycliques.

L’asphodèle qui revient le plus souvent est évidemment lié symboliquement à la mort, il était planté près des tombes en Grèce, la Plaine des asphodèles était le lieu où la majorité des morts y demeuraient pour l’éternité.

Pendant la nuit de la bataille du 31 juillet, il y a un rituel du feu qui est une pratique à la fois de purification et de protection. Ce feu dénommé *U focu di i mazzeri* est allumé devant les portes ou sur la place de l’église dans les villages, soit pour que les mazzeri puissent voir leur chemin, soit pour les expulser de la communauté ennemie, ou bien encore pour que les mazzeri vaincus puissent venir se régénérer à ce feu collectif. C’est qu’ici tout est ambivalence et le feu est un rite qui renforce la perméabilité entre les deux mondes, celui des morts et celui des vivants.

Le mazzeru est un personnage central de la tradition corse, dont certaines fonctions ont peut-être disparu, il est au centre d’un ensemble culturel plus complexe dont on ne sait plus l’importance aujourd’hui. La polyvalence d’attributions et les pouvoirs du mazzeru l’apparentent à un genre de chaman : il peut prédire, chasser dans ses rêves, se transformer en animal, guérir et l’on notera la permanence de son pouvoir psychopompe. Son côté passif lors des rêves de chasse ne peut occulter cette fonction active qui le voit intervenir comme le vrai régulateur de la mortalité annuelle des communautés, le principal acteur de cet archétype cyclique, le témoin essentiel d’une vision de l’au-delà qui a perduré à travers les siècles.

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Edward Albee’s Who is Afraid of Virginia Woolf?

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Abstract

In his play Edward Albee lays stress on the corruption in American society, American family in particular. Since World Wars I and II Americans have thought they are the winners of the wars; and so they are going to have such a comfortable and luxurious life in the future. However they have been influenced as deeply as ‘the other’ countries having lost the wars. The citizens of the loser sides have ended up in pathetic situations due to the massacres, genocides and forced emigration after the wars while the Americans have got damaged because of too much vanity and comfort making them ignorant. In addition, in his play Albee designates such kind of American family. There are couples George- Martha and Nick- Honey who have significant roles in the play. The former is an old couple having troubles in getting along with one another and treat behave in a corruptible manner whereas the latter is a younger couple seeming to love each other. Albee criticizes the corrupted American family institution by using irony and farcical dialogues. Each character stands for any American and they represent the degenerated relationships of them. Albee’s use of words, character types and their farcical speeches create humor full of irony and satire. Even though the play is an example of an absurdist drama it has meaning in its meaninglessness.

Albee showed an interest in creative endeavors very early in life. His first attempts were with poetry, and by the time he was twelve, he had written his first play, a three-act farce called Aliqueen. He had his first poem published in a Texas literary magazine (Kaleidoscope) and also his first one-act play was published in the Choate Literary Magazine. While in Trinity College briefly, he became familiar with another side of the theater when he acted in a Maxwell Anderson play. In 1958, just before his thirtieth birthday, Albee finished The Zoo Story, the long one-act drama that would launch him on his career. After sending it to various theatrical producers in New York, a friend sent it to an acquaintance in Europe and it was finally produced in Berlin on September 28, 1959. After being a success there and being staged in numerous other cities in Germany, it was then presented in New York at the Off-Broadway Who’s Afraid of Virginia Woolf?. Provincetown Playhouse in 1960. Albee attracted quite a bit of critical success with this play but not much popular success. Then in 1962, he achieved both critical and popular success with Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf? The play won the coveted New York Drama Critics Award and every other major award except the Pulitzer Prize, and it was made into a very successful motion picture with slight, but sometimes important, changes from the dramatic script. Although Albee has continued to write significant drama (A Delicate Balance in 1966 won the Pulitzer Prize), none of his later plays have won the critical and popular acclaim awarded to Who’s Afraid of Virginia Woolf?(Roberts,4).

Even though this play is not directly related to The Theatre of The Absurd it includes a lot of characteristics of it. Indeed, Albee’s other plays The Zoo Story, The American Dream, and Sand Box are much more related and called as absurdist plays. On the other hand what makes Who’s Afraid of Virginia Woolf? different from absurdist plays is its setting, its character types and its themes. However Albee uses the techniques of The Theatre of The Absurd such as corrupted language, fragmented dialogues, degenerated speeches, clichés and so on. What is more Albee lays stress on the goal of Existentialism in the play and he portrays his characters George and Martha as the ones struggling for their own self and existence by taking the other under his/her dominance. Additionally as Albee criticizes the corrupted American life in his play, it is obvious that the play has some relation with the Realist drama as well. Although it is not as serious as Henrik Ibsen’s A Doll’s House, it contains the real issues like Ibsen does in his play. Therefore, Albee can be called as a neo-absurdist playwright.

The setting of the play is a house of an American family located at New England college town of New Carthage. It stands for the Americans and their corrupted values. “Placing New Carthage in New England ironically links the setting of the play to one of its themes, “American values.” New England was a birthplace of America’s freedom and has long been considered a stronghold of solid American values.” (Adams, 24). It is not as indefinite as in absurdist plays in general. The setting is nowhere in the world which resembles everywhere, whereas in Who is Afraid of Virginia Woolf? it is obvious and specific. The reason why Albee does so is because he is American and he is the member of the winner side of the wars, otherwise he would write as universally as Beckett, Jean Genet and Ionesco.

They were responding differently to the world. World War II and the potential horrors of the nuclear age compelled these
writers to see the universe as a place where humans had lost control. They were eager to shake audiences out of a sense of complacency about their lives. They wanted the spectator to feel their deep-seated anguish at the absurdity of the human condition. Nothing happens, nothing changes, these writers say. The world is out of control and nothing we can do will change this disturbing condition. (p. 9).

Viladimir and Estragon in Waiting for Godot and Old Man and Old Woman in Chairs are representatives of any one on the earth. Nevertheless in Albee’s play as he “told Michael Rutenberg that George and Martha were deliberately named after George and Martha Washington and that the imaginary child could represent the uncompleted revolutionary spirit of this country.” (Holtan, 46). He focuses on ‘this country’ and only the people living there.

What is more the term ‘history’ is mentioned very repeatedly in the play which means it has great significance for Americans as well. American history is full of dreams turning into nightmare at the end. As Holtan explains very clearly in his article “Who is Afraid of Virginia Woolf and the Patterns of History” that

One of the principal myths on which this country was founded was the notion that America was a New Eden, a second chance ordained by God or Providence in which man could begin all over again, freed from the accumulated sin and corruption of Western history. Not only could the American become a New Adam and found upon the unspoiled continent an ideal human polity, but this new way of life and new order of society could serve as a shining example to redeem erring Europe from her own sinfulness. America had established a covenant with God or with Nature (the myth had its beginnings with the Puritan settlements and became secularized as time went on) and could remain free of the vicissitudes of history provided she kept the terms of the covenant, retained her simplicity, shunned European complexity and sophistication and avoided the twin temptations of urbanization and industrialization. Unfortunately, such a dream of perfection could not find realization in an imperfect world; the troubles and complexities Americans thought they had left behind began to invade the New World. (p. 47)

It was ‘American Dream’ that caused the catastrophe to the Europe and ‘the New World’. “As George fell short of Martha’s expectations, so did Albee’s America fall short of the expectations of Europe and of Providence,” (p.49). Likewise, George’s novel is also very important for readers to realize the degenerated condition of Americans. In his first novel George tells the story of a boy who kills his parents. The reason why George’s father-in-law did not let him publish his book was because he thought he was the boy who committed that sin. For novel as a genre is generally based on the story of the society which the writer is a member of, George’s novel designates that such bad incidents are common in America. George’s making up a new novel at the time of game “Get the Guests” is about Nick and Honey’s life. When they realize the story is the same as theirs Nick gets irritated and does not want him to go on, but Honey likes it. Still she does not understand it is definitely their own memory and says “I love familiar stories... they are the best” (II; 144). Later on she realizes that Nick has got married to her not because of their love but her money. Additionally, it is presented also Martha’s father married his second wife for her money. George says “Martha’s got money because Martha’s father’s second wife... not Martha’s mother, but after Martha’s mother died... was very old lady with warts who was very rich.” (p. 109). Albee criticizes the marriages in America as well. He emphasizes the fact that the corruption has happened since money replaced love in family lives.

