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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 offer 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:

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Recent Studies on Byzantine Sigillography in Turkey

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Abstract

This paper will focus on the recent studies on Byzantine sigillography which are taken place in Turkey. Although, Turkey should be considered as one of the heirs of Byzantine Empire, the studies which focus on byzantine lead seals are extremely rare. First part of this paper will summarize on the history of sigillography in Turkey which gained a new momentum for the last five years. Studies on the subject became very popular among young scholars mainly after the lecture that was given by French scholar Jean-Claude Cheynet from Sorbonne University. Cheynet’s lecture on Byzantine sigillography was presented in 2008 and the international project called SigiDoc started after it. This project aims to create a database which can be accessible by every scholars. Within this project the first publication is on Istanbul Archeological Museum’s lead seal collection was published in 2012. During the preparative and editorial unfortunately we came across the poor conservation conditions of this important collection. The last part of the present paper will give brief information on the latest studies through the world on sigillography which are computer-based.

Keywords: seals, Byzantine, Turkey.

At first, it is possible to give some brief information of the seals and their characteristics during the reign of Byzantine Empire. Most of them were made of lead. Also, as far as one may know there were various samples of wax seals but since the material was quite fragile we do not have any which are suitable to examine. Another material of the seals was silver, but they are also rare since costs of the production of silver seals were so high. According to Oikonomides, traditional materials for seal were wax and clay, but under the Romans lead seals began to be used (Oikonomides, 1985, p. 3). Majority of the lead seals were in use from 6th century till the end of the Byzantine Empire in 15th century. Roman Empire used seals for commercial purposes, Byzantines used them extensively for various reasons, such as military, civil, religious, imperial, administrative and commercial works (Cheynet & Caseau, 2009, p. 134). On the other hand, the main purpose of sealing was never changed, it was stood for signature and it was the guarantee of the document in question wasn’t opened by unauthorized people.

In 2011, The International Congress on Byzantine Studies held in Sofia, there was a round table meeting on Byzantine sigillography. Ivan Jordanov, who is one of the leading scholar in Byzantine Sigillography mentioned that the earliest studies on Byzantine sigillography in Bulgaria goes back to the beginning of the 20th century (Jordanov, 2011, p. 101)

Unfortunately, studies on Byzantine sigillography quite unpopular in Turkey, even though most of the seals originated from those lands. Moreover, there is this one book on the subject in Turkish, which was written by Vera Bulgurlu in 2007. Bulgurlu’s book included only one the part of lead seal collection of the Istanbul Archeological Museum (Bulgurlu, 2007). This book was the re-print of the Bulgurlu’s PhD dissertation. In addition, the articles that were about the Byzantine sigillography were also a few in numbers, among them we should mention one more particular name. Turan Gökyıldırım, who had published several articles on Byzantine lead seals is an archeologist and also the former head of the seal section. On the other hand, it is a pleasing improvement that we can talk about a growing interest on Byzantine seals among young scholars.

In 2008, Jean Claude Cheynet, who is one of the most important sigillographer and a professor in Sorbonne University had a conference in Istanbul. This conference can be considered a beginning of a new epoch in Byzantine sigillography studies in Turkey. Cheynet not only talked about lead seals in general but also he presented a new project called SigiDoc. SigiDoc project can be described as to create a worldwide database that inclusions all the seals and keeps them ready for examinations by the scholars. Under the light of this brief introduction one should also explain the details of SigiDoc project. First of all, it is one part of EpiDoc project which can be defined as entering epigraphic documents
into a shared database. It aims to create a common alphabet and common ligature in order to serve to the every sigillographers. It is possible to claim that this database is created partially by Dumbarton Oaks Research Center. Dumbarton Oaks prepared a database of its entire collection and composed an alphabet which was called *athena ruby*. Along with this alphabet, this study offers a list of bibliography, ligatures and a dictionary. Moreover, it aims to cover 17,000 seals when it is completed.

*Photo 1. Dumbarton Oaks Research Center (www.doaks.org)*

In addition, there is also another study under the Prosopography in Byzantine World. This project is also covers various museum and private lead seal collections, including Istanbul, Tarsus and Selçuk museums’ collections.

*Photo 2. Dumbarton Oaks Research Center (www.doaks.org)*

*Photo 3. Prosopography of Byzantine World (http://db.pbw.kcl.ac.uk/jsp/index.jsp)*
As the first step of the SigiDoc project, a new book was published by Cheynet, Gökyıldırım and Bulgurlu under the editorialship of E.G. Erdoğan. This book includes almost the entire lead seal collection of the Istanbul Archeological Museum (Cheynet, Gökyıldırım & Bulgurlu, 2012). During the long process of composing this book, we had a chance to observe the conservation circumstances of the Istanbul Archaeological Museum. Most of the specimens are kept in the basic lockers which were made up oak most probably in 1950’s. But the oak is a material that may have chemical reactions with the lead and caused corrosion. This paved the way for disappearance of the letters and icons surprisingly in a very short time.

Consequently, museum lead seal collections in Turkey acquired mostly through confiscations or donations not by excavations. During the research process of the issued study, personally witnessed the increasing interest of the lead seal in Turkey. It is possible to mention some web pages which displays various samples from museums tagged with the prices. It is really hard to distinguish that whether they serve for the scholars or for the smugglers.

References

The Dimensions of a Conflict: the Case of Macedonia.

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Abstract

The region of Balkan is still considered as fragile with nations that have not finished the state-formation and with conflicts that are still alive and actual. The central problematic of the Balkan of the last twenty years was the former republic of Yugoslavia, after the dissolution of which these conflicts were fomented even more, while Bosnia at the beginning of the nineties witnessed the hardest war of all the other Yugoslavian countries, Macedonia escaped from this war and witnessed only a short-period interethnic conflict in 2001. The armed conflict between the Macedonian and Albanian forces reinforced the relationship and cooperation with EU and put an end to the Ohrid Framework Agreement in 2001. Macedonia still functions as a mono-ethnic state, even though the spirit of the Ohrid Framework Agreement was the construction of the civilian state and the two main principles were to respect the cultural identity and the equal rights of all citizens. In this context, the aim of this study is to analyze the dimension of the ethnic conflicts in Macedonia during two periods, before year 2001 and after this year, based on the three theoretical perspectives: the conflict management theory, the conflict resolution theory and the conflict transformation theory. According to many researchers of this issue the Ohrid Framework Agreement was an compromise to resolve the conflict where international actors were attempting to resolve the tensions between the Albanian and Macedonian ethnic communities and according to some other researchers the Ohrid Framework Agreement put an end to the conflict, but it did not put an end to the sources of this conflict.

Keywords: ethnic conflict, Ohrid Framework Agreement, conflict resolution, conflict theories

1. Introduction

The Republic of Macedonia is one of the countries born out of the dissolution of Yugoslavia, a process that caused interethnic and inter-religious conflicts, social traumas and a very pessimistic picture for the future of the Balkan and its inhabitants. The crisis was very complex and was characterized by a tension curb of progressive conflicts, starting with the detachment of Slovenia, Croatia and Macedonia in 1991, going on with the climax of the crisis of Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1994-1995, and reaching its climax in 1998-1999 with the crisis of Kosovo and at last with the interethnic conflict of 2001 in Macedonia, between the national army and the Albanian guerrillas, that saw the end with the Framework Agreement signed in Ohrid on August 13 of the same year. The aim of this agreement was to put the Albanian community on the same level of the rest of the citizens, by recognizing their language as co-official in the municipalities with more than 20% of Albanian population and guaranteeing a major presence in the institutions.

"Generally speaking, the grants given by the Ohrid Agreement have not created a condition of full equality between Albanians and Macedonians. The Ohrid Framework Agreement put an end to the conflict, but it did not put an end to the sources of this conflict." (Reka, B 2007)

Many researchers have made different analyses based on different perspectives and we can say that in all the studies of the conflict there exists a vacuum and still does not exist an all-embracing theory which explains all the causes of the conflict. The methodology of the analyses is based on the historical aspect of the conflict, the main problem and the participative parties in an international and regional level, and also on the experiences gained from the previous conflicts. Balkan’s postwar societies, and especially the Macedonia case, render the picture of being powerless in the constructive approach towards conflicts, embracing the approach of entering the conflicts spiral, which for one moment was interrupted only by the influence of external forces whereas the conflict is still active and burning itself and still results, but in another level, being further sustained by powerful structures.

The conflicts in Macedonia have taken different shapes and frames during the different historical, social and political phases. "When talking about interethnic relationships in Macedonia, it is about a pretty sensitive and flexible problem which entwists itself in all the pores of life beginning from the family and ending with the governmental institutions. This problem’s actuality is and will always be present up to the moment these problems will be properly worked out." (Maliqi 2001, 26)"So, what we see, nowadays, Macedonia is a country composed of two virtual parallel
societies for ethnic Macedonians and ethnic Albanians, that have neither a way, nor intention to communicate and interact with each other, with the end result of a vicious circle misunderstandings prejudices and an ever high tension."

"The last incidents in Macedonia memorialized the fact that the interethnic tensions, unfortunately, don't belong only to the past. But, a decade after its signing, the Ohrid Framework Agreement has not yet been fully implemented, and the tensions between the two major ethnic groups are still very much present. Consequently naturally the question arises: can conflicts be prevented, resolved, managed or transformed into new shapes and structures?

2. The conflict theories

Since the conflicts mark a turning point in the social life, with great consequences and implications in people’s lives, their knowledge and treatment still remain a priority task to the states that aspire a democratic society. The most difficult conflict types are those in which abstract elements are included, such as ethnic hatred, religious zeal or ideology. The connotation of ethnic conflicts is not based on tangible issues concerning what someone does but it is based on abstract issues concerning what someone is. (Goldeshtein 2001, p 214).

Ethnically diverse societies carry various degrees of conflict potential. Ethnic emotions, rooted in historical memories of grievances, are at the core of conflict potential. Ethnicity, as Horowitz argues, “embodies an element of emotional intensity that can be readily aroused when the group’s interests are thought to be at stake.” (Horowitz 1985, p 59).

All multi-ethnic societies, when subject to a convergence of a particular set of factors and conditions, carry the potential of ethnic conflict. Under the stress of a major structural change that brings a sense of chaos and uncertainty, the consciousness of historically rooted ethnic identities and emotions are employed as vehicles to ethnic violence for political purposes. Viewing historically rooted ethnic animosities as the only cause of conflict is insufficient. As Ganguly argues, “A proper understanding of the causes of ethnic political mobilization and conflict is crucial, and we must move beyond simplistic discussions of ‘ancient hatreds’ to search for more systematic explanations.” (Ganguly 1995, p 49).

"The context of conflict includes the society in conflict and the wider international and regional level. Within the society, crucial background aspects are culture, governance arrangements, institutions, social roles, norms, the rules and codes in place in a society, and its path of development. For example, in conflicts involving ethnicity, minorities or challenges to state structures, it is the very structure of the state that is at issue.” (Miall 2004, p 8). A special discussion over conflicts is given by three separate schools with approaches different conceptualizations of conflict. (Miall 2004, p 15)

In Miall’s analysis Conflict transformation theorists argue that contemporary conflicts require more than the reframing of positions and the identification of win-win outcomes. The very structure of parties and relationships may be embedded in a pattern of conflictual relationships that extend beyond the particular site of conflict. Conflict transformation is therefore a process of engaging with and transforming the relationships, interests, discourses and, if necessary, the very constitution of society that supports the continuation of violent conflict. Constructive conflict is seen as a vital agent or catalyst for change. People within the conflict parties, within the society or region affected, and outsiders with relevant human and material resources all have complementary roles to play in the long-term process of peace-building. This suggests a comprehensive and wide-ranging approach, emphasizing support for groups within the society in conflict rather than for the mediation of outsiders. It also recognizes that conflicts are transformed gradually, through a series of smaller or larger changes as well as specific steps by means of which a variety of actors may play important roles.

In Miall’s analysis conflict management theorists see violent conflicts as an ineradicable consequence of differences of values and interests within and between communities. The propensity to violence arises from existing institutions and historical relationships, as well as from the established distribution of power. Resolving such conflicts is viewed as unrealistic: the best that can be done is to manage and contain them, and occasionally to reach a historic compromise in which violence may be laid aside and normal politics resumed. Conflict management is the art of appropriate intervention to achieve political settlements, particularly by those powerful actors having the power and resources to bring pressure on the conflicting parties in order to induce them to settle. It is also the art of designing appropriate institutions to guide the inevitable conflict into appropriate channels.

In Miall’s analysis Conflict resolution theorists, in contrast, reject this power political view of conflict, arguing instead that in communal and identity conflicts, people cannot compromise on their fundamental needs. However, they argue that it is possible to transcend conflicts if parties can be helped to explore, analyze, question and reframe their

positions and interests. Conflict resolution therefore emphasizes intervention by skilled but powerless third-parties working unofficially with the parties to foster new thinking and new relationships. They seek to explore what the roots of the conflict really are and to identify creative solutions that the parties may have missed in their commitment to entrenched positions. Conflict resolution is about how parties can move from zero sum, destructive patterns of conflict to positive-sum constructive outcomes. The aim is to develop processes of conflict resolution that appear to be acceptable to parties in dispute, and effective in resolving conflict.

Many researchers have made different analyses based on different perspectives and we can say that in all the studies of the conflict there exists a vacuum and still does not exist an all-embracing theory which explains all the causes of the conflict.

3. Analysis of ethnic conflicts in Macedonia before the Ohrid Framework Agreement

The Republic of Macedonia is one of the countries born out of the dissolution of Yugoslavia, a process that caused interethnic and inter-religious conflicts, societal traumas and a very pessimistic picture for the future of the Balkans and its inhabitants. It cannot be said that interethnic conflicts between the Albanians and the Macedonians have started in 2001, which means that this problematic has its historical dimension. In retrospective, ethnic conflicts in Macedonia generated in 1913. The Conference of London, which ended the 1912-1913 Balkan War, gave birth to the Albanian State, whereas Macedonia became part of Serbia. Macedonia included a portion of territory, the western regions, populated by Albanians, which, following the logic we saw above should have been given to Albania. After the Second World War, the Macedonian population had highly grown, especially the Albanians. Between 1953 and 2001, the Albanians had grown by 31.3%, from 12.4% to 25% of the population.

Macedonia’s recent history can be divided into two main periods: the communist era 1945-1990 and the independent society 1991 to now. The second period, that of independence, also can be treated as two phases: before the conflict 2001 - or before Ohrid Agreement and after 2001. The Ohrid Agreement is especially important because it changed the character of the state from a mono-ethnic to multi-ethnic society and institutionalized the multicultural character of Macedonian society, effectively turning Macedonia into a multicultural state. Macedonia is an emphatically multiethnic country, which implies the fact that it is a multilingual setting where different ethnicities live: Macedonians, Albanians, Serbs, Vlachs, Roma, Bulgarians, and in which different languages are spoken: Macedonian, Albanian, Turkish, Serbian, Vlach, Bulgarian, and Romani.

The continual conflicts in Macedonia have been ethnic conflicts between Macedonians and Albanians. One of the sources of the deteriorated interethnic relationships between the Albanians and the Macedonians was an offspring of the failure to resolve the judicial constitutional status of the Albanians in Macedonia, where in the preamble of the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia states that: “Macedonia is established as a national state of the Macedonian people, in which full equality and permanent co-existence with the Macedonian people is provided to Albanian, Turks, Vlachs, Roma and other nationalities living in the Republic of Macedonia”. Starting from this fact, for a long period of time Macedonia suffered a political crisis with significant interethnic elements and considering it as a generator of this crisis, even for the conflict of 2001 it was the unitary character of the state which favors a nation, a language and a religion, the Orthodox, sanctioned in the Constitution of 1991, which presented a continual risk to the future of Macedonia as a state. (Fejziu 2012, p, 78)

Earlier, the constitution of the Socialist Federal Republic, adopted in 1945, recognized the right of the Albanian community to be culturally autonomous and use their language, and the Communist Party had tried to integrate the Albanians with educational trainings and professional opportunities. This policy started to change in 1989, when, like in Kosovo, even in Macedonia the Albanians were no longer allowed to express their culture. The writings in their language were removed from the billboards, and the Albanian given names were forbidden. The prohibition for the Albanians to have more than two children was also introduced.

Analyzing the sources of the interethnic conflicts between the Albanians and the Macedonians according to a chronology, from 1974, this was a year of hope for the Albanians of Macedonia, who with the constitution of year 1974 gained an equal status to the Macedonians and were a consecutive element of the state. Unfortunately, the rights of the Albanians in Macedonia remained only in a theoretical character, and never did these rights appear to be operational. Year 1981 was also a year full of negative repercussions to the Albanians of Macedonia where begins an unprecedented

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repression towards them and especially towards the intelligence, which reaches its climax in 1989, a year which is considered in the south-eastern Europe as the period of political and economical changes, namely the revolution of this part of Europe. The totalitarian character of the previous system was unable to resolve the national Albanian issue. The failure to respect the fundamental rights and freedoms, the domination and the superior position of the majority ethnic group, and also the inferior position of the minority ethnic group with special emphasis the position of the Albanians, and the systematical repression towards them, all this resulted in the collapse of that system.

"After the collapse of the totalitarian systems again the issue was open: would the people that had lived in these famous communions have the right of self determination? This right was allowed to all the people of the ex-Yugoslavian space whereas to the Albanians it was denied. The events that took place in ex-Yugoslavia, with all their turbulences were reflected in Macedonia too, and especially the interethnic tensions and frictions between the Albanians and the Macedonians should be taken into account, as two major ethnic groups" (Maliqi 2001, p 54).

The implementation of the Framework Agreement- signed in Ohrid in August 13, 2002 still remains the measuring tool of the progress in Macedonia from the mutual conflict to the democratic stability. "But, ten years after its signing, the Ohrid Framework Agreement has not yet been fully implemented, and the tensions between the two major ethnic groups are still very much present" (Reka,B 2007.)

4. Why did the conflict in Macedonia arise after the Ohrid Framework Agreement?

The war in Macedonia was the only case from the wars in the former Yugoslavia which did not occur for territories, but for the status of state-building and equal rights to all its citizens.

“The Agreement guarantees the introduction of participative mechanisms when making decisions related to the communities’ identity; equitable representation of the members of non-majority communities in the public administration; a high level of decentralization; promotion of the official use of non-majority languages and alphabet, as well as the communities’ symbols; and higher education in the language of the non-majority communities that represent at least 20% of the population. As a result the implementation of the Ohrid Framework Agreement represents one of the guarantees for the multicultural and inter-ethnic co-existence on Macedonia and is on the main priorities for the EU integration and for the Macedonian government according to the Framework Agreement Plan adopted in 2003.”

While analyzing the dimensions of different conflicts Miall analyze the conflict in Macedonia in 2001, interpreting it as a Cooperative Multi-Track Diplomacy relying on the theorists of conflict transformation: Macedonia offers a case in which the various initiatives of different tracks appear to have been genuinely complementary. For example, the OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities (external Track I) together with the Open Society Institute in Skopje (internal Track III) proposed several compromise solutions on the university issue (Miall 2001,15) “Is the Ohrid Framework Agreement a political agreement (signed by legitimate political leaders of the ethnic Macedonian and ethnic Albanian political parties) or a peace agreement (signed under the mediation of EU and US representatives, ending the violent confrontation of security forces and National Liberation Army)?” (Ackermann 2001, pp117-135). If on an Albanian interpretation, the OFA was a settlement of a long-running mostly non-violent conflict based on state exclusion of the Albanian population, on a Macedonian interpretation it is primarily a peace agreement, whereby Macedonian state is pressured by the international community to concede considerable political ground (Hislope 2003).

In an analysis the Albanian researcher Reka.B (2011) stresses two periods which do not treat the problem in the same context. The first period: 2002-2006, we might say, was a satisfactory period for the Implementation of the Ohrid Framework Agreement. During the first four years, the Ohrid Agreement was mainly implemented but it did not meet the imposed implementation deadline of 2004. The second period: 2006-2010, noted serious shortcomings in the implementation of the Ohrid Framework Agreement, and it set aside the inter-ethnic relations. The main focus during these four years was mainly concentrated on the so-called “name dispute”, hence neglecting the conflict for the state. The issue of the name was imposed before the state, although the conflict in 2001 did not begin due to the name but because of the discriminatory position of the Albanians in Macedonia. With such a shift of political priorities – after four years, under the pressure of the so-called “resolving name dispute with Greece”, the implementation of the Ohrid Framework Agreement was left aside even in this second period. The Ohrid Framework Agreement put an end to the conflict, but it did not put an end to the sources of this conflict. (Reka.B 2011,14).

Furthermore ten years after the Ohrid Framework Agreement the results of the Center for Inter-ethnic Tolerance say that the inter-ethnic relations in Macedonia are approaching a conflict. According to this centre, above 70% of the

citizens say that the inter-ethnic tensions have increased, whereas only 20% of them say that they are at a good level. According to the leaders of this Centre, similar results have been met also in the conflict in 2001. The questionnaire shows that the Albanians are upset that a mosque is not built in the centre of Skopje; the Macedonian pupils refuse to learn Albanian and the Roma have repeated that they feel themselves to be second-rate citizens.\(^5\)

According to a study of UNDP for the Interethnic Tensions in Macedonia results that the inter-ethnic tensions are still present and the main threats to the good inter-ethnic relations are still existing and effective. The level of estimated danger for an ethnic-based conflict in the country is rather low, but it varies from one ethnicity to the other. Ethnic Macedonians believe that the risk is greater, probably because they still experience the inter-ethnic relations as rather poor and look upon the ethnic Albanians as potential source of violence. Ethnic Albanians do not see danger, probably because they perceive the interethnic relations mainly as good and believe that the reasons for a violent conflict have already been removed. There are more optimists among the ethnic Albanians when it comes to improvement of the inter-ethnic relations, than among the ethnic Macedonians.\(^6\)

The US State Department Human Rights Report for year 2009 states that during the last year the support that the state gave to the construction of the Orthodox church in the centre of the capital has tensioned the interethnic relations, and has generated issues related to the separation of the Church from the State (Human Rights Report: Macedonia, 2009).