The games are important parts of the play too. In addition to the game mentioned above there are “Humiliate the Host”, “Hump the Hostess”, “Bringing up Baby”. These games include both George and Martha’s confessions about the past. They “are constantly playing games, matching wits, seeking the upper hand” (Adams, 29). Their relationship is not normal. They do not treat each other consistently and their thoughts and feelings change continuously. Their “relationship seems grounded in masochism. Each invites the other to attack, so each can have an excuse for revenge. By describing what they do as ‘games,’ they create a socially acceptable ritual of abuse, an abuse in which they reveal to release their bitterness and self-loathing.” (Abbotson, 141). What is more, the dialogues between George and Nick seem as if they were father and son talking to one another. George gives advice to him and Nick pretends to listen to him. After that when George’s confessions begin to make him nervous he changes his attitude towards him oppositely. “The scenes between George and Nick have been compared to a chess match, with each player seeking the advantage over the other.” (p. 29). The most interesting game is “Bringing up Baby” in which it is realized the son mentioned throughout the play by George and Martha is not real. George breaks down the illusion by informing Martha their son is dead.

Death is one of the significant and fundamental elements in Albee’s plays. He focuses on the point that “with death man faces the mystery of Being and Nothingness. Death brings man to the threshold of authentic existence; death is all over, universal as well as conclusive.” (Vos, 85). Dying is not the act of vanishing into nothingness it is the journey to the actual existence. Albee questions this paradoxical situation in Who is Afraid of Virginia Woolf? as well. The death of the fictional son for instance presents that one can only be nothing if it is not existent at all; however no existent one can be
no one by dying. In fact this problematic issue has been examined by existentialist as well. They have tried to come to the point that each person has their own existence individually and their individuality makes them peculiar; therefore everybody has inner discipline which makes it necessary to be responsible for any of their actions. This responsibility keeps the world in harmony and peace. What is more, it is merely acceptable for this life. When one dies it is not clear what it will encounter after death. The existentialists can not find any obvious and satisfying solution to this ambiguity, and they just support the assertion uttered by Nietzsche “God is dead”. Albee lays stress on that and tries to question the idea of existence and death. He in a New York Times interview says “I had an awareness of death when I was 15, but I turned 36 or 37 before I became aware that I, Edward Albee, was going to die. The realization did not fill me with dread. I simply became aware of the fact that this is the only time around me”. He points out death is as real as life itself, one who lives is going to die. The problem is not death it is the probability of losing existence. Being nothing is much more painful than being even in hell. Even though hell is the place of punishment and not as enjoyable as the place in Bernard Shaw’s Man and Superman still it means one goes on its existence. Albee comes to the point “dying is a process which involves one’s self is to gain self-knowledge” (Vos, 85).

Moreover love is another important theme in the play, Albee makes a comparison between love and death in order to emphasize “the failure of love is a form of dying” (p.81). The corruption in George and Martha’s love and the artificial love between Nick and Honey show what Albee aims at. He expresses the egoist characteristic of human beings. As the wife in his play All Over says “All we’ve done… is to think about ourselves. Ultimately.” In Albee’s plays people are good to only themselves. He criticizes the degenerated American society and the family institution in particular. In Who is Afraid of Virginia Woolf? For example George and Martha talk to each other as if they were two enemies put in a house and having no other choice but to try to get used to living together.

Martha: You didn’t do anything; you never do anything; you never mix. You just sit around and talk.
George: What do you want me to do? Do you want me to act like you? Do you want me to go around all night braying at everybody, the way you do? (I; 7)

Their attitude towards one another is not the ideal one between husband and wife loving each other, although they were in love in the past. Their marriage is not like Nick and Honey’s marriage based on materialistic relationship. Nick has married honey for her father’s properties, but George has not aimed at the same, otherwise he would not complain about Martha’s father too much. However Nick and Honey’s marriage seems more innocent. That is what Albee focuses on to express despite the fact that America was the winner of the both World War I and II, it has ended up in disappointment and corruption as well. Its catastrophe is not as tragic as the other countries beaten in the wars but much more problematic. The more individual people have become the lonelier they have been. Albee criticizes those people’s pathetic condition very successfully in his plays. His characters “construct themselves a world of illusion which affords escape from their recurring sense of personal inadequacy. Illusion works for a time, but soon brings complications which wants redress. Albee therefore introduces illusion only to reassess it, to show his characters must rid themselves of falsehood and return to the world in which they must live.” (Kingsley, 72). What is more George and Martha’s artificial son is the production of their dream world, and Albee “purges illusion in the course of the play. This purgation is attained through Bringing Up Baby, during which George ‘kills off’ the fictive child.” (p.72) and his death is the turning point for them to return to the real life.

The connection between illusion and real life is like the relationship between internal and external reality. George and Martha’s playing games with Nick and Honey present they are restricted “between fantasy and real experience” (p.73). In their games they fictionalize stories to confess what they have experienced so far in order to inform the guests about their past. On the other hand they also make up a background for their fictive child”, yet they try to impose their own story to Nick and Honey. This causes George and Martha to quarrel and they do not accept what the other say;

George: (…) She has a son who fought her every inch of the way, who didn’t want to be turned into a weapon against his father, who didn’t want to be used as a goddamn club whenever Martha didn’t get things like she wanted them!

Martha (Rising to it) : Lies lies!

George: Lies? All right. A son who would not disown his father, who came to him for advice, for information, for love that wasn’t mixed with sickness- and you know what I mean, Martha- who could not tolerate the slashing, braying residue that called itself his MOTHER, MOTHER?

Martha: All right. You. A son who was so ashamed of his father he asked me once if it –possibly– wasn’t true, as he had heard, from some cruel boys, maybe, that he was not our child; who could not tolerate the shabby failure his father had become… (III; 225)

They behave as if all they tell were definitely true. They can not get along with each other even in their fantasies.
“The major conflict typically involves characters reluctant to face the self in its pettiness and lack of fulfillment.” (Kingsley, 79). That is to say George and Martha have problems not with one another but their own selves. Albee emphasizes individuality has brought out the loneliness in crowd which means no one understands and respects the other as they have lost their self awareness.

Furthermore, people have lost their ability to listen and speak. The unfinished sentences and interrupted speeches in *Who is Afraid of Virginia Woolf?* for instance demonstrate this pathetically absurdist situation quite obviously. Even though it is not as much as in Beckett’s plays Albee’s characters have the same fragmented dialogues too.

Nick: What I mean is… you two… you and your wife… seem to be having some sort of a…
George: Martha and I are having… nothing. Martha and I are merely…exercising… that’s all… we’re merely walking what’s left of our wits. Don’t pay any attention to it. (I; 33-4)

They pass to another topic very quickly while talking about something. “Much of the dialogue of the play consists of clichés, and Albee uses them in a manner that contributes to the truth/illusion situation”. (Meyer, 63). They show the important unimportant and the unimportant important. “Each character is existing in his own private ego. Each makes a futile attempt to get another character to understand him, but as the attempt is contrived, there is more alienation.” (Roberts, 11). It is one of the tragic results of the world wars, which put the countries in chaos.

The characters are indifferent to each other. Their ignorance is another result of the loss of their love. In fact it is the contribution of civilization which has appeared since the tragic world wars. The civilized people have looked down on the uncivilized. Not only have they scorned them but also killed them and haven’t let them go on their life in peace. Civilization is claimed to be like “an enormous ocean”, yet the sentence is incomplete. The whole should be civilization is an enormous ocean without water. George, Martha, Nick and Honey are the members of the civilized nation. They are the citizens of the country dominating the world but failing in dominating itself. As an absurdist playwright Beckett focuses on the pathetic and hopeless condition of postwar societies. He describes his characters as if they have no where to go and no hope to keep but just wait. Their act of waiting is the only action they do or they have to do. Vladimir and Estragon in *Waiting for Godot* for example are the representatives of all the victims of the civilized countries aiming at conquering the world. On the other hand the characters in *Who is Afraid of Virginia Woolf?* are the victims of civilization as well.

George (At Nick, not to him): you take the trouble to construct a civilization… to… to build a society, based on the principles of… of principle… you endeavor to make communicable sense out of natural order, morality out of the unnatural disorder of man’s mind… you bring things to the saddest of all points… (II; 116).

They have not lost their hope like ‘the others’, yet they have lost their love, virtues and values. It is similarly disappointing and painful too. For example George seems indifferent to the adultery between his wife and Nick.

Martha: You know what I’m doing George?
George: No, Martha… what are you doing?
Martha: I’m entertaining. I’m entertaining one of the guests. I’m necking with one of the guests.
George (Seeming relaxed and preoccupied, never looking): Oh, that’s nice. Which one?
Martha: Oh, by God you’re funny.
George: Someone at the door, Martha.
Martha: Never mind that. I said I was necking with one of the guests.
George: Good… good. You go right on.
Martha: Good?
George: Yes, good… good for you. (II; 170-1).

George’s civilized attitudes towards Martha and the guests clearly demonstrate the corruption in American community. “We are exposed to several very civilized people acting in a way that is at times uncivilized and barbaric.” (Roberts, 18). Albee emphasizes if the family gets corrupted then the society will get degenerated accordingly.

What is more, Nick and Honey are thought to be the next generation of George and Martha. Their marriage is also about to get corrupted, unless they take lessons from the old couple. Throughout the play George and Martha give examples from their own past and the young couple get influenced by them. Honey can not bear what she witnesses and she says “I’m going to… I’m going to be… sick…” (II; 148). On the other hand, Nick does not pay attention to his wife’s illness and gets seduced by Martha very easily.

Martha: (…) Now for being such a good boy, you can give me a kiss. C’mon.
Nick: Look… I don’t think we should…
Martha: C’mon, baby… a friendly kiss.
Nick (Still uncertain): Well…
Martha: … you won’t get hurt, little boy…
Nick: … not so little…
Martha: I’ll bet you are not. C’mon…
Nick: But what if he should come back in, and … or…?
Martha: George? Don’t worry about him. Besides, who could object to a friendly little kiss? It’s all in the faculty. We’re a close-knit family here… Daddy always says so… Daddy wants us to get to know each other… that’s what he had the party for tonight. So c’mon…. lets get to know each other a little bit.
Nick: It isn’t that I don’t want to… believe me…
Martha: You’re a scientist, aren’t you? C’mon… make an experiment… make a little experiment. Experiment on old Martha. (II; 163-4).

They commit adultery after getting too drunk. However they can not be successful at it due to Nick’s impotence. Their “adultery is reduced to as farce.”(Dozier). Both sex and drinking are also important themes of the play. The characters are drinking throughout the play and they see it as meaning of their life. As Honey says “I want my husband! I want a drink!” (II; 177) she implies both are equally important for her. The interrelation between her husband and a drink is questionable; whether her husband is as trifle as a drink or the latter is as necessary as the former is not clear enough. However it is fairly obvious, Albee ironically emphasizes that they live in a society “where civilization finally matters” (Adler, 68).

Taking everything into account, World Wars I and II have influenced all the countries no matter which have won or lost. The losers have had no where to go but wait for Godot, while the winners have had no aim to go but wait for going. Indeed metaphorically Godot is an abbreviation of “Go, do it! Yes we have to go to do it, yet the problem is quite tragic; what is it? It is definitely what it is… I think it is the Death itself, but we do not have to wait for it every time as it comes suddenly without invitation an commands us “go, do it= die”. Ultimately all the things will come to an end or a new beginning when the real game is over.

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Rhetorical Strategies in Advertising: The Rise and Fall Pattern

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Abstract

Throughout the decades, there have been changes in persuasive strategies used by advertisers. A study was carried out on 500 advertising slogans dating from the late 19th century till the early 21st century, spanning a period of over a hundred years. The slogans were selected from 13 multinational and established companies and arranged according to the year they were created. The companies selected were ones that existed from the late 1800s and which still exist today. A cross-section of the slogans were analysed qualitatively for the presence of rhetorical figures and various persuasive strategies in a pilot study. The trend of the use of rhetorical figures and communicative and stylistic strategies used throughout this period was also calculated using quantitative analysis. The findings reveal a rise and fall pattern throughout the decades of both rhetorical figures and communicative and stylistic strategies used in advertising slogans. The pattern is also present in the layering of the rhetorical figures throughout the decades. Therefore the study has discovered the presence of a cyclical continuum that involves the selection of certain rhetorical figures and persuasive strategies in a particular period but not in others.

Keywords: advertising slogans, rhetorical figures, persuasive strategies, rise and fall pattern

1. Introduction

Advertising is pervasive as we are bombarded with persuasive messages from all corners. From radio to television commercials to advertisements on public transport to billboards and the internet, we are constantly persuaded to believe in something or behave in a certain way. If we think of advertising as a way of disseminating information to carry out business, we might say advertising began ages ago. When people bring some of their crops to the market and stand there shouting their wares, they are actually advertising their products. Advertisers have used numerous persuasive strategies throughout the ages.

2. Rhetorical Figures in Advertising

A rhetorical figure has been traditionally referred to as an artful deviation from the usual or ordinary mode of expression, whether in speech or writing. It occurs when an expression departs from the norm, is not discarded as being unintelligible or defective, it deviates in form rather than content, and the deviation complies to a fixed pattern according to specific contents and contexts. A figure in the schematic mode or scheme (Greek schema, form, shape) has the feature of excessive order or regularity while a figure in the tropic mode or trope (Greek tropein, to turn) is associated with a lack of order or irregularity. The latter term is used to represent the domain of figurative language. Used skillfully, tropes give language greater force and accuracy which is vital in persuasion. Thus schemes and tropes cover two well-defined modes of formal deviation. Both schemes and tropes entail a shift of some kind: a trope involves a shift of meaning i.e. it operates at the conceptual or semantic level, a scheme involves a shift of order i.e. it operates at the physical or sensory level of the language structure. A trope alters the meanings of words whereas a scheme only affects their positioning or repetition. Common examples of schemes include parallelism and alliteration, and metaphors and puns are examples of tropes (Corbett & Connors, 1999; Cockcroft and Cockcroft, 2005; McQuarrie and Mick, 1996; Mothersbaugh, Huhmann, & Franke, 2002).

There are slogans that use only schemes and there are slogans that use only tropes. An example that uses only schemes is PepsiCo Incorporated’s 1969 slogan, You’ve got a lot to live. Pepsi’s got a lot to give which contains five schemes, namely, assonance, parison, rhyme, chime and mesodiplosis. An example of a slogan that uses only tropes is the 2005 Guinness slogan, Brilliant! which contains three tropes, namely, ellipsis, metonymy and pun. Only a small percentage of slogans do not use any rhetorical figure at all. Many slogans use just one rhetorical figure but these are outnumbered by a larger proportion of slogans that use a layer of figures. Therefore, layering of figures is a common
There are three main symbols that persuaders use to add forcefulness to their message. One of these symbols is the negative which linguistically means saying that an object or concept/idea is not something else. The negative is thus intrinsic in our use of symbols (Borchers, 2002). The concept of negativity is prevalent in figures of speech such as the antithesis, metaphor and irony. The negative is also a strategy used in advertising as in the Federal Express (Fed Ex) slogan, When there’s no tomorrow and the Listerine mouthwash slogan, The taste you hate twice a day. Burke fully supports the use of the negative ‘in an advertising world that is so strong on the glorification of the positive’ (Burke, 1966, p. 12).

The second feature of language connected to symbols is hierarchy or social structure. Man is spurred on by the force of hierarchy which ‘sets up the characteristic social elements’ that humans deal with. In other words, we are ‘moved by a sense of order’ (Burke, 1966, p. 15). There are higher and lower, right and wrong, better and worse, upper and lower (Gusfield, 1989, p. 38). Just as society is hierarchical, so is language. When we use language to distinguish between people, objects or places, we unconsciously form structures in which one word occupies a higher position than another. Symbol use makes us strive to go up the ladder in order to achieve our goals and ambitions in life. This hierarchical aspect of language use leads to competition and persuaders exploiting our desire for success by advertising their products or services (Borchers, 2002). This is evident in slogans such as, Better than anything (Haagan-Daz) and Avis.
Rental Car’s *We’re number two. We try harder.*

Burke says that we are ‘rotten with perfection’ (Burke, 1966, p. 16). *Perfection*, the third characteristic of the symbol use, is fundamental to the identity of language as motive. The urge to use the correct name to refer to something or to speak a language in its characteristic ways is essentially being a perfectionist. Symbol use results in us constantly being in pursuit of the best. Advertising makes use of appeals in the superlative such as ‘best’, ‘quickest’ and ‘tastiest’ (Borchers, 2002, p. 171-172). Examples are Gillette’s slogan, *The best a man can get* and Honda’s *You meet the nicest people on a Honda.*

Burke refers to the word ‘motive’ as how we consider a particular situation, i.e. our way of *framing* it will affect the way we view people and the world in general. In a nutshell, persuaders can use language to shape the way the audience views the world. This concept of *framing* is also prevalent in advertising slogans. For instance, the slogan, *Expanding possibilities* places the company, Hewlett-Packard, as the agency ‘for an individual’s or an organisation’s computing success’. Similarly, *Where do you want to go today?*, Microsoft’s slogan, also suggests ‘that its products can help individuals or organizations achieve their goals’ (Borchers, 2002, p. 182).