Another fact that serves as a reason why the ethnic Albanian-Macedonian relations are so tensioned is related to the fact that one of the Macedonian culture centrisms “products” was the publishing of the “Macedonian Encyclopedia”, prepared Macedonian Academy Of Arts and Sciences and financed by the government. This two-volume book offends the Albanians by calling them, mountain people (mountaineers) etc., and describing them as vandals who have upset the Macedonians; thus it is a text which highly deteriorated inter-ethnic relations.\(^7\)

The senior commissioner of the OSCE for the minorities, Knut Volebek, said that: “The flag burning, expressing hatred language, and also the violence shown towards the religious monuments, talk about a politics, which, if not prevented, can present a serious problem about the democratic developments in the country”. The last incidents are indicators that there are tensions and that little are needed for the situation to be aggravated and to get out of control. The last incidents in Struga commemorated that interethnic tensions, unfortunately, do not belong to the past. If they are not greatly hindered, they represent a threat to the society in general in Macedonia.\(^8\)

5. Conclusions

Since the conflicts mark a turning point in the social life, with great consequences and implications in peoples’ lives, their knowledge and treatment still remain a priority task to the states that aspire a democratic society. Ethnic conflict is a case by case story and a complex phenomenon.\(^{[Crocker 1995]}\) There is no single cookie-cutter approach that will work, Crocker argues that “the important point is that those who decide to intervene have an obligation to develop their own definition of success, and to keep it firmly in mind while laboring to avoid becoming part of the problem and making things worse.”\(^{[Crocker 1995]}\) The Ohrid Framework Agreement was a document that emerged from the conflict of 2001 and was based mainly in the compromise between parties and objectively it could not offer a definitive solution for the juridical constitutional position of the Albanians, from the minority position to that of the equal nation with the Macedonians. These two entities should go towards the finding of a consensus to cohabit. To build good interethnic relationships, the Macedonian politics and the State Leadership should change the approach towards the Albanian ethnicity. Considering these theoretical basis is noticed that nowadays Macedonia needs a reformation, for an education with cosmopolitan concepts, because it is still charged with ego-centric, ethno-nationalist concepts, that have remained from its past. This change can be made by the European Union working with the institutions of the state of Macedonia, by guiding them toward the multiculturalism, the cosmopolitanism, the modernism etc. The building of these relationships between the Albanian and Macedonian ethnicity, has to be organized with the support of all the social categories, from the political, intellectual elite, the EU, the local and international nongovernmental organizations. “The different ethnic identities are not artificially created; therefore they should not be ignored. The language, the writing, the religion, the symbols are very


important to people because they talk about their identity. For a long time, the usage of the Albanian language in the institutions, the right to education in mother tongue, the usage of the national flag was denied to the Albanians; even violence was used to prohibit them from exercising these vital rights.” (Maleska, Hristova, 2006, p. 100) What can be said is that there is no time for the arising of ethnic conflicts neither in Macedonia nor in Balkan, given that Balkan was in conflict for centuries.

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Theories of Roma Origins and the Bengal Linkage

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Abstract

Roma, also known as Gypsies, are the people who started migrating from India to West (through West Asian and Central Asian States) long back in the tenth or eleventh century till the late medieval times. The migration took place at different phases of history which is still under scrutiny. It is an established fact now that a good number of them were enslaved by Mahmud Gajni during his raids on India (1000 A.D to 1026 A.D.). There are many theories of Roma origin and migration today but the Kanauj Theory is considered to be more realistic. However, the author contends that since Roma migration is not a onetime exodus as believed by many their origin owes to multiple of movements and kingly acts over the centuries. They are not only from the north-west of India or Kanauj rather from East of India too (Bengal) and also the result of sale of slaves by the kings in medieval times to the land of their origins.

Today, when it comes to the old migrations from India most of the writings and studies keep silent about Roma in Europe because for a long time they were mistook as a people from Egypt. Since many of the Roma groups reached Eastern Europe through Mediterranean and Egypt they were identified as people from Egypt and described as Gypsies. Even today Roma are also known as gypsies in Europe. It was in the mid of nineteenth century that their Indian origin was established.

Cultural derivations primarily owe to the socio-economic structure and the long preserved values and patterns of life of a society. Since Roma are the people who have been identified, of course evidentially, with their Indian linkage, the society and the occupational engagements they exhibit are quite apparent.

Rena Colbert (Clebert) offers a large list of gypsy occupations where he derivates certain most common occupations of the community, "with a few variations, the gypsies are first and foremost smiths and workers in metal, musicians and mountebanks, horse-coppers and dealers and exhibitors of animals and fortune-tellers". With the passage of time the changing scenario has brought a significant shift in the occupational patterns of the gypsies. The newly emerged patterns largely rely on the changed socio-economic conditions, means of communications and transportation and the construction and repair works. Gypsies are mostly peddlers, tin workers, gutter makers, metal workers, peg makers, hawkers, horse traders (now second hand motor sellers), animal trainers, entertainers and fortune tellers.

What is more significant and a matter of concern for the members of the Roma community is the loss of distinct identity and culture in the different regions of Europe and America. Although, the Roma had in general a common cultural tradition (social interaction, values, marriage ceremonies, beliefs and occupation) intervened by their varying experiences over the centuries in different regions, yet with the advent of modernity and globalization their socio-economic structure is undergoing a huge transformation. This might bring more prosperity and development to the Roma but in the trail would certainly be the cultural lag and decline.

Now the problems are multi-pronged about the issue of culture and the rights of Gypsies since there is a huge variation about the common perception about them in different states and people. Within the state-systems there are established lines of thought which think otherwise i.e. total extinction of the minority from their national map or deliberate extraction of the people and their forceful expulsion from the national territories without having any concern for the human values and respect for international law. For this purpose almost all the states of Europe and West are engaged in clandestine ethnic census guided by the motive of ethnic cleansing, as feared by many Romas.

However the prime objective of the paper is to investigate the theories of Roma origins. Roma migration constitutes one of the biggest migrations from the different parts of India over a millennium back. The exact time of the migration is still under scrutiny but it is largely agreed upon by the scholars and historians that the migration took place at different phases instead of being a onetime exodus.
The history of Roma people is now but conspicuous as there is a huge stock of literature referring to the incessant migration from the Indian mainland, especially from the north-west India. But to have a deeper insight into the historical movement in either way, one has to have enough information about the history of India and vice-versa.

To take the history, culture and state of society of Roma it would be quite difficult to assess the community in its holistic character. Needless to say that the huge spillover of the community in the past while migrating to Middle East and different parts of Europe has gathered a wide range of characteristics thus locally, regionally and continentally contextualizing the broader shades of Roma culture. In the process of continuous movement of the community (partially because of its historic traditions and nomadic character and largely because of ruthless non-acceptance by the states they entered in) a good deal of cultural part was lost. Still the Roma as a community share some strong cultural heritage and of late there have been some serious attempts at its preservation.

The earliest accounts throwing some light on the history of Roma migration seem to be wrestled over by the scholars today. They take inferences from the various accounts, travelogues and regional epithets and literature about the Roma exodus from India. Not only is there dearth of unanimity over whether it was a single compact move by Roma or a fragmented departure from India but even over the time of actual departure.

Regarding the exodus of Roma from India the argument of Ian Hancock leaves a huge space for debate because of lack of evidential support. Ian Hancock and few others see it as a single migration out of India and the consequent split or a fragmented departure from India but even over the time of actual departure.

The argument seems too fragile to be taken seriously as the availability of information about the migration is a multi-point. In fact, the subject is so complex and the data fluid that it is not so easy to arrive at a conclusion exactly.

To come up with the conventional testament it would be useful to take a few. Some of the earliest accounts that history offers us are of Firdausi’s Shahnama and Hamza’s History of Sassanides. Infact, Hamza wrote few decades before Firdausi and held that Berham Gour, a Persian Monarch received about 12000 musicians (both male and females) mostly Jatts for the entertainment of its subjects. Even today the gypsies of Arab of Damascas are known as Zott, a deviation of the Indian word Jatt. The Arabic dictionary Al-Kamus also defines the word Zott as Jatt Arabicised, a word of Indian origin.

Firdausi’s Shahnama also informs us about the same event. It tells us that the musicians that Berham Gour received were known as Luris. The Gypsies of Persia are even today known by Luris and this is widely acknowledged fact that they are descendents of musicians. Now the references apart about the Luris or Zott this is a hard reality that the community in its present scenario is also quite popular among many Roma scholars. Jats are primarily farmers (exceptions in profession are there) in north India, a community spread over greater Punjab (now includes region of Indian and Pakistani Punjab, Haryana and parts of Himachal Pradesh) and Rajasthan. Michael Jan de Goje (1862-1909), a renowned scholar of Arabian culture, and some Indian linguists like V.R. Rishi, Pyare Lai, G.S. Pathania, Dev Bhardwaj and Pakistani scholar Khurshid Ahmed Khan also deposit faith in the said theory.
One of the argument known as *Rajput Theory* is by J. Kochanowski and W.R. Rishi who hold that the defeated army of Rajputs (from Mohammed Gauri in 1192) split into three groups and the third group, the wandering one, later escaped into Afghanistan and consequently to other parts of Middle East and the Balkans.

However, *Jat* in India are not only a people living in the above mentioned areas and states. Even today there is a community known as *Jatt Ghumantu,* a nomadic tribe that keeps on moving largely in the deserts of Rajasthan and parts of northern Gujarat. These people move in caravans and are dependent on the services of camel, flocks of sheep and some sundry items for sale. They claim this mode of life for centuries and reasons they attribute for this are harshness of the weather and infertility of the land. (Even today *Jatt Ghumantus* can be found in the said regions)

There are several deviations and twists in the theory in the sense that for many *Jats* originally were Aryans who moved from Eurasia to North India in the early past and then there was a boomerang situation with reversal of the community to the places of its origination. *Jats* came to India in 6th century BC. The whole exercise incorporates historically wide alliterations ranging from Aryan move eastward to the nomadic movements and human traffic westward. However, this would be confounding to draw a line of similarity between the Aryan movement and the Gypsy migration since the latter took place quite late in the sequence of events.

Besides the lexical evidences there are lots of resemblances and traces (anthropological) that people confuse with the Roma. In the long history of Roma there is probability of a partial communal confluence at different junctures of time. The evolution of physical features like the Egyptian and Indian (skull of many Romas like the Egyptian one or like the Hindu one) is to some extent hypothetical in nature but with the probabilities of possible occurrence. (Johann Friedrich Bluemenbach, a German anthropologist and Weissenbach believe in the Egyptian shape of the Roma skull while Isidor Kopernicki and A. Olevak are of the view that Roma head is hardly different from the one of Hindus. Eugene Pittard is also of the view of Roma's Indian origin. Babu Rajendra Lai Mitra believes that Roma are most close to the Bedya people of West Bengal) Within India the hypotheses doesn't approve of the single origin from Rajasthan, Punjab or Uttar Pradesh. *If Jats* are mainly from Punjab *Banjaras* and *Rajputs* are from Rajasthan and Bedyas from Bengal.

Among many scholars the *Kannauj Theory* is also quite popular. The advocates of this theory hold that in the winters of 1018-19, a raiding force came from Ghazni (now in Afghanistan) and captured the population of Kannauj. They sold the captured people as slaves. It was not the Sultan's first raid, but the previous ones had reached only as far as Punjab and Rajasthan. This time he moved on to Kannauj, a major city of more than 50,000 inhabitants, and on 20 December 1018, captured the entire population, 'rich and poor, light and dark ... most of them 'nobles, artists and craftsmen' to sell them, 'entire families', in Ghazni and Kabul. Later, according to the same text, Khorassan and Iraq appeared to be 'full of this population'. The theory of Kannauj seems to have many drawbacks since there are multiple dimensions of the Roma's Kannauj link. Besides Gaznavi's intrusions and enslavement at Kannauj it is worthwhile to note that Kannauj was under the occupation of Sen dynasty of Bengal, the dynasty that later ruled in the areas of Punjab and Jammu.

Then there is the argument, and quite serious too, that the Roma have strong *Bedya* features. Bedya, are a people from Bengal who have certain anthropological features that resemble to the Roma. But this is not enough to contend about the argument that Roma came all along from Bengal. However, a deeper study of the subject reveals that history has something different to offer here which could be significant to the *Bedya* and *Kannauj* theories.

At different intervals there were migrations, post-war expulsions and pre-war abscondings from Bengal and adjacent areas to Tarai, Punjab, and other parts of North India. If we take the history of ruling clans of Himachal, a hilly part of the erstwhile Punjab we find the traces of Bangla migrations. Sens, a ruling family of Suket princely state of district Mandi came from Bengal around 800 to 1000 AD. The family had, at one time a strong hold over the areas of Kannauj, Orissa and Nepal. It is on records that there were intermittent arrivals from different parts of India into the foothills of Himalaya for taking shelter from warfare and further occupation of territories. So there might be a larger spill over of the groups at that very time or in the consequent years. Therefore, if people came from Bengal to Himachal (Punjab), there are possibilities that many of them went ahead to Sindh and Kabul.