Today we are exposed to more information about the persuader (Borchers, 2002) as persuasion is brought right to ‘the intimate environment’ of our living rooms through the medium of radio, and particularly, television (Jamieson, 1988, p. 55-56). Thus, *electronic eloquence* came about with the introduction of television which changed the once ‘impassioned appeals’ to ‘a cooler, more conversational art’ (Jamieson, 1988, p. 44). Myers (1994) stresses that even since the start of the copywriting profession, copywriters had always been trained to ensure that advertising sounded like conversation and not like a sales pitch or a political speech although a bit of sales pitch was essential. Advertisements rely heavily on the use of everyday talk especially when the product tends to be associated with taboos or when the audience has established suspicions of the product.

Advertising slogans such as Clairol’s, *Does she or doesn’t she?* and Wendy’s, *Where’s the beef?* also became colloquial when they were used in cliff-hanging plots of audio-visual advertisements (Myers, 1994). Even with a host of new media around us today, advertisements seem to employ features of spoken communication. For instance, advertisements via the electronic mail (e-mail) and mobile phone text messages are written but they consist of many features of oral conversation (Cook, 2001). Advertising discourse, therefore, communicates to us through the use of real world or everyday life situations (Williamson, 1978; Myers, 1994). *Conversationalisation*, to an extent, can be attributed to the spread of consumerism. As a result, both public and private sectors are changing their practices and cultural orientation towards this direction (Fairclough, 1995).

There is a progression in advertising history which accumulates the appeals used by advertisers with the earlier periods still retained (Myers, 1994). Research on slogans over the years has not been documented in detail. Scholars have made impressionistic observations on the historical development of slogans in advertising but this area has not been tested. Therefore this study examines the trends of the use of rhetorical figures and persuasive strategies in the advertising slogans selected from the late 1800s through to the 21st century.

4. Methods Used

4.1 Research Design and Selection

This study seeks to analyse advertising slogans from at least 100 years ago. The study covers slogans which were created in the late nineteenth century, those which were created in all decades of the twentieth century to slogans which were created from the year 2000. A total of 500 slogans were selected from both product and service sectors of multinational companies. Overall, there are eight categories the slogans fall into. They are *food and drink, tobacco, automobile, airline, photography, electronics, computing and fashion.* Various categories were selected to ensure that the rhetorical patterns, if any, that emerged from the study would be consistent. The varied selection would also eliminate the possibility of some product or service categories using more rhetorical figures in their advertising than others ‘because of some intrinsic characteristic of the product’ or service (Phillips and McQuarrie, 2002, p. 10). Another important criterion for the selection of these slogans was that the products or services concerned or the companies involved were internationally popular or well known. This was determined from the profiles of the particular companies found in encyclopedias as well as from the company websites. The products or services were also considered if the researcher, being from Asia where these products or services did not originate, was familiar with them in her own country or had, at the very least, heard of the brand name or company. It is important that ‘…a rhetorical figure draws on a specific body of preexisting sociocultural knowledge’ (McQuarrie and Mick 1996, p. 433).
4.2 Selection of Companies/Organisations

The companies were selected based mainly on the availability of not only the advertising slogans but also the corresponding years or decades in which they were created. The 13 companies selected were *British American Tobacco Plc.*, *The Coca-Cola Company*, *Continental Airlines*, *Daimler Chrysler*, *Dr Pepper Snapple Group*, *Eastman Kodak Company*, *Ford Motor Company*, *The General Electric Company*, *Guinness & Co.*, *H.J. Heinz Company*, *IBM Corporation*, *Maidenform Inc.*, *PepsiCo, Inc.*

4.3 Data Collection

A pilot study was conducted to determine the presence of rhetorical figures and persuasive strategies in advertising slogans. For the purpose of gathering data for the pilot study, a small sample of 24 advertising slogans was selected. A total of 500 advertising slogans were eventually gathered for the main study. This number included the slogans used for the pilot study. The advertising slogans for both the pilot and main study were obtained from various sources such as encyclopedias, company websites, news websites and registered online advertising sources.

4.4 Data Analysis

The data for the main study was analysed quantitatively to determine the mean and/or percentages of rhetorical figures and persuasive strategies present in the advertising slogans studied. It was also used in order to analyse any trends or patterns that emerged. The slogans of each company were first arranged in chronological order then grouped into decades starting from the late 1800s depending on the individual companies. Then the findings of the pilot study in combination with McQuarrie and Mick’s taxonomy (1996) were used to identify rhetorical figures found in each of the slogans. If a figure was identified, it was categorised and coded as a scheme or trope accordingly. The data was also scrutinised for the presence of communicative and stylistic strategies obtained from the results of the pilot study which were also coded. Each slogan was also examined to see if there was a layering of figures. The layering of rhetorical figures in advertising slogans is determined by calculating the total number of rhetorical figures per decade and dividing this by the total number of slogans per decade to get the mean per decade.

Mean and/or percentages were used to determine the trends found in the use of rhetorical figures and persuasive strategies in the advertising slogans studied over time, specifically, by decades. The trends according to the various categories and incidences were portrayed graphically. To support the analysis, the background or general situation of the company or organisation was examined, particularly around the time the slogan was created.¹

5. Findings and Discussion

The qualitative analysis has revealed that both schemes and tropes are present in advertising slogans. However, there appears to be more schemes in slogans of the earlier decades (up to the 1950s) than in the later ones (after the 1950s). In slogans of the later decades, more tropes than schemes are used. The schemes that are used the most in the slogans analysed are *parison*, *assonance* and *chime*. The tropes that occur the most are *metonymy*, *ellipsis*, *pun* and *metaphor*.

Communicative strategies were found to be used in the slogans analysed. Burke’s Theory of Dramatism is extensively applied in the slogans. Either the use of Burke’s symbols or his concept of framing or a combination of both can be found in nearly every slogan analysed. The analysis also reveals the use of several stylistic strategies. *Deixis and personalisation* were used extensively in the slogans. In particular, *personal pronouns* were used to foster a link between the persuader and the consumer. *Deictic words* were found to serve the function of pointing to a particular context. *Absolute uniqueness* was also reflected in various ways in the slogans. Slogans in the late 1990s and the 21st century took on a more imaginative approach. Fragments and other linguistic violations of a grammatical and orthographic nature were found to occur in these slogans as they became shorter in length.

The analysis also revealed the use of *idioms* as the base of a few slogans. Several slogans also included the brand name but many did not. There were also no outright cases of slogans being conversational although a few had slight hints of a conversational tone. Sexual innuendoes were present in a very small percentage of the slogans.

¹ The year or decade each slogan was created is indicated in brackets beside the slogan.
Figure 1 demonstrates the trend of the use of communicative and stylistic strategies in the advertising slogans analysed between 1886 and 2008. As can be seen, deixis and personalisation occurs in all the decades analysed. It had a high occurrence in the decade of 1910 but started to gradually decline until the 1950s. However, it began rising again in the 1960s right up till the 1980s when it reached its highest mean of just under 1.2. Its use then dropped in the 1990s and in the decade of 2000. Overall, the pattern is that of rises and falls throughout the decades with its lowest mean of about 0.5 in 1900-1909. A similar rise and fall pattern applies to the use of the brand name, Burke’s symbols, deviant styles, idioms and linguistic violations. Lastly, the use of sexual innuendos as a strategy occurred only in the 1930s, 1940s, 1960s, 1970s and 1990s with a low mean of under 0.1. The findings also show a rise and fall pattern in the layering of schemes and tropes. In the last 40 years, the layering of schemes and tropes in advertising slogans shows a decrease. This is parallel to the finding that slogans are becoming shorter with the use of more tropes.

5.1 The Different Periods of Advertising

Through the analysis of advertising slogans carried out over more than ten decades, the study has unveiled significant trends. Myers’ (1994) division of advertising is categorised into three periods right up till the early nineties. Myers’ periods have been updated to include the first decade of the 21st century as follows:

- the 1890s till 1919
- the 1920s till the 1950s
- the 1960s till the 1980s
- the 1990s till 2010

a. The late 19th century was the beginning of the advertising era as commodities and markets began to develop. It was also the period of the beginning of many existing brand names (Myers, 1994). The data show that organisations like The Coca-Cola Company used the brand name and stated the product benefits at the same time. Examples are the slogans, For headache and exhaustion, drink Coca-Cola (1900), Coca-Cola is a delightful, palatable, healthful beverage (1904) and Delicious Coca-Cola sustains, refreshes, invigorates (1907).

Persuasive devices and strategies were used to make the slogans catchy. This tallies with Myers’s (1994) observation that the linguistic devices used during the late 1890s and early 1900s, included having a catchy rhyme or slogan and this was achieved through the use of schemes. Only linguistic violations were totally absent in slogans of the 1890s till 1919. Instead the message was delivered in a direct fashion without the use of complicated structures. In other words, although the advertising slogans of this period showed linguistic diversity, they lacked the rhetorical and stylistic sophistication found in the later slogans. Out of fifty-seven slogans of this period, there was only one instance of a pun.

The First World War which began in 1914 did not considerably weaken advertising whether it was in the U.S,
England or Canada. Copywriters could directly relate sales appeals to the war. Business organisations gave their advertising slogans patriotic overtones, particularly for essential items such as household, personal care and food. Conservation themes, especially in food advertisements, were commonplace. Recommendations were made for the substitution of products in abundant supply for goods needed for the war. Advertising campaigns were tailored towards conveying patriotic messages as not only products but also ideas were sold (McDonough, 2002; Pope, 1980).

b. The second period, the 1920s till the 1950s, sought to develop an image for the consumption of goods and services. The advertising industry was ‘just approaching maturity’ and therefore ‘stood ready with fresh patterns’ (Fox, 1984, p. 78). There was a big shift from focusing on production to focusing on the association of meanings with consumption (Myers, 1994). Advertisements depicted the lifestyle associated with using or not using the product. Examples of advertising slogans during this period are Daimler Chrysler’s Your next car (1950s) and British American Tobacco’s Modern design makes the difference (1939). There was a surge in persuasive devices and strategies such as the pun, metonym and idioms which were used considerably during this period. In other words, advertisements of this period were ‘selling a better life’ as illustrated:

The appeal was not BUY OUR SOAP but rather BUY a better life by buying OUR SOAP (Myers, 1994, p. 24).

British American Tobacco, for instance, persuades consumers that by smoking Lucky Strike cigarettes, they would lead a happy-go-lucky life. Hence, they used the slogan, Be happy-go-Lucky! (1950). On the other hand, it was not only the ‘pleasures of leisure time’ that the advertisements focused on but also the ‘fear of social comparisons’, ‘creating a new problem’, ‘broadening the range of choices’ and ‘associating different meanings with different styles’ all with the aim of boosting consumption (Myers, 1994, p. 23-24). Associating a particular meaning with a particular style was also used as a way of increasing consumption. The Coca-Cola Company is especially fond of using this method. They used slogans such as The sociable drink (1925) and Meet me at the soda fountain (1930) to associate the drink with social life and friendship in order to attract young consumers.

Myers (1994) did not take into account the fact that this period covered the Great Depression and World War II. The Great Depression lasted from 1929-1933 and the Second World War took place from 1939-1945. During World War II in 1941, advertising took on war-related themes. Hence, the H.J. Heinz Company, for instance, played its part in the war effort with the slogans, Pickles to pursuit planes and Beans to bombers (McDonough, 2002).

The growth of the new medium of television in the 1950s had a great influence on advertising. Jamieson’s (1988) electronic eloquence can be applied here as persuasive messages are brought to the intimate environment of people’s living rooms in a more conversational way. The slogans of the 1950s such as Dr Pepper’s The friendly pepper-upper and Eastman Kodak’s Open me first illustrate a conversational style which would engage the audience with the advertisements and their respective messages. In Dr Pepper’s The friendly pepper-upper, the neologism, pepper-upper, gives the slogan an informal touch and this is reinforced by the adjective friendly. In Eastman Kodak’s Open me first, the imperative, open, used with a personal pronoun, me, in the context of opening Christmas presents, gives this slogan not only a personal but also a conversational ring to it.

Television reinforced the message of slogans through repetition which became very effective (McDonough, 2002). On the other hand, the 1950s advertisements were criticized as being bland and unimaginative throughout the decade (McDonough, 2002). What this meant was that advertising began to reach saturation point during this period. Consumers were bombarded with messages from all corners, especially with the advent of television.

Consumers may have been familiar with the numerous slogans that came their way at that time but according to critics, what they needed was something different, something more creative. Examples of slogans of the 1950s from the data are: Coca-Cola’s Help yourself to refreshment (1950), Ford Motor Company’s Speak first with Ford (1950s), The General Electric Company’s Progress is our most important product (1950s), Guinness & Co.’s Christmas time is Guinness time, IBM Corporation’s A tool for modern times and PepsiCo Inc.’s Refreshing without filling (1954). There was certainly not much creativity shown in such advertising slogans even if they attracted consumers through repetition. Therefore, with conflicting views, the advertisements of the 1950s paved the way towards a new period.

c. The period beginning from the 1960s addressed the ‘jaded consumer saturated with ads’ (Myers, 1994, p. 28).
A lot of famous advertisements of this period were ‘ads about ads’ such as the Avis slogan, *We’re only number 2. We try harder.* (Myers, 1994, p. 25). Advertisers of this period addressed the jaded consumer ‘with ironies, parodies, ads on ads, puns, and juxtaposition of competing discourses, in the text and the images’ (Myers, 1994, p. 28). Advertisements during this period startled people with unconventional slogans and headlines such as *Lemon* for the Volkswagen car where the noun was ‘colloquially used for defective cars’. Although irony is rarely used in advertising as it is ‘potentially destructive of the whole shared enterprise’, it was used in this *Lemon* campaign and in many other advertisements during the 1970s. ‘Ironic advertising’ worked here as it fitted in with ‘the excesses of other advertisers’ of this period (Myers, 1994, p. 25).

The analysis shows the use of puns, idioms and humour in the advertising slogans of the 1960s. Examples are *It’s opening time for canned Guinness* (1960), Daimler Chrysler’s *Let yourself go* (1966) and *Lucky Strike separates the men from the boys…but not from the girls* (early 1960s) respectively. Due to the evolving nature of commodities and the different personalities of advertising agents, copywriters in the 1970s somewhat ridiculed the humour and language play that was used in the 1960s (Myers, 1994). The analysis of this study, however, illustrates that the slogans of the 1970s also used puns such as the Guinness slogan, *An Arthur Guinness production* (1979). These slogans also show creativity and humour such as Ford’s *The score for ’76: Mustang 11. Boredom 0.* Another creative and rather unconventional one is Pepsi’s 1973 slogan, targeted towards young people:

*Lipsmackin’hirstquenchin’acetastin’motivatin’goodbuzzin’cooltalkin’highwalkin’fastlivin’evergivin’coolfizzin’ Pepsi*

This slogan is unconventional as we do not usually come across a combination of nine adjectival compounds and an adjective meant to form a long, single adjective with apostrophes denoting contractions to replace commas. In addition, a few adjectival compounds like *lipsmackin’* are common but others like *goodbuzzin’* are not.

The slogans of the 1980s also show the use of *idioms* and humour such as in Dr Pepper’s *Just what the Dr ordered* (1987). Therefore, in general, the data and analysis do illustrate the use of a few unconventional slogans during the period of the 1960s-1980s. What types of slogans abound in the 1990s and in the beginning of the new century?

d. The 1990s till the present falls in the period of the media age. We live in a mediated, social and technological era of contemporary society. Is it surprising then that ‘in today’s world of mediated persuasion, much is left unsaid’? (Borchers, 2002, p. 20). Accordingly, today’s advertisements do not make claims about the product or service as the audience is already well aware of the proposition that will be put forward by the advertiser (Slayden, 1999. In Borchers, 2002).

It is taken for granted that advertisers today are not genuine in their act of persuading and to solve this problem, the advertiser should see the consumer as ‘an active and disenchanted interpreter’ (Myers, 1994, p. 26). Consumers, in turn, tend to follow the crowd in that we feel a lot safer knowing that other people are doing the same thing; a natural inclination. Advertising today is competitive as advertisers have to compete for attention in the midst of many products that make similar claims. Advertisers may not seem a trustworthy lot but we still fall for their rhetorical strategies which includes stereotyped lifestyles depicted in advertisements (Wilmshurst, 1985). On the other hand, after experiencing decades of advertising, the consumer has become more skilful in decoding advertisements. Hence advertisers become more daring as they are faced with the challenge of coming up with novel ways to attract and persuade the consumer.