Let us take the account of the ruling clan of the Suket state as mentioned in the State Gazetteer of Suket, 1922. The chief of Suket and Mandi are from the same ancestor of Chandravanshi line of Rajputs and they, therefore, claim descent from the Pandavas of Mahabharata. Traditionally the origin of the line is carried back to a remote period. The original dynasty is said to have ruled over Delhi for about 1700 years but this is highly improbable. The last Raja (king) named Khem Raj was displaced by his Wazir who retired to Bengal. There he established a dynasty known as *Sena* dynasty which ruled there for about 350 years with Lakshmanpur as their capital. The most distinguished king of this dynasty was Lakshman Sen who is said to have extended his conquests to Kannauj, Nepal and Orissa and also founded the city of Gaur in Malda, calling it Lakhnauti after himself. The later capital was Naldia where they continued to rule till
expelled by Bakhtiyar Khalji in AD 1198. The last ruler of the dynasty then retired to Prayag (Allahabad) where he died. His son Rup Sen went to Rupar near Ambala where he settled for a time. Having been attacked by Muslims he was killed in the battle and three of his sons fled into the hills. After some time they founded three separate states of Keonthal (Shimla), Suket (Mandi) and Kashtwar (Jammu). Several annals of the history of Punjab Hill States confirm the account.14

However, yet another debate lingers over the arrival of Sens in Punjab Hill States, now Himachal. Cunningham and many others would ascribe the period of Sen's arrival in 765 AD. This is confirmed by the accounts in Bilaspur State Gazetteer, 1922, Suket State Gazetteer 1922, and Sirmur State Gazetteer, 1932.15

If the Sens were there in Punjab around 700 to 800 AD the theory of forcible enslavement of the Kannaujians in 1018 AD by Mahmud Gaznavi proves to be incomplete if not a farce.16 Another dimension opens up here as the approach of Sens with the bands of artisans, smiths, common subjects, soldiers and the rest from Bengal and Kannauj transforms the patterns of Roma migration. Since Sens settled upto Jammu as escapers the further spread of the people unto Sindh and Kabul could not be denied. The presence of many Kashmiri and Dogri words like Zutschi (astrologer) in the Roma language strengthens the theory of Jammite nexus.

The argument here is not to refute the Jat and Kanauj theories (and for that matter the other ones, discussed and not discussed) holistically rather to present the newer version of Roma migration which could best describe or attempt to understand the actual migration patterns or incidental effluxes guided by time and circumstances. Certain anticipations based on mythological references or the ungrounded belief of Aryan boomerang does not call for serious investigation.17 Here the author’s perspective of interpreting and presenting the history of Roma migration that he would prefer to call the millennium long efflux is sequential in events and comprehensive in incorporation so that the wider ramifications and complexities of the migration patterns could be inducted. Needless to say that there is a long span of time, in fact a millennium long from eighth century to eighteenth century when there has been either migration or enslavement or even sale of slaves from the Indian mainland to the west. Therefore, to reach at the conclusions by just heading on a single line would be calling for further misconceptions.

There are enough evidences about the sale and purchase of entertainers, slaves and artisans. This is compounded by the facts that there was, at the same time, caravans at the move, of course as traders, artisans, entertainers. If Firdausi and Hamza refer to the purchase of entertainers by Berham Gaur the Jat version is equally true since lexical evidences would strengthen such argument. Jat could be part of such purchases or even extension of the caravan mobiles of the Jatt Ghumantus. If the descendants of Alexander18 can be found in certain areas of Ladakh in the state of Jammu and Kashmir of India then the Rajput Theory is another interesting addition to the history.

The Kannauj theory is signatory of the enslavement of the Kanujians but with some newer dimensions to be explored with the merger of Sens and Bedyas into it. This is on records that even Moughals kept on selling the poor farmers irrespective of caste (when failed to pay Jazia) as slaves or workers into the land of their origin. Hence the exodus from the Indian mainland seems to be sequential then one time efflux guided by time and circumstances and requires more serious investigations.

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Colbert, ibid. pp. 48-51. This is author's personal experience with the Roma of Croatia and Serbia. Since he met several of Roma scholars, politicians, laymen, students and children he was able to collect the information about the actual work most of the Roma were engaged in. He also got the opportunity to visit many of the Roma habitations, streets and circles in Belgrade, Zemun, Lescovac, and Nis in Serbia and Zagreb and Pula in Croatia.

Even at Zagreb IRU Congress held w.e.f. October 26 to 29, 2008 author personally met two Portuguese officials getting the numeric data about the Roma.


A tribe still living in parts of Rajasthan and northern Gujrat.

Lee, Donald, Lee, Derek and Avraham, Sandor are of the view that it might be the other way round i.e. The Gypsy movement first from Europe towards East i.e. India and then a reversal of the process, a movement from India to the West. For details of the account see http://debatt.passagen.se/show.fcgi?category=3500000000000014&conference=1050000000000403&postmg=19500003750142, Last accessed on march 7, 2010. See also Kenrick, Donald (2000). ‘Romani Origins and the Migration Patterns’, International Journal of Frontier Missions, 17(3), and also of the same author, (1997). Gypsies: From the Indus to the Mediterranean, London; and Kachemyre, John M. ‘One Historical Account of the Gypsies by a Romanian Missionary’, nd.

There is elaborate account about the huge community uplift from Kanauj in the Al-Utbi's text. For an interesting account about Gypsy origins see Okley, Judith, ‘Some Political Consequences of Theories of Gypsy Ethnicity. The Place of the Intellectual’, in Alisson, James et al. (Eds.), (1999). After Writing Culture, Epistemology and Praxis in Contemporary Anthology, London: Routlege


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Kitab al-Yamini (Book of the Yamin) by the Arabic chronicler Abu Nasr Al’Utbi (961-1040), nd.

In fact, it has been observed that due to excessive pressure on Roma for centuries there has been a fundamental shift in the thought processes of the community. Many of the members are voluntarily giving up their identity to gain the newer one so that they can get a dignified place in their respective states. The missionary pressure and the racist persecution has forced many of the Roma scholars to develop newer versions more acceptable to the people of Europe.

There is a community in Baltistan of Ladakh region that calls itself the progeny of the scampering soldiers of the defeated army of Alexander.
The Tension of the Social Relations between the Colonizer and the Colonized in Forster’s a Passage to India

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Abstract

Colonialism is a practice of dominion which involves the subjugation of one people to another. The British colonized India and left an impact on many different levels of life and culture. E. M. Forster’s A Passage to India, referring to colonialism, explores the relationship between the colonized, an Indian doctor, and the colonizer, a British schoolmaster. This paper aims to explore Albert Memmi’s concepts of colonialism as presented in his The Colonizer and the Colonized (1974) and examine Forster’s characters according to these views. One basic issue is the cultural misunderstanding between the colonizer and the colonized. Different types of characters in the novel embody a number of Memmi’s ideas. The colonizer is characterized by profit, privilege and usurpation. Lack of communication comes at the core of the relationships seen in the social context between the English and the Indian, since colonial India suffers from mistrust and racial hatred.

Keywords: Forster, colonialism, India, A Passage to India, culture, tension.

1. Colonialism and India

Colonialism in India is often misconceived as the victory of the military rule. Actually, the British colonialism in India owes its success to the soft expressions of control. Colonialism is, thus, the project of control upon the minds of the people who are colonized (Gupta: 2006). Colonial knowledge has enabled the colonizers to rule and divide the occupied society into parts. Cultural forms in societies are newly classified as "traditional" and are reconstructed and transformed by that kind of knowledge. It has created new categories and oppositions between the colonizers and the colonized, European and Asian, modern and traditional, and West and East (Orwell, 1946). According to Dirks (2006), colonial conquest is not only the result of the power of superior arms, military organization and political power, but also of the economic wealth. Dirks says that "Colonialism is made possible because it is sustained and strengthened by cultural technologies of rule that is established on foreign shores by the British ruler" (7).

Said (1994) reveals a message that imperialism is not about a moment in history; it is about a continuing interdependent discourse between subject peoples and the dominant discourse of the empire. Despite the apparent and highly-praised end of colonialism, the unstated assumptions on which empire was based linger on, eliminating visions of an "Other" world without domination and restricting the imaginary of equality and justice (35).

Albert Memmi presents views on colonialism in his The Colonizer and the Colonized (1974). These views are embodied in different types of characters in Forster’s A Passage to India (1924). One basic issue that dominates the narrative is cultural misunderstanding between the colonizer and the colonized. This theme of colonialism is further discussed through the British colonial occupation of India. Human relationship is explored in the friendship between an Indian doctor and a British schoolmaster during a trial against the doctor based on a false charge.

2. Forster and Colonialism

Lilburn (1998) states that although Forster has stated that the novel is not really about politics and that it is less concerned with the incompatibility of East and West than it is with the difficulty of living in the universe, yet, the novel attacks the traditional justifications for British domination and existence in India. So, these justifications have helped in creating the tension in the social relationship, especially the friendship between the Indians and the British. Yousafzai and Khan (2011: 76) believe that Forster’s thesis is that "violation of the human values is the root cause of tension."
Abu Baker (2006) agrees that colonization is frustrating to develop friendship between the English and the Indians under the colonizer and the colonized status-quo. He comments on Forster's *A Passage to India*, believing that Forster highlights the process of "formatting", which the newcomers have to go through so that they end up like the other colonial settlers in terms of their ideologies and practices (68-9). *A Passage to India* (2002) features British characters who have internalized the ideological assumptions of their natural superiority over the Indians, yet many, when actually carrying out their imperialistic duties distant from the mother culture, often find their assumptions strained not only because of the stress of the tropics but also because these assumptions are not inherently true but are components of a version of reality that justify the British Empire’s existence. *A Passage to India* is part of the realistic tradition in literature; it is typical in its realistic representations of the historical conditions in their respective periods and is similarly typical in its treatment of the "culture clashes" between Europeans and the natives they encounter.

3. **Colonialism: Tension between the Colonizer and the Colonized**

The colonial situation is clearly depicted by Forster in *A Passage to India*; India is a colonized society where the colonizers who see themselves as superior and the colonized who are seen as inferior live side by side and deal with each other directly. This is revealed in the complexity of the interaction between both sides; Adela does not even think to deal with the Indian women or to be like them. There is also misunderstanding between these two groups because of the different cultures; this tension becomes obvious in the social interaction between the two groups when Aziz invites Mrs. Moore, Adela and other English women to visit the Marabar Caves; he worries a lot about cultural differences and greatly fears offending the women through cultural insensitivity; he wishes to adapt the trip to English values to the greatest extent possible. This shows the difficulty of social interaction between the English and the Indians. Even when both groups have the best intentions, the differences and the tension between them make it difficult to the groups to interact casually. This can be seen through the mistake which causes Fielding and Godbole to miss the train.

However, Aziz's attempt to establish friendships with several British characters has disastrous consequences. In the course of the novel, Aziz is accused of attempting to rape a young English woman, Miss Quested. Aziz's friend, Fielding, helps to defend him. Although the charges against Aziz are dropped during his trial, the gulf between the British and native Indians grows wider than ever, and the novel ends on an ambiguous note.