The analysis of this study shows that advertising slogans of this period have the tendency to be a lot shorter than their predecessors. One or two-word phrases and fragments are being increasingly used in today’s slogans. This conforms to deviant styles which, in this case, is the short, clipped *masculine* style. Accordingly, the shorter the slogans, the more the *tropes* and the fewer the *schemes* become. This corresponds to the results of the quantitative analysis that slogans from the 1990s to the present contain more *tropes* than *schemes*. Apart from fragments, advertisers are also resorting to linguistic violations such as being ungrammatical, using unorthodox spelling, vocabulary and lexis to set their slogans apart from the others. Advertisers are also using framing by acting as agents in helping shape the consumer’s future.

Examples of slogans having these features are Pepsi’s *More happy* (2007), Maidenform’s *They crave passion* (1990s), IBM’s *Are you ready for e-business?* (1998), Guinness’s *Brilliant!* (2005), Daimler Chrysler’s *Hi* (1994) and Dodge. *Different.* (2000), Dr Pepper’s *Be you* (after 2001) and Coca-Cola’s *One and only* (2003).

5.2 The Rise and Fall Pattern
The quantitative analysis shows a rise and fall pattern throughout the decades of both rhetorical figures and communicative and stylistic strategies used in advertising slogans. The pattern was also present in the layering of the rhetorical figures throughout the decades.

In relation to advertising, the findings of this study clearly show the presence of the cyclical pattern that involves the selection of certain rhetorical figures and persuasive strategies in a particular period but not in others. This rise and fall pattern can be likened to the effect of a pendulum which swings back and forth without stopping as language is dynamic and moves all the time. The oscillating pattern in advertising occurs where one generation of advertisers employ a set of figures and strategies and the next generation would discard them and reinvent the wheel. The results of the analysis of this study are testimony to this. This trend does not only occur with a change of generation but also with the introduction of new media and the expectations of consumers. Advertising also has to embrace ‘currents of social discontent’ which may have an adverse effect on the ‘industry’s freedom of action’ and eventually on the basic economic principles (Vestergaard and Schroder, 1985, p. 121). In fact, advertising is constantly striving to keep its grip on the future to ensure production and sales run smoothly.

Therefore, we have seen the presence of the oscillating pattern in advertising based on this study. For the first to the last decade of the analysis, the researcher has devised a cyclical continuum that begins from the late nineteenth century till the beginning of the twenty-first century. Figure 2 illustrates the characteristics of advertising slogans from one end of the spectrum to another. On the one extreme are the characteristics of the early slogans and on the other are the characteristics of the current slogans. The early slogans are categorised as straightforward and did not mislead the consumer as they aimed to provide information about product benefits. They also consisted of more schemes than tropes. The slogans also conformed to linguistic conventions. On the other extreme, the slogans puzzled the consumer, used more tropes than schemes and did not conform to linguistic rules. In between these two extremes, the characteristics could move back and forth. They could be found in one decade but not in another following a cyclical pattern.

![Fig. 2. A Cyclical Continuum of the Characteristics of Advertising Slogans](image)

6. Conclusion

As we are now well into the twenty-first century, with more exposure to the media creating greater competition among advertisers, impressionistic observations alone are insufficient. More research needs to be carried out in this area of advertising. Copywriters demonstrate an innate ability and innate sensitivity in forming a pattern and then reforming it, that is, they are spontaneously creating and recreating. We do not usually notice specific patterns in advertising unless they are formally analysed. This study has therefore identified patterns inherent in advertising slogans.

References

Vietnamese Women Marrying Korean Men and Societal Impacts.
(Case studies in Dai Hop commune, Kien Thuy district – Hai Phong city)

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Abstract

In the last decade, in Vietnam, there have been some research studies on marriages with foreigners, yet they mainly focused on Vietnam women getting married to Taiwanese men. There have been few research studies on Vietnam women marrying Korean men. Therefore, it is hoped that this research study will contribute to research on marriages with foreigners. In particular, its approach is from the multi-culture in marriage and international migration, and cultural factors that promote and hinder the process of Vietnam – Korean marriages. This research study was conducted in August 2009, and afterward we came back to conduct in-depth interviews with some Vietnamese women who get married to Korean men in September 2010. Besides using the method of literature review, this study combines both qualitative and quantitative methods. Through this research, the paper would like to find the societal impact of international marriages, in particular Vietnamese – Korean marriages to Vietnam.

1. Introduction

In the last decade, in Vietnam, there have been some research studies on marriages with foreigners, yet they mainly focused on Vietnam women getting married to Taiwanese men. There have been few research studies on Vietnam women marrying Korean men. Therefore, it is hoped that this research study will contribute to research on marriages with foreigners. In particular, its approach is from the multi-culture in marriage and international migration, and cultural factors that promote and hinder the process of Vietnam – Korean marriages.

This research study was conducted in August 2009, and afterward we came back to conduct in-depth interviews with some Vietnamese women who get married to Korean men in September 2010. The survey site is Dai Hop commune, Kien Thuy district- Hai Phong City (North Vietnam).

Besides using the method of literature review, this study combines both qualitative and quantitative methods. The sample is 150 parents of families in Dai Hop commune, Kien Thuy district, Hai Phong City whose daughters have got married to Korean men, and 15 in-depth interviews (including parents, village and commune leaders, local people, women who got married to Korean men waiting for exit, Vietnamese women who married to Korean men on their visits to their families in Vietnam). We use simple sampling, based on the list of families whose daughters have got married to Korean men.

At the time of our survey in August 2009, Dai Hop commune had more than 721 women who had got married to foreigners including 188 women getting married to Korean men, and 15 in-depth interviews (including parents, village and commune leaders, local people, women who got married to Korean men waiting for exit, Vietnamese women who married to Korean men on their visits to their families in Vietnam). We use simple sampling, based on the list of families whose daughters have got married to Korean men.

2. Outline of Vietnamese women marrying Korean men

2.1. About Vietnam women marrying foreigners

As of 2010 there were 294,280 cases of Vietnamese citizens married to foreigners or Vietnam people residing abroad, in over 50 countries and different regions (Ministry of Justice, 2011). Of which more than 80% of Vietnamese women married to foreigners or Vietnamese people settling in foreign countries, only about 20% of Vietnamese men married to foreign women.
Marriage and family relations involving foreign elements, including Vietnamese women married to foreign men since 1990s. Countries and territories with a large number of citizens marrying Vietnamese people are Taiwan, South Korea, the Federal Republic of Germany, USA, Canada, France, Australia, Sweden, China... The rapid development of the marriage and family involving foreign elements mentioned above is an inevitable result of the development, of deeper integration in the areas of politics, economy, culture, society between Vietnam and other countries. In the early years of the twenty-first century, Vietnamese women marrying Taiwan, South Korea men were mainly in Can Tho, Dong Thap, An Giang, Tay Ninh, Soc Trang, Vinh Long...provinces. In recent years, there are some northern provinces of Vietnam such as Hai Duong, Hung Yen, Quang Ninh and Hai Phong having women marrying foreigners.

2.2. Situation of Vietnamese women marrying Korean men

The number of marriage migrants increased to 210,000 from 150,000 in 2008, most of them from Asian countries such as China and Vietnam. The number of members from multicultural families created from international marriages reached 550,000 in 2011, up from 340,000 in 2008. The government expects to see the number of people to reach 1 million by 2020. (Cho Chung-un, 2013b)

Research shows an increasing numbers of Vietnamese women to get married and live in Korea. In 2000, only 95 cases of Vietnamese women married to Korean men, but by 2005 this figure increased by 61.3 times. Vietnam ranks the second with the number of bride in Korea (Kim, 2007). According to a 2012 Ministry of Gender Equality and Family report, around 266,547 multicultural families in Korea, in which national with Vietnam is 18.3%, about 48,000 families. According to the Ministry of Justice, the number of marriage immigrants stood at about 145,000 at the end of 2011. Of the total, about 25.8 percent were women from Vietnam.(Choi He-suk, 2013), there have been more than 36,000 Vietnamese brides living in Korea. Marriages between Vietnamese women and Korean men second only to Chinese brides. In Hai Duong province (far from Hanoi capital about 50 km), from 2006 to June 2009, there were 1,885 women marrying foreigners (Table 1).

Table 1. Vietnamese women marrying foreigners in Hai Duong province (unit: number people)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>In 30/6/2009</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>1194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK, Franch, German</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>378</strong></td>
<td><strong>664</strong></td>
<td><strong>577</strong></td>
<td><strong>266</strong></td>
<td><strong>1884</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hai Duong Department of Culture - Sports - Tourism 2009.

Table 1 shows that, during the period from 2006 to mid 2009, Hai Duong province had 1884 women marrying foreigners, most of which were with Korean men, 1194 people (63.4 %). In Ho Chi Minh City, from 2007 to 2011, 23 244 cases of marriages involving foreign elements, including: 20,127 (86.6 %) Vietnamese women marrying foreign people and 3,117 (13.4%) cases of Vietnamese men with foreign elements. Marriage percentage of Vietnamese women with foreign elements is 6.4 times more than that of men. Among 20,127 Vietnamese women marrying foreigners, there are 7,391 marriages with U.S. citizens (31.8%), 3,045 marriages with Korea (13.1%), 2,068 marriages with Canada (8.9%), 1,883 marriages with Australia (8.1%), 1,650 marriages with France (7.1 %). Specially, in 2010, the number of marriages with Korea increased very fast. There were 365 marriages with Korean people but in 2010, the number was 996, increasing by 272% (Ho Chi Minh Justice Department, 2012).

At the time of our survey in August 2009, Dai Hop commune had more than 721 women who had got married to foreigners including 188 women getting married to Korean men. In the sample of our survey using questionnaires, 82% households, each has a daughter getting married to a Korean man, 15.3% households, each has two daughters getting married to Korean men and 1.3% households, each has 3 daughters getting married to Korean and Taiwanese men, 1.4% households each has 4 women getting married to Korean and Taiwanese men (table 2).
Table 2. Women in Dai Hop commune marrying foreign men, 1997-2009 (unit: number people)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
<th>Korea</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009 (in August 2009)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>487</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>721</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


According to statistics of Dai Hop commune People’s Committee, women from Dai Hop commune started to marry foreign men in 1997, but this became a social issue since 2003, with two trends: getting married to Taiwanese men and Korean men. The number of women marrying Taiwanese men is highest with 487 cases (or 67.54% of total number of women marrying foreign men), next comes women marrying Korean men, with 188 cases (26.07%), and the remaining 46 women marrying men from other nationalities (6.38%). If consideration is made from 2003 – when Dai Hop women started to marry Korean men until August 2009, women marrying Korean men account for 30.2% of the total number of women in Dai Hop commune marrying foreigners. But since 2007, the number of women marrying Taiwanese men tends to decline while the number of women marrying Korean men tends to increase. In the last two years, the number of women marrying Korean men is 2.85 times higher than those marrying Taiwanese men (in 2008) and the figure was 2.36 times (in August 2009).

3. Impacts of women married to Korean men on Vietnamese society

3.1. Economic and social impacts

One of the motivations leading to Vietnamese women marrying foreign men in general and Korean men in particular is the economic factor. As discussed earlier, many young women want to have a better lives not only for themselves but also for their parents and family back in Vietnam, by earning money to remit to their families. Our survey shows that 53% parents having daughters getting married to Korean men say their children have remitted money to their family. The level of remittance is as follows: 8% regularly; 75.3% from time to time, and 17% rarely remit money to their families. Thanks to their remittance, many families in Dai Hop commune have improved their lives (repair of houses, purchase of household furniture and appliances), and some can build big, solid and beautiful houses thanks to the remittance from their daughters. These spacious and beautiful houses are called by the locals “Western Streets”, or “Overseas Villages”. They have also made some contributions to the local community:

“Whenever the village and commune need financial contributions, families whose daughters have got married to foreigners give a bigger amount of money than us. For example, if my family contributes VND 50,000, they will donate VND 500,000 to VND 1 million, sometimes several millions Dongs. They have also made a lot of contributions to the building of the family ancestral worship shrines”.

It is this economic change that influences many parents and their daughters. It seems there is an implicit view that after finishing their schools, their girls will follow their elder sisters to get married to Korean men. As put it by a leader of Dai Hop commune “Now many families have an intention to marry their girls to foreigners that is why they allow them not to do anything, just to study the Korean language and wander around. This is the reason leading to their being lazy, not doing anything and are determined to marry foreign men” (Male, Chair of the commune). Due to the fact that some Vietnamese-Korean marriages are made through match makers, who organize meetings for Korean men to select Vietnamese girls. This leads to a pressing public opinion in the community, offending the dignity of
Vietnamese women and affecting social order and security.

3.2. Impacts on human resources

First of all, the localities having many young women marrying foreigners lose a source of young labor force. This is an important labor force as most of them are between 18 and 30 years of age and are educated. This young labor force is much needed for not only local but also national development because so far tens of thousands of Vietnamese young women have got married to foreign men. The “migration” through this type of international marriages not only causes a loss in young labor force but also creates gender imbalance in the country’s population structure, particularly among young people. This makes the local marriage market difficult as discussed in section 5.4 below.

3.3. Change of conception on the values of boys and girls.

Vietnam is a nation influenced by the ideology of men preference. The conception that sons worship their ancestors has highly valued boys than girls, thus leading to the gender imbalance in childbirths in Vietnam. According to the results of the General Census on Population and Housing in 2009, the sex ratio at birth imbalance in Vietnam was 110 boys/100 girls. In some places, this sex ratio at birth imbalance is more serious. For example, the data processed on a sample of 3% of the results of the General Census on Population and Housing in 2009 show that the sex ratio at birth imbalance in some provinces and cities is very high. Some examples are: Hai Duong, Hung Yen: 120; Bac Giang:115.(Thin, 2009; Central Steering Committee on Population and Housing General Census, 2010)

In the context of international marriages, in Dai Hop commune there is another perception: the idea of boy preference does not have a strong impact as in the past, if not to say there is a “change” in the values as people now value girls more. This is because, their girls, after marrying foreign men, help change their parent family’s life while, if they have many boys, it is difficult to marry them in the village:

“I think today people in the village prefer to have girls so as to marry them to foreign men. Those who have many boys are considered by the locals not be wise in childbirths. That is true. People still want boys, but not many. Having many boys as in my case, I am worried” (Female, age 52, grade 7/10)

3.4. Impacts on domestic marriage market

For several years now, the issue of marriage of young men in Dai Hop commune has become more difficult than in the past. There are many reasons for this, but the most important one is that most of the girls here wish to marry foreign men. As analyzed in the previous section from 1997 to August 2009, the number of young women in Dai Hop commune marrying foreign men rose to 721. This means in the same period, 721 young men in Dai Hop village who reach marriage age found it hard to marry young women in their commune. Thus, at the age of marriage, young men who fail to marry young women in their commune have to seek for girls from other places (see table 3).

Table 3: Situation of marriage of Dai Hop men by territorial areas, 2007-2009 (unit: number people)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>In Dai Hop</th>
<th>Other communes</th>
<th>Other districts</th>
<th>Other provinces</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009 (20/8/2009)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The author totals up and process data on the basis of marriage registration books of Dai Hop commune

Table 3 shows the reality of Dai Hop men getting married to women from other communes, in which only about 32% to 50% of young men can marry women in their commune (in 2007) (in 2008) and 20% (in the first 8 months of 2009). From 2007 to August 2009, of the 277 men registered their marriages, only 31.4% got married to women in the commune, 27.7% got married to women in other communes; 24.5% in other districts and town and 19.8% in other provinces. So, since 2007 about 70% men in Dai Hop commune, for different reasons, have got married to women outside their commune. Statistics of the first 8 months of 2009 show that of the 105 cases certified for marriages, only 14 cases (13.3%) got married in the country.
For men who got married to women in other communes in Kien Thuy district, statistics of marriage registration show that most of them got married to women in neighboring communes such as Tu Son, Doan Xa and Ngu Phuc. Cases of marriages to women in other districts concentrate in the districts of An Lao, Thuy Nguyen, Vinh Bao, and Do Son and An Duong Precincts (Hai Phong City).

Meanwhile, cases of men getting married to women in other provinces are very diverse ranging from the northern provinces of Lao Cai, Tuyen Quang, Lang Son, Phu Tho, Bac Kan to the Red River Delta provinces such as Bac Giang, Hai Duong, Nam Dinh, Thai Binh, Hung Yen, former Ha Tay to the central provinces of Thanh Hoa, Nghe An and Quang Nam.