According to Turkmen (2003), the identity issue is mostly handled within the sphere of the colonized. However, the colonial identity goes beyond the colonized. It is between the colonizer and the colonized. The issue is aligned with the colonized as the colonized in the colonial system is the victim, yet, when one makes an analytical reading, one will bear witness that the colonizer is victim too, in that he also faces the same problem: fading identity. The colonizer’s identity comes into conflict with the colonized's one. *A Passage to India* opens with a discussion between some characters about the possibility of having a friendship between the colonizer and the colonized. The novel begins emphatically with Dr Aziz, Mahmoud Ali and Hamidullah discussing whether or not it is possible to be friends with an Englishman. The three characters agree that it is impossible for this to happen in India. The novel ends with Fielding and Aziz leaving each other because such a friendship is not possible under British occupation. It unwinds itself and reaches point zero once more. The English and the Indians can become more intimate, but the problems of cultural differences, stereotyping, and colonization prevent the possibility of having a real friendship between them. It is entirely difficult to establish a friendship or any good relationship between two groups with different cultures, religions and traditions, and above all, none of them try to understand the other.

Birodkar (2007) states that Britain and the colonies have tensions between each other from the time that the adventurous colonists want to branch out away from the powerful grip of Britain. Although the British do not want to let the colonists run their own country, they still believe that an extension to their country would be very beneficial to their economy and power. However, colonialism changes the social structure and makes the colonized lose his cultural identity. Such price is paid by the main character in the novel, Aziz, who suffers a lot because of his trust to the English woman, Miss Quested; she accuses him for trying to rape her. Also, he pays for his friendship with Fielding who consequently stands with Miss Quested and believes that Aziz tries to rape her. Under these circumstances, the good relationship that links Aziz with Fielding has been destroyed. This is clear evidence that such friendship between the colonizer and the colonized can never be maintained if it really occurs.

4. **Memmi's Views on Colonialism**

Memmi’s *The Colonizer and the Colonized* (1974) is specifically in response to the decolonization of North Africa in 1956,
when his home nation Tunisia, as well as its neighbor Algeria, gained independence from the French. Memmi describes this work as "portraits of the two protagonists of the colonial drama and the relationship that binds them." (145). The British and the native peoples are both encouraged to view the imperialistic relationship as good for everyone. Yet, at the same time, a system of cultural assumptions is put forth based on emphasizing and exaggerating the differences between the colonized and colonizer and citing these differences as evidence that the colonizer is "naturally suited to govern as the colonized is to be governed" (71).

The Colonizer and the Colonized proves to be highly influential, as well as highly controversial work, "citing colonization as a variant of fascism" (63). Memmi states that the dynamics of colonization are similar in any colonial system. In his view, under colonial governments, "once the colonizers gain political and economic power, they become the exploiters" (37). Memmi's primary argument is that the collapse of colonialism is inevitable and that the only means for this eventual collapse will come through revolt. Memmi defines the colonizer as "a person who imposes his culture a way of life that includes government, education and socioeconomic system on another in total disregard of the latter's culture" (25). In the process of colonization, the colonizer becomes an illegitimately privileged usurper.

Memmi believes that there are three factors that specify the colonizer (any European in a colony): profit, privilege, and usurpation. Europeans living in colonies often consider themselves to be in exile. They are not inclined to leave the colony for their mother country because they are able to live a more comfortable life in the colony. For the colonizer, "a colony is a place where one earns more and spends less" (5). Throughout A Passage to India, the barriers to inter-racial friendship in a colonial context are explored, and personally experienced by Fielding and Aziz. Forster reveals this point in the novel; when Aziz and other characters were discussing Indian education. Aziz asks if it is fair that an Englishman holds a teaching position when qualified Indians are available. Fielding cannot present the proper answer for this conversation which is that England holds India for her own good. Fielding, instead, says that he is delighted to be in India. So, for him, and other British, India is a comfortable place to enjoy. The main motive in colonization for England is wealth that is gained through the exploitation of the natives; the British justify their actions to the world and to themselves and question one's cultural and personal identity.

Memmi believes that the colonial system is fundamentally unstable and will lead to its own destruction due to the mere rigidity of the system: "the colonized have ultimately two answers to the colonial system" (126). The first is assimilation, which is to change his condition by changing his skin, and this is impossible since it is never desired by the colonizer, and all those colonized who have attempted it are deluded. The other option is revolt, which, according to Memmi, is as inevitable as the failure of assimilation. Being unable to change his condition in harmony and communion with the colonizer, the colonized tries to become free (127). Subsequently, the only tool left to the colonized is to reclaim their liberty by force, so revolt is the only effective solution that Memmi puts emphasis on.

Having established that the relationship between the colonizer and colonized is unstable by virtue of its consequences, Memmi then seeks to show why colonialism can only end through revolt. This issue is shown clearly in the novel which begins and ends with a question: can the English and the Indian races be friends? At the end of the novel, the answer appears to be no; "No, not yet" (289). This is clear evidence showing that the only redeem for colonization is through revolting and getting the colonizers out. In the last scene of the novel, the people of Chandrapore make riots after Aziz's arrest asking the colonizers to leave India. That gives Mrs. Moore a good reason to return to Britain.

5. Conflict between the Colonized and the Colonizer

A Passage to India, in general, talks about the British colonization of India in the city of Chandrapore at the time of the Raj. In the first part of the novel, Mrs. Moore and her Adela are newly arrived in Chandrapore where Mrs. Moore’s son, Ronny has the post of City Magistrate. Forster decides that the Indians and the English are incompatible. They can pretend and desire to be friends, but they cannot be friends. Even Fielding, who tries to befriend the Indians, is aware of the profundity of the gulf that divided him from them. Matters develop further when Fielding invites the two ladies, Mrs. Moore and Adela, to meet Aziz and Professor Godbole, one of his Brahman colleagues, at a tea party. Unfortunately this, too, is a failure when Ronny’s arrival sours the atmosphere and the party breaks up in some disorder. Adela has decided that India has changed Ronny and she no longer wishes to marry him. Meanwhile, Aziz and Fielding have taken to each other and have become close friends.

The second part of the novel revolves around the mysterious Marabar Caves. Aziz has impulsively invited the English ladies to visit these local curiosities at Fielding's tea party and feels compelled to go through with his scheme although no one is very enthusiastic. From the start, the expedition is dogged with misfortune; Fielding and Godbole are
late and miss the train; Aziz and Adela continue to a high rock with a single guide, but become separated and enter
different caves. Aziz emerges to find that Adela has gone down the hill and returned to Chandrapore in a passing car.
Fielding arrives late and the party returns home to discover that Aziz has been charged with attempted rape. Attitudes in
the community polarize and harden. Fielding, who is confident of Aziz's innocence, resigns from the English club and
throws in his lot with the Indians. Mrs. Moore is similarly certain that Aziz is not guilty but, ill and disillusioned; she
decides to go home to England early and dies at sea. Aziz gets frustrated after many situations of misunderstanding and
doubts between the two groups.

Finally, the matter is brought to a trial where Adela is shunned by the Anglo-Indian community. The two
characters who have tried to establish a good relationship between each other, Fielding and Aziz, both suffer. This part
of the novel ends with Adela and Fielding returning separately to England. The narrator concludes, two years later, in the
native state of Mau, Fielding, back again to India and being promoted, has arrived in an official capacity to inspect the
new school.

One can notice that Forster's portrayal of the characters Ronny, Adela, and Fielding shows the three different
types of colonizers that Memmi observes in his own life as a suppressed native, in addition to Forster's portrayal of Aziz
who typifies the colonized. Each character portrays a different situation and mind set, demonstrating the different
alternatives in the colonial and imperial life. Through these characters, one truly sees the effects that imperialism has not
only on the colonized, but also the colonizer. This mind set is seen clearly through analyzing these four characters.

Ronny, Mrs. Moore's son, represents the colonizer, pride, prejudice, arrogance and harsh treatment. He typifies
the sun-dried bureaucrat and Anglo-Indian. He is condescending and cruel toward the Indians, believing that he is in
India not to be kind, but rather to rule over the nation. He becomes a martyr during the trial because of the ill treatment
of Adela, but he shows himself to be manipulative and hard when he pushes to have his mother leave India when he
fears she may hurt the prosecution case. So Ronny is, according to Memi's description, "The colonizer who accepts"
(89); he actually enjoys being a colonizer and benefits from being a member of the ruling class. Memmi argues that the
colonizer, who is content with this role, has to maintain continually the pretense that the colonized are inferior and
subhuman in every respect; otherwise, guilt becomes overwhelming as for "the colonizer who refuses" (63) to participate
directly in colonial subjugation. Even if this person joins in the freedom movement, he will still have to give up much of
his own identity and cannot be guaranteed a place in the independent nation.

Fielding, who is the schoolmaster of Government College, stands alone among the British officials in India, for he
is one of the few to treat the Indians with a sense of decency and respect. Fielding is an individualist who has no great
allegiance to any particular group, but rather to his core set of liberal values and sense of justice. This quality allows
Fielding to break with the English who support Adela's charges against Aziz and side with the Indians in support of him.
Fielding is described in the novel as, "essentially a cultured humanist, an educator, agnostic and a warm-hearted
man....He is an intelligent man in his forties, with a strong belief in the efficacy of education and culture" (Forster: 14).
However, the events surrounding Aziz's trial cause Fielding to become disenchanted with India despite his affection for
the nation and motivate him to leave India and return to resume a different post. In India, he finds himself divided from
local British officiodom primarily because of his liberal creed. The local Anglo-Indians dislike and distrust him because
he is a disruptive force in their official ranks. He disbelieves in their herd-instinct, because his mind has been nourished
on values of personal relations and individual integrity: "Forster seems to have lost his faith in human relations as sole
remedy against human ills" (Ziaul Haque: 2012).

Therefore, Fielding is not much appreciated by Anglo-India, especially by its women, because he is not an Anglo-
Indian sahib, and he is not interested in them at all. He begins to like the company of Indians. In this aspect, Fielding
seems to represent Forster; he is excessively kind in his behavior towards his Indian friends, but is sometimes puzzled
whether it requires "an occasional intoxication of the blood" (Forster: 111). He is friendly, but not quite intimate with Aziz,
or with anyone. Aziz admits that saying to the Principal when he visits him, "No Englishman understands us except Mr.
Fielding" (87). Fielding, as being Memmi's "the colonizer who refuses" does as Memmi has suggested that such person
refuses his rule as a colonizer, he then must leave the colony. Fielding is immediately denounced as he rejects this role
of imperial aristocrat for benevolent humanitarian. Memmi states that such type of character cannot completely join the
colonized because above all he is still British and, therefore, holds the same ideas and prejudices that he has grown up
with. He, in the end, turns back to his own people, marrying an English girl.

According to Newman (2005), it is significant that Fielding returns to England to find his girl and that he becomes
more of a part of the imperial society with his marriage ties, but he remains free of the change that occurs in the colonies
by making his match away from India: "He stays free of the role of imperial actor and continues on with his notions of
friendship and peace with the Indian people" (Forster: 4). So, Forster presents Fielding as an example of how to resist
the imperial Indian machine and yet still maintain his British culture. Some of the characteristics of Fielding may be too shown in Adela who arrives in India with the intention of marrying Ronny, but changes her mind several times and eventually realizes that she does not love him and cannot marry him. She is a woman of conflicting character traits; although an intellectual, she is short-sighted. Although she foolishly accuses Aziz of assaulting her in the Marabar Caves, she finds the courage to withdraw the charge. However, Forster finally reveals her to be a woman of character and who accepts the difficulties she suffers.

6. Colonialism and Cultural Misunderstanding

Through characters' interactions and dialogues, Forster emphasizes that one of the major effects of colonization is cultural misunderstanding. Different cultural ideas and expectations regarding hospitality, social proprieties and the role of religion in daily life are responsible for the misunderstanding between the English and the Muslim Indians, the English and the Hindu Indians, and between the Muslims and the Hindus. Aziz tells Fielding at the end of the novel: "It is useless discussing Hindus with me. Living with them teaches me no more. When I think I annoy them, I do not. When I think I don't annoy them, I do" (Forster: 288). The British could not understand properly Indian's own traditions of religion and culture, for instance, Godbole's conversation with Fielding about the Hindu view of God sounds strange to him when he tells them that he does not believe in God; in other words, he does not have the concept of belief or disbelief.

Forster demonstrates how these repeated misunderstandings become hardened into cultural stereotypes and are often used to justify the uselessness of attempts to bridge cultural gulf. When Aziz offers his collar stud to Fielding in a demonstrative act of friendship, Ronny later misinterprets Aziz's missing stud as an oversight and extends it as a general example. Fielding, the colonizer, is tempted to accept his part, whereas Aziz, the colonized, is forced to accept being colonized based upon Memmi's view.

Another example of misinterpretation on the part of the English is when Ronny comments on the missing collar stud and how it indicates the Indians' inattentiveness to detail. In fact, it isn't Aziz's thoughtlessness but his thoughtfulness in loaning Fielding his own stud; this is another breakdown in communication, since Aziz has lied and said he has had a spare. This irony shows the English's lack of the ability to communicate properly with the Indians.

The idea of people reaching out for meaningful connection, but being frustrated, is much in evidence through the story and seems to be an essential part of its pattern. Adela considers marriage and wants to see the real India, but her attempts to complete both projects end in disaster; the failure of the Bridge Party and Fielding's tea party lead to catastrophe in the ominous Marabar caves, which in turn leads to her eventual social ostracism and the break-up of her engagement. Her failure to find love with Ronny is duplicated by Aziz and Fielding in their unsuccessful attempt to cross the racial division and make a lasting friendship. Both of these relationships are seen in social context that is hopelessly divisive, for colonial India is full of mistrust and racial hatred. Only the relationship between Aziz and Mrs. Moore gives any grounds for optimism and this seems strange, rather unlikely bond between two people divided by age and race, and because the British did not use to understand the Indian and they try to separate themselves from the Indians. Mrs. Moore comes to be different from all of the British and even different from Adela who comes to see the real India; it is because Mrs. Moore comes to see the Indians, not only India, but also its people. Probably, this could be the reason why her relationship with Aziz maintains properly. Mrs. Moore, too, being shocked after few days of her arrival to India, returns home full of despair and so dies at the road to England. And finally, Fielding loses his strong friendship because of the misunderstanding between him and Aziz. All these problems shown in the novel are created because of colonization.

Another example about miscommunication which is clear in the novel is the Bridge Party, representative of Indian-English relations, which is organized by Mr. Turton; it is an attempt at bridging the communication gap between India and England. First, for the most part, there is a lack of communication altogether between the Indian guests and the English guests. The attempts made are forced and stiff. The British behave generally poorly towards the Indians. There is obviously a tension and a failure of communication between the colonial power and the subject races here that produce both comedy and pathos. Mrs. Turton has no intention of communicating with her perceived inferior while the two English visitors find their own attempts frustrated by the constraints of the occasion.

The Bridge Party is an ironic comment on the attempt to make East meet West and explore the areas of friendship. It is comic reversal of the spirit of the meeting of Aziz and Mrs. Moore in the mosque. Forster exposes the haughtiness and arrogance of the English ladies, especially Mrs. Turton. The Bridge Party does not go beyond formal civilities and surface graces in spite of sincere efforts made by Mr. Turton, Mrs. Moore, Adela and Fielding. The Indians
are no less responsible than the Anglo-Indians for this dismal failure because they are too self-conscious to share freely in the pleasure of the conversation.

Ronny speaks of the traditional justifications for colonization saying to his mother: "We're not out here for the purpose of behaving pleasantly. We're not pleasant in India, and we don't intend to be pleasant. We've something more important to do" (Forster: 51). Ronny here shows a real evidence for the suffering that the colonizers face in the colonized land. Such evidence is also shown in the character, Adela, who comes for the purpose of marrying Ronny, but returns to England depressed and alone after discovering that India has changed Ronny. Ronny hates Aziz and always depresses him all the time because he believes that Aziz, though educated, still very inferior to him, and that he, as a colonizer, should rule the dark and the inferior races.

It is easy to notice the arrogance of the English in Chandrapore. They have convinced themselves that their presence is necessary for India because they believe that Indians are unable to lead themselves. In the English club, a kind of group-think prevails. The English always think the Indians are devious and act from some ulterior, usually unworthy, motive. For example, when Mrs. Moore tells Ronny that Aziz, whom she meets in the mosque, has spoken ill of Major Callendar, Ronny says that Aziz must have done this to impress her: "It's the educated native's latest dodge. They used to cringe, but the younger generation believes in a show of manly independence" (Forster: 36). Ronny tells his mother when she asks him: "Do kindly tell us who these ladies are ... You're superior to them, anyway. Don't forget that...". (43) Again, this dealing of superiority characterizes the colonizer.

Memmi argues that the colonized society is a diseased society in which internal dynamics no longer succeed in creating new structure. Such society cannot dissolve the conflicts of generations, for it is unable to be transformed (143). These conflicts are resulted from the cultural and social differences which cause tension between the Indian and the British characters in Forster's novel. In A Passage to India, it is necessary to show the relationships and bonds that are created or affected during the British presence and occupation of India and indicate that the effect of the British on India is mainly negative and it isn't a good thing at all for Indians. Despite the fact that Adela and Aziz actually are good to each other, yet, Adela falsely accuses him of trying to rape her. Moreover, the effect of this bond is rather great on the Indian side. Though that Forster is conveying the message that it is really hard to create this relation and even if it is done, it is impossible to keep forever. In addition, there is the bond between Aziz and Mrs. Moore. An example would be how Aziz and Fielding made a really good friendship at the beginning and how they have a certain bond between each other, but when Fielding takes Adela into the college, this bond has broken. The British do not accept the Indian culture nor even think of glorifying it; they just want to create a new British culture in India; therefore, it has created a tension between them and the Indians do not accept the idea of the imposed British culture. The difference in cultures of the colonizer and the colonized has put them in many clashes and conflicts as shown in the novel.

In A Passage to India, there is a fundamental importance of the existence of races with their social and cultural differences. This notion is in the separation between the English, or Anglo-English, and the Indians. This is the most explicit in the narrative of the club where the exclusion of Indians seems to create a private oasis for the English and so enables Adela to exclaim: "I want to see the real India" (Forster: 28). She continues by stating: "I've scarcely spoken to an Indian landing" (30), and so affirms the separation of the race. This separation is built upon physical and social differences where the race of the Indians is separated from the British due to their darker skin and black hair and due to their different traditions. This frames the encounter between Mrs. Moore and Aziz, as the point of difference: "she was older than Hamidullah Begum, with a red face and white hair" (25).

Aziz feels that "The English are a comic institution" (Forster: 65) and he likes being misunderstood by them because he does not want to be part of this comic institution, and because he utterly believes that his mentality cannot meet with any one's of the colonizer and that the natural thing is not to have understanding between these two unbalanced groups. So he sees that it is fair to be misunderstood by them, since they never try to understand the colonized. Forster ends A Passage to India with a bittersweet reconciliation between Aziz and Fielding but also with the two cannot be friends under contemporary conditions. Aziz, thus, completes a movement from kindness and generosity of spirit to bitter and cynicism and back. Fielding, in contrast, realizes that he is in fact a true Englishman and belongs among his own race to defy his race; maintaining an active friendship with Aziz would be just but not pragmatic. This brings back the theme of responsibilities and limitations of racial identity. In this manner, Forster ends A Passage to India as a tragic but platonic love story between the two friends who are separated by different cultures and political climates.

Aziz and Fielding, on their last ride, begin to wrangle over Indo-English politics; Fielding is no longer apologetic about the British Empire in India, whereas Aziz declares that the British in India are of no use. Aziz tells Fielding that the British should clear out of India as quickly as possible. Fielding jeeringly asks whether Indians would then welcome the
Japanese, and Aziz mockingly answers, "No. Afghans, my own ancestors" (Forster: 297). Later Aziz cries, "India shall be a nation! No foreigners of any sort! Hindu and Muslim and Sikh and all shall be one!" (297). Fielding mocks these nationalists claims but Aziz continues to say "Down with the English!" (297). He says that at least his sons will drive the British out of India! And once this is accomplished, "You and I shall be friends" (298). Fielding who is still dominated with the charm of personal relations, wishes their relationship to develop: "It's what I want. It's what you want" (298). But neither the horses, nor the earth, nor the sprawling countryside of Mau want it. They declare in their manifold voices, "No, not yet" and the sky says, "No, not there" (298).

7. Conclusion

To conclude, one can clearly realize the reasons for the tension of the social relations between the colonizer and the colonized; different religions, languages, cultures, traditions, different ways of life and above all, none of both sides try to understand the other; the colonizer deals so cruelly with the colonized, and the colonized hates the colonizer as a reaction. Forster's *A Passage to India* is a very keen and demonstrative work that shows these different and repeated misunderstandings between these two opposite parties. There are many situations that really describe this tension between the colonizer and the colonized and the difficulty in dealing properly with each other.

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Abstract  
This paper includes partnerships with community-based organizations, public and private colleges, universities, public school teachers, public health departments. Additionally, more number of community leaders have been trained to deliver educational workshops; PSI has developed a robust workshop leader database, which permits remote access to (and entry of) service delivery information. This will be an important point of administrative changes in Albanian public policies as an obstacle to the operating foreign investments, comparison of EU. Entrepreneurship ambition has worked to support changes in Albanian law that would offer anti-discrimination protections in keeping with international standards. Another point of administrative changes in Albanian public policies as an obstacle to the operating foreign investments, comparison of EU is: (1) International investments contributed to the improvement of Albania’s financial regulatory environment which has strengthened public confidence in the banking system and has provided a more secure, efficient and transparent financial system to meet the credit, savings and insurance needs of businesses and individuals. The paper provides support for legislative initiatives and local government activities that advance the decentralization process and increase the control of local government by local constituents, thus decreasing the control of central authorities.

Keywords: Public policies, International standards, Local government activities, public goals.

1. Introduction.

The analyses of the major trading partners of the firms home country and those of the nations where it has affiliates that export can provide valuable insights to management. According to the definition of Martin Wolfe, Global Business analyst, Financial Times, October 1, 1997, pp.12 “Creating overseas production cities merely in order to meet local consumption looks an increasingly fragile basis for foreign investment. A much better one is the ability to make the best use of a company competitive advantage by locating production wherever it is most efficient.

1.1 International trade and volume of the trade in economical view

Today’s multinationals create widespread network of research, component production assembly and distribution.” We
want together date from the development of foreign investments of Republic of Macedonia, Albania and Kosova. There are a number of advantages of in focusing attention on a national that is already sizable purchaser of goods coming from would – be exporter country. (Source: Departament of Commerce, Survey of current business, June, 1997, pp. 74)

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

2.1 Foreign direct investments, rapid increase in nowadays

The financial system is undoubtedly the catalyst or to be more exact, the laboratory where economic developments take an appropriate form and shape. The role of the economy cannot be exaggerated and identified to the role of the financial system of a country, but at the same time, the very relevant role of the financial system in the development and prosperity of the national economy can neither be neglected nor be reduced. FDI has arisen rapidly from 185 billion $ in 1985 to 360 billion $ in 1996 (Source: World Investment Report, New York, 1997, pp.303). This is an average annual increase of nearly 12 %. Observe how concentrated FDI is in the United States. Nearly three-quarters of the total stock was owned by firms of just five nations; (1) United Kingdom (23 percent), (2) Japan (19 percent), (3) the Netherlands (12 percent), (4) Germany (9.9 percent), and (5) Canada (8.5 percent).