When the local marriage market becomes more difficult with rare young women in the marriage age, men have to seek for their better half in other places. This is an inevitable rule in marriage and family, particularly in Vietnamese culture, especially in rural areas where people are not used to lead an unmarried life. Looking at the context of the marriage market in Dai Hop commune, there is no exception that the factors such as migration and integration in economic developments contribute to promoting marriages outside their commune. However, it is also noted that although Dai Hop is the most economically developed commune in Kien Thuy district, there are no factories or enterprises located in the commune and there are neither hotels nor restaurants. Thus there are no migrant workers from other parts to Dai Hop commune therefore, at the marriage age men have to seek their love partners from neighboring communes or in other districts and even other provinces. Our statistics show that from 2007 to August 2009, men in Dai Hop commune got married to women from 22 provinces and cities from the central province of Quang Nam to the northern provinces of Lao Cai, Tuyen Quang, and Lang Son. This figure represents 34.92% of provinces and cities in the country. It is known that in the previous years, some men even got married to women from southern provinces, thus the number of provinces and cities having women marrying men in Dai Hop commune is certainly more.

To confirm whether the relation is strong or weak between the trends of women marrying foreign men and men marrying women outside the commune in Dai Hop, it is needed to have further research. However, from initial findings and based on statistics and in-depth interviews, we can point to this relationship.

Table 4: Comparison of women marrying foreign men and men marrying women outside the commune in Dai Hop, 2007-2009 (unit: number people)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009 (8 months)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women marrying foreign</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men marrying women outside the commune</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men and Women marrying in Dai Hop commune</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: the author synthesized and processed of statistics Dai Hop commune

Table 4 shows that men who got married to women in Dai Hop commune only account for 45.7% compared to men marrying women outside their. In another words, every one man getting married to a women in the same commune, there are two men marrying women outside the commune. Meanwhile, the percentage of women marrying men in the commune is only 35.2% of that of women marrying foreign men. This means, the number of women marrying foreign men is three times higher than that of women marrying men in the commune. As an inevitable rule, when the number of young women in the commune declines, men have to seek for their wives from other places. Supposed there was no “wave” of women marrying foreign men, men in Dai Hop commune, at the age of marriage, would not tend to marry women out of their commune as many as it is seen. Obviously, young women in the marriage market in Dai Hop communes becomes more scarce, while most of the young women in the commune tend to seek a farther marriage market – overseas – particularly the two countries of Taiwan and South Korea. This is not to include women marrying men from other parts of the country, thus making young women at marriage age in Dai become scarcer.

Commenting on the phenomenon of women marrying foreign men affecting the marriage opportunities of men, the Secretary of Dai Hop commune Party Organization says:

“The consequence is that the number of women at the age of marriage becomes scarce and thus men, at the age of marriage, have to get married to women outside the commune and some face difficulty in getting married. Along aside with gender imbalance in childbirths, it is certain that men will find it difficult to get married in the coming years”.
In this commune, families having sons, who are at the age of marriage, are very worried, as put it by a mother of a son who is more than 30 years of age:

“I've got three sons - 27, 25 and 23 years. None of them have got a lover yet. I really wish they would marry soon. I want them to get married to women from the village. They are all big built, tall and handsome. No one wants their sons to get married to women outside the village. Because it is less costly to marry local women. Other people who have got sons share my worry. Now if they want to marry, they have to travel to other communes or farther places to seek for their wives”

(Female, 52 years, grade 7, fishing net making).

There are reasons for mothers to worry for their sons’ marriages to women in the same commune, as put it by the Secretary of the commune Party Committee “Young women in Dai Hop say no to marriage to local men”. This statement is famous in Kien Thuy district, Hai Phong City on the trend of marrying foreign men.

In the current context and in five to ten years to come, we forecast that the trend of young women in Dai Hop commune marrying foreign men will not reduce, thus, men in the commune will find it difficult to marry women from their commune. Due to the fact that the marriage market in the commune where “supply” of women is less than “demand”, men here will have to find wives in other markets out of their commune, including in other provinces and cities.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

4.1. Discussion

That is the initial analysis on international Vietnamese - Korean marriages in Dai Hop, an outlying commune of Kien Thuy district, Hai Phong City, from the insiders’ perspective. The most positive impacts of multi-cultural marriages (men marrying women outside their village and women marrying foreign men) are the increase of cultural exchanges and contribution to improving the quality of life (women who married foreign men remit money home for repairing and building houses and purchasing household furniture and appliances ..).

In our opinion, there must be further studies on the issues of marriages and Vietnamese-Korean families in this commune from the marriage market approach. However, the following are some of our discussions:

First, this study shows that marriages in the context of multi-cultures and international integration have taken place very obviously in a coastal commune. This multi-culture is not only expressed in domestic marriages (men marrying women from 22 provinces and cities) but also in international marriages (women from Dai Hop marrying men from 12 countries in Asia, Europe and North America, mostly Taiwan and Korea).

Second, the study contributes to confirming that marriages in the multi-cultural context are an inevitable trend and take place under the influences of many factors – economic, cultural and social – as well as the change in the traditional conception, values and norms on marriage and family. Prevention and prohibition of this trend is not feasible and voluntarist and violates the freedom of marriage.

Third, on theoretical approach on the marriage market and from the above case study it is noted that the impact of the scarcity of women in the Supply-Demand rule in the marriages of men. This can be considered a major challenge to young men, who want to seek their love partners in their village. This challenge will be more serious in the context of gender imbalance in childbirths in Vietnam. According to UN population specialists, “The absolute difference in the male-female population structure in Vietnam in 2050 will be about 2.3 to 4.5 million persons” (UNFPA, 2009: 46).

Fourth, from the previous points, there will be a pressure to young men, particularly to parents who have sons in the marriage age, worrying for their sons’ marriages. The scarcity of young women also lead to other social consequences, possibly leading to “competition” or “fight” for young women during the process of seeking for wives. This will possibly lead to fighting, violence, and crimes only because of women. In some rural areas in Vietnam there is a phenomenon of “blockading village young women”, not allowing men from other parts to come to flirt their village young women (Thinh, 2008).

Fifth, the development of the marriage market in Dai Hop commune will create multi-cultural families. It is the combination of sub-cultures (domestic marriages, spouses from other parts) or the combination of different cultures (foreign-related marriages). With the “multi-cultural” families in this sense, it might lead to conflicts and domestic violence due to differences in sub-cultures between regions and ethnic groups (in case of domestic marriages) or language barriers, differences in customs and traditions and lifestyles (in case of foreign-related marriages). This will possibly increase the risk of disagreement and conflicts in the married life between spouses and between family members, leading to domestic violence, divorce, mixed children coming back to Vietnam and difficulties in the lives of children and in their
Sixth, the remittance of women who got married to foreign men to their families to purchase household appliances or repair and build houses creates “new streets” and “overseas villages”. This improvement in the living conditions not only creates a social stratification in the living standards but also affects families who have got daughters. They all want to have foreign sons-in-law and they are “investing” in their girls (girls do not have to work, drop out of upper secondary schools, wear beautiful dresses, learn cooking and Korean or Taiwanese languages) so as to seek for foreign men as husbands. This leads to the trend in which young girls have a “dream to change their lives” through marriage with foreign men, even though they are not sure whether their married life will be good or bad.

Seventh, the “multi-cultural” marriage is also a problem for local authorities in social management. This is because of the movements, visits and temporary presence and temporary absence of members of families whose daughters have got married to foreign men and men marrying women outside the commune. This is even more difficult when people are not used to reporting their temporary absence and presence.

4.2. Conclusion

As discussed earlier, this study is the first one in Vietnam on international Vietnamese-Korean marriages from the insiders’ perspectives. International Vietnamese-Korean marriages have both positive and negative impacts, but it is a normal phenomenon which is influenced by the process of globalization, particularly the process of Vietnam’s integration into the world.

It is the internationally married families that serve as a bridge in strengthening the relationship between Vietnam and Korea. And the generation of their children – if they are given sufficient attention – will have good understanding of the cultures, languages of the two countries and will make a positive contribution to preserving and developing the Vietnamese–Korean friendship.

In our opinion, international marriages in general and Vietnamese-Korean marriages in particular should not be prevented or limited in number. But it is necessary to prevent illegal marriage match makers and serious sanctions should be applied against those who misuse international marriages to get benefits and deceive Vietnamese girls (and also Korean men) in marriage. Strong punishment should be given to those who misuse international marriages to traffic women and deceive Vietnamese girls into international prostitution.

What is important is that Vietnamese Government and South Korean Government should together with social organizations make further efforts in taking measures to support international Vietnamese-Korean marriages to make them more significant and truly valuable, and to have a really happy and sustainable married life. To this end, it is needed to educate citizens of the two countries, particularly those who want to have international Vietnamese-Korean marriages to learn about the cultures, laws, marriage and family and customs and traditions and religions of the two countries and have full information and understanding of their future spouses.

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