Why focus on major trading partners?
1. Business climate in importing nations is relatively favorable
2. Export and Import regulations are not insurmountable
3. There should be no strong cultural objections to buying that nations goods
4. Satisfactory transportation facilities have already been established.

On the record investment outlays in the U.S by foreign firms, much more has been spent to acquire going companies than to establish new ones. A number of reasons are responsible: (1) Corporate restructuring in this country caused managements to put on the market units that either did not meet management’s profit standards or were considered to be unrelated to the company’s main businesses, (2) foreign companies desired to gain rapid access in this country to advanced technology, especially in computers and communications, and (3) managements of foreign firms felt that entrance in to the large market and money promote foreign direct investments. (Source: International nature of business, July, 1999, pp.34).

2.1.1 H 1: Are the direction and the priorities of financial system harmonized?

In the post-communist period, expropriation has been limited to land needed for infrastructure projects, such as roads and airports. Compensation has generally been below market value and some owners have complained about the slow compensation process and low payments. The restitution process of properties confiscated during the communist regime started in 1993 but is still far from complete. The process is tainted with corruption and lack of political will. Several U.S. citizens and residents have long-running disputes with the government regarding restitution for property. Many property cases end up in the courts and drag on for years without a final decision. (Leung, Hok Lin 1998)

No requests will be accepted after the deadline. However the entire set of restitution compensation claims is not expected to be resolved before 2014. The GOA has presented three methods of compensation for expropriation claims: 1) restitution, 2) compensation of property with similarly valued land in a different location, and 3) cash settlement/financial compensation. The successful implementation of the restitution process is an important challenge for the government and is keys to future economic development.

2.1.2 H 2: The direction and the priorities of the financial system are harmonized with the direction and development strategies of the Albanian economy?

The property registration process has been completed in approximately 86% of the country and almost entirely in rural areas. However, more lucrative land in high value urban and coastal areas has still not been registered. Many of the unregistered properties are in the south coastal area, which is more valuable for its tourism potential, and where disputes are more frequent.

2.1.3 H 3: The main institutions dealing with property restitution and registration are the Agency for Restitution and Compensation and the Office for the Registration of Immovable Properties.
This is a highly significant feature of infrastructure programs and carries important implications for local
development. Sustained political pressure and the demonstrated capacity of municipalities to manage their
responsibilities were the driving forces for local administrative and fiscal autonomy. Initial assessments suggested that
decentralization did improve the quality of service delivery and foster a new, user oriented attitude, facilitating the
transition from a centrally planned to a market economy. The low speed of the capital and rent circulation is another
relevant feature of the empirical stage of the economic development. (Bundo, Luci, Cane 2002)

2.1.4 H 4: Decisions on appeals are taken by the same unit of the PPA that is responsible for interpreting the law and
giving advice to contracting authorities.

2.2 Banking activity and facilitating tranzition

According to the recent Nobelists in the field of finance, an economy finds itself at the empirical stage of its development
when the financial and banking sector is dominated by the cash economy. The second stage is the credit economy.
During this stage, the role of the financial intermediation and credit institutions – mainly of banks – increases very much.
The banking activity represents an important direction in terms of the transfer of resources and funds.

Current procedures for handling complaints still do not meet recognized international standards. Despite progress,
its application is hampered by technical problems, the insufficient IT capacity of many contracting authorities and
corruption in drafting tender documents. Companies continue to experience issues with transparency in specifications
and communication in competing for public tenders. Overall, the improvements in the public procurement legislation are
advancing while the proper enforcement of the law is still a work in progress.

2.3 Research Goal and data collected

The law “On Concessions,” No. 9663, dated December 18, 2006, established the necessary framework for promoting
and facilitating the implementation of privately financed concessionary projects enhancing transparency, fairness,
efficiency and long-term sustainability in the development of infrastructure and public service projects. One of its major
amendments includes a better regulation for unsolicited proposals and of public-private partnerships in general. The law
applies to a wide range of sectors, including: Financing Reforms, Importance of Decentralization Processing Partnership,
Foreign Direct Investments. The topic of the level of development of the financial system as well as its role in the
acceleration of the economic development remains always present and open to discussions among the Albanian
economic circles. Currently, our economy experiences a relatively high rate of economic growth. (Bodie Zvi
(Nobelist), 2001)

2.4 Expropriation and Compensation of Foreign Direct Investment Statistics

The FDI has increased although it still remains among the lowest in the region. The cumulative FDI is also the lowest in
the region. The Bank of Albania reported the following figures for foreign direct investment in Albania. As a new market
economy, it is passing from the phase of birth into the phase of growth. In addition to the characteristics and difficulties of
the present phase, our economy carries as well development potentials having not been exploited yet. (Bundo, Luci,
Cane 2000 int link)

Regardless of numerous contracts, only a few projects materialized in 2009. The entities that have surplus in
resources and funds transfer them to the deficit entities. As a result, the level of economic development accelerates and
alongside with that, the national wealth also increases. The third stage is that of the financial markets. (Leung, Hok Lin
1998) The financial intermediation institutions improve themselves to the extent that besides the liquidity intermediation
institutions, the intermediation institutions for financial rights also develop. During the stage of the financial markets, the
economy operates on the basis of the invisible money – the electronic money, whereas the titles and capitals are
transferred and invested regardless of the national borders and without any quantitative or time limits
2.4.1 Fiscal and monetary policy and the financial markets

Figure 1. In 1996 and especially 1997 the economy lost its momentum, reflected also in the increase of CPI

The first stage is the empirical one. Undeveloped financial institutions as well as an undeveloped financial system characterize this stage. It belongs to the natural economy and to the low levels of economic growth and development. (Bundo, Luci, Cane 2000) In January 2000, the government promulgated a national Strategy for Decentralization and Local Autonomy which includes lows to strengthen the autonomy of local governments and increase their capacity to manage local infrastructure and services.

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<th>Years</th>
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<td>763</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kosovo FDI</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania FDI</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bank of Albania  *A B estimate for the first three quarters of 2009

FDI during the first nine months of 2009 is estimated to have reached 580 million euro despite optimistic GOA projections for 2009 fueled mainly by strong investor interest witnessed during 2007-2008. A large part of FDI is due to privatizations. The Albanian government collected 103 million Euro from the privatization of 76 percent of the shares of the distribution arm of Albanian Power Corporation; 48 million Euro from the privatization of 12.6 percent of AMC state controlled shares; 5 million euro from the privatization of 40% of GOA controlled shares of the United Bank of Albania. INSIG (insurance company) privatization failed during the negotiation process with the winter and it might take place during 2010.  {1} Albanian government report 2010 pg 12, 25,41,58,74

3. Methodology and Research Goal

Albania, one of the smallest and poorest countries in Eastern Europe, has experienced a transition marked by sharp economic swings and periods of civil strife. The early phases of decentralization witnessed the transfer of political autonomy and limited administrative and fiscal authority, to local governments, inadequate legislation outlining
central/local responsibilities, scarce financial resources and deficient infrastructure strained the capacity of local
governments to manage urban services. Bodie Zvi (Nobelist), 2001)

There exists an important postulate in the theory of finance on the role of the financial system: The level of
development and the role of the financial system in the economy define the economic development stage of a country.
Hence, based on the level, role and influence of the financial system on the economy, three stages can be identified with
regard to the economic development. During the last decade the Albanian Public Administration is going under a
reformation process, a process related with the political, economical and social changes.

At the beginning of the '90 the role of the Albanian state was modernized, and was stimulated to economic
improvement and to conceal social injustice. (Robins P 2002). The new role of the state determined new obligations for
the public, central and local administration. During this period the administration was nearly totally politicized and there
were no clear divisions between the political and techno-professional functions. During this period the model of the
political control was inappropriate and out of logic and it was still in the development phase.

During 1996-1999 the politicization of the administration ended and the administration was based on merits. The
division between the political and techno-professional was clear. Several laws were approves; law no. 8095 in 21.03.96,
“For the Civil Service in the Albanian Republic”, The Decision of the Minister's Council no. 657 in 16.09.96 “For ethic rules
in the public service”, law no. 8549 in 11.11.1999 “The status of the civil employee”. All this laws were approved during
this period. The administration had the possibility to implement a different system, in the human resources management
in all the central and local institutions. (Dhima A 2003)

3.1 The intermediation of banks, the financial system becomes more active.

In the economy of the financial markets, the financial system shows the characteristics of infinite connections,
transactions, relations and exchanges in financial flows and money, operations and national institutions, which form a
chain of subsequent spiral and closed transactions.

Source: Financial market and economic growth, Bundo, Luci, Cane 2002)

Only when conceptualized as a whole thing, these elements give a meaning to the financial system. Hence, during these
first 15 years of the market, the bank crediting and the financial market have offered limited financing opportunities for the
economic growth. (Bundo, Luci, Cane 2000 int link)

The absence of an active financial market and the lack of transactions carried out through this market are facts not
to be denied. Without referring to the statistics, these phenomena show that at present, the Albanian economy finds itself
at the beginning of the second stage.

There are tens of enterprises that have been acquired, invested in or privatized, enterprises under a rapid growth
process, with a multiplied market value, but because of the absence of their evaluation in the capital market, their market
value remains unstated. At present, it is represented by a minimized amount registered in the accounting system of the
enterprises and in the account of the owner, or at best, of a limited number of co-owners. (Leung, Hok Lin 1998)

It is entering the credit stage, a stage in which the role and activity of commercial banks is expected to increase
further. The credit/deposit ratio, which ranges from 10 per cent in 2001 to 18.8 per cent in 2004, is the most significant
indicator for this conclusion. At the same time, it can be concluded that the 283role of the commercial credit – the credit
that companies directly grant to each other – is limited. When we state that the Albanian economy is at the beginning of
the second stage, this means that it tends to expand the activity and the role of banks, but not that the credit system and
institutions have reached their maturity level.
3.2 Analyzing data and questionnaires

It can certainly be said that the priority sectors of the economy have been clearly defined in the economic development strategies of our country, be them sectoral or of a general character, as for instance the strategy on the economic development and poverty reduction. As a result, besides the support of the state for education, health care and social protection, sectors such as agriculture, food industry, tourism and construction are visibly considered as the priority sectors of our economy. This priority is based on many essential factors such as natural resources and geographic position, the cultural patrimony and tradition, human resources and strategic position. A major part of these strategies have been approved in scientific forums, including the Albanian government. (Bodie Zvi (Nobelist, 2001)

Source: Financial market and economic growth (Bannet and Shultter 2012)

It means that our economy and our state have defined the path of development 292 priorities. It also means that these sectors, defined as priority ones, will be as a focus of the controlled developments and orientation and promotion policies. (Goffin Robert 2001)

Meanwhile, it remains relevant to discuss whether the Albanian financial system has the same priorities or not. Are the directions of the priorities of the economic sectors harmonized with the directions of the financial system? If the answer were yes, this would be evidence to a development and progress in the right direction. If not, we need to make the necessary adjustments. This is an important issue. (Guxholli Z 2011)

The great discoveries in finance and the increase of its role are in conflict with the great concentration of authority on the central levels. This economic equation cannot be solved by an invisible hand or by the state control. We have the impression that both the financial system in general and the banking system in particular have maintained a certain distance from agriculture.

Our financial system still is unable to find its attractive force in the agriculture and the agricultural and animal products. Meanwhile, the misuse of the agricultural land and its occupation by various constructions is becoming a very worrying phenomenon. Many activities in Albania required cumbersome licensing procedures and permits. In 2007, the GOA approved the Action Plan for Regulatory Reform which provided for a full review of Albania’s entire legal licensing system to harmonize the licensing legislation to EU standards and reduce administrative barriers for businesses operating in Albania. (Guxholli Z, 2011) As a result, many licenses were removed while a broad simplification of licensing procedures has been completed in many sectors including, mining, hydrocarbons, public works, health, agriculture and the environment.

By October 2008, 64 out of 151 licenses identified in 18 sectors of the economy were removed and another 21 licenses were changed into self-declaration. The protection and the proper use of limited agricultural land, as well as the indifference of the financial mechanisms in encouraging and promoting its use and exploitation, represent a visible deficiency in the harmonization of the direction of production strategies and economy branches with the direction of the financial system. The main issues handled out in this presentation are: strengthening local government leadership and initiative; partnership between municipalities and NGOs; concluding all of these in the community-based approaches to infrastructure services and neighbourhood revitalization.

3.3 Sample and Data Collection

Almost everywhere problems of water scarcity can be considerably mitigated through metering, leakage detection and reduction, network improvements, disconnection of illegal connections, and optimization of storage and supply patterns. The distribution problem in Albania also has a seasonal aspect: much more water is needed during the summer growing
season; when rainfall is scarce, rural drinking water is often misused for irrigation; and the tourist resort areas use large amounts of water. (Bodie Zvi (Nobelist), 2001)

Decentralization has given local governments the discretion and scope they need to take a lead role in responding to the challenges of economic down-turn, degradation of the urban environment, and social hardship. They institute bold initiatives and innovative practices. Western European nations have put in place sophisticated frameworks to provide local governments with technical and financial assistance. The European Union supplements these national programs with coordinated assistance aimed at promoting economic development, assisting distressed localities and fostering social inclusion.

Tab 1. Albanian Municipal Water and Sanitation Project – Agricultural ministry project 2004

Work is in progress to identify other licenses that could be removed. For the remaining licenses the government plans to start a "One-Stop-Shop" for licensing within the first quarter of 2009. However, licensing and post-registration processes require further simplification and the removal of licenses needs to be accompanied by a strengthening of the supervision capacities of public agencies. The procedures for getting a license are the same for national and foreign companies. (Goffin Robert 2001)

4. Infrastructure is an important component of these programs.

Despite its location in an industrialized province Jerez’s economy relies on wine production which, in recent years has been declining. Weak community participation, inadequate infrastructure, poor accessibility to regional resources and an unskilled labor force compounded the effects of massive job cuts in the wine industry. Meanwhile, the role of the financial market remains limited to only some money market operations. The capital market is de facto inexistent. As a result, the rapid growth of the value of the particular assets market or of the enterprises market, during the last 10-15 years, is still an unexploited source, which is practically impossible to be included in the acceleration of the country’s economic circulation. (Goffin Robert 2001)

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

The Public Procurement Advocate was established as an independent institution reporting to parliament. However, it has no particular executive powers and its functions duplicate the monitoring tasks of the PPA (C. S George) Decisions on appeals are taken by the same unit of the PPA that is responsible for interpreting the law and giving advice to contracting authorities. Current procedures for handling complaints still do not meet recognized international standards. Overall, the improvements in the public procurement legislation are advancing while the proper enforcement of the law is still a work in progress. (Hardt 2009; Rieker 2009) Most banks today offer unsecured lines of credit targeted to small business owners.

If yours is an established company, you may be able to apply for a credit line amount of between $10,000 and $50,000 by completing a simple one-page application, with no business financial statements or tax returns required. Institutionally, the successful implementation of the Northern Dimension Countries relies on using flexible coordination mechanisms. Within the EU, the Northern Dimension is part of the Union’s external relations but cuts across all its three pillars: the funding instruments stem from the first pillar of the single market, the objectives come at least partly from the
second pillar of external relations and some of the problems relate to the third pillar of justice and home affairs, including management of border regimes. (C. S George)

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The Concept of Brand Culture: A Qualitative Analysis Directed to Turkish Airlines

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Abstract

Culture is an important aspect of branding studies. There is a mutual relationship between culture and brands: While culture and cultural perspectives have strong effects on branding, brands also have serious effects on culture. The concept of 'brand culture' refers to the cultural codes developed by brands. A brand’s culture indicates the set of values which create that brand's inspirational power. This study covers the relationship between brands and culture and the concept of brand culture. A qualitative research has been carried out focusing on Turkish Airlines (THY), which was chosen to be the best airline company of Europe in 2012. Research objectives are determined as: to point out the effects of culture on THY, to display how culture is used by the brand, to define the brand culture and its representation in intercultural environments. Finally, to compare the diverse perceptions from the point of view of the brand and the customer. Primary information for the qualitative analysis has been based on interviews made with the brand manager of Turkish Airlines and a customer of THY. Secondary information for the case has been gathered via the corporate website and articles about the brand. Content analysis was applied to the data by composing the codes and themes, and finally the results have been reported.

Keywords: Cultural approach to brand management, intercultural management, brand culture, Turkish Airlines

1. Literature Review

In the literature review, first, the mutual relationship of culture and brands is mentioned. Afterwards, the concept of brand culture and its importance in branding are described. Finally, factors forming and affecting brand culture are undertaken.

2. Relation of Culture and Brands

Brands are formed of tangible and intangible elements. They do not just include physical and visual attributes, but also socio-psychological attributes, beliefs and values. Managing brands successfully is possible by managing the brand’s hollistic meaning in the marketplace (Schroeder, 2009: 125). At this point, culture plays an important role in managing this holistic system of meaning. Organizations and brands are networks which can not be evaluated without their cultural context. Therefore, marketing and branding are not just business processes but also cultural processes (Holt, 2003a, Firat & Dholakia 2006). Cultural codes have effects on the branding process and on the meanings created by the brand.

Brands are driven by a culture, while at the same time they transfer this culture. Thus, there is a two-sided mutual relationship between brands and culture where culture affects brands and brands transmit culture.

Cultural assets form core values of brands and create their identities (Kapferer, 2008: 184). Cultural values differentiate a brand among its competitors. For example, very well known two sports brands Nike and Adidas are differentiated mainly according to their cultural values. Though these two brands are very similar with their product categories, physical attributes and main proposals, consumers’ interpretations of these brands differ according to their cultural values that they attach to them. While Nike is related to competitiveness, Adidas is more focused on authenticity.

Brands have strong roles in transmitting culture. Brands infuse culture with meaning in the branded world that we live in (Shroeder, 2007). Strong brands become cultural icons and address a culture’s core sensibilities such as national myths (Närvänien, 2011). Some brands become very strong cultural artefacts and are identified with their country and culture. These brands come up as one of the first things to be related with that country. BMW, Mercedes connoting Germany, Gucci, Ferrar reminding of Italy or McDonald’s being related with USA are examples of these brands.
3. Brand Culture

As well as being affected by culture, a brand itself presents a cultural asset. “The concept of ‘brand culture’ refers to the cultural codes developed by brands at a significant level (history, images, myths, art, communities, beliefs), that influence the comprehension and the value of a brand on the market (Barbu, 2012: 47)” (Barbu, 2012). Brand culture refers to the combination of elements which identify and distinguish products or services. These elements include names, nouns, logos, symbols, designs, all cultural traits and cultural phenomena within these elements, as well as the cognition, emotional attributes, cultural traditions and individual images represented by these cultural traits and phenomena. Brand culture is the core of a brand, it is a refined essence of the company’s culture and it displays the fundamental value of a brand.

Brand culture shapes how customers understand the value of a product/service, and how they experience it. The value condensed in the brand attracts consumers and they accumulate pleasure and confidence in the culture of a brand (Yan, 2011). Brand culture affects the senses of the customers, and thus, their consumption experience (Holt, 2003b:4). In other words, brand culture affects the most critical features of contemporary brands: the experience and the value.

Brand cultures accumulate as four primary types of authors create stories that involve the brand. These authors are: companies, popular culture, influencers and customers (Holt, 2003b). Companies create the brand culture with their marketing mix. All elements of the marketing mix (product, place, promotion, price) tell stories about the products/services. Popular culture shapes the meanings and perceptions of brands. How the media presents or refers to brands (through television, films, magazines, internet, games etc.) will affect them as cultural assets. While customers consume the product, they interact with it, create consumption stories, and share their stories and experiences. Therefore, they take part in creating the brand culture. Influencers are people who have the power to affect other people’s decisions about brands. So their ideas and influence affect the culture of a brand.

Figure 1: Formation of Brand Culture


Brand cultures are affected and formed of many cultural elements. These include: consumer behaviour and cultural differences, effects of the national culture, country of origin effects, marketing strategy (standardization or customization), intercultural management, language, perceived globalness and relation to corporate culture. The academic literature shows that consumer behaviour is strongly shaped by cultural differences. Cultural differences affect brand positioning, consumer decision-making processes, consumption and usage of products and services, service quality perceptions, brand choices, consumer evaluations of brand extensions, diffusion of innovations and consumer response to advertising (Bui, Chernatony, Hem, 2009; de Mooij, 2000; de Mooij and Hofstede, Dwyer et al., 2005; 2002; Erdem et al., 2006; Roth, 1995; Leo et al., 2005; Witkowski and Wolfinbarger, 2002). For example, a reaction of a European consumer and an Asian consumer would not be the same. Brand cultures are strongly affected by national culture which is defined as the “collective programming of the mind (Hofstede, 1980)”. Brand images are formed by national values, myths, beliefs and perceptions about country of origin effects. For example as a country of origin, Italy is related with aesthetics and this image of the country is transfered to Italian brands. Brand culture is also shaped according to the global marketing strategy. A brand can either use standardized of customized offerings for different cultural environments. Many brands choose to mingle these two approaches in their offerings. Though the core cultural messages carried by a brand may be the same in different cultures, fundamental features of the relative culture should be respected. This is the fundamental principle of intercultural management. Language, as one of the most important aspects of culture stand out as an
important element of brand culture. How a brand’s name sound and mean in different cultures is an important aspect. Some companies choose to use the same brand name for all markets, but others differentiate according to countries. For example, Unilever’s cleaning liquid is called Vif in Switzerland, Viss in Germany, Jif in Britain and Greece, and Cif in France (Palumbo & Herbig, 2000 as cited in Harun, et. al., 2011: 286). Brand’s perceived globalness affects its success, if the perceived globalness is high, the brand’s reputation tends to be higher. Finally, as the basis of brand culture, corporate culture has an influence on the establishment of brand culture (Yang, 2010: 223). Corporate culture and brand culture are very close concepts by affecting and complementing each other.

4. A Qualitative Analysis Directed to Turkish Airlines

To be able to display the relation of brands and culture within the case of a brand, Turkish Airlines has been chosen. Turkish Airlines was established in 1933 by the founder of the Turkish Republic, Mustafa Kemal Atatürk. The international flights started in 1967. In April 2006, it became a member of the world’s biggest airline association, Star Alliance. In 2012, Turkish Airlines was chosen to be the best airline company of Europe. Currently, Turkish Airlines is one of the most profitable airline companies in the world (www.turkishairlines.com).

Method: The main research question of this study is to discover the relationship between brands and culture and the concept of brand culture. Along with the research question and in correspondence with the nature of this qualitative research, case study design has been used. For describing a culture which people are not familiar with the setting, providing a qualitative profile is an appropriate decision (Patton, 2002: 236). For this purpose, THY has been chosen as the sample of this research by using typical case sampling from purposive sampling types. THY was chosen due to the facts that; it is a brand which has strong cultural roots and it is one of the most important Turkish brands. To investigate the research question from the point of view of the brand, an interview has been made with the brand manager of THY (S.O.). To investigate the research question also from the point of view of a customer, an interview has been made with a customer of THY. The chosen customer has travelled with THY domestic flights for many times and also travelled from Turkey to USA and Turkey from several European countries in the recent two years. The interviewee will be referred to as M.T. in this article. Due to geographical and limited time problems, interviews could not be made face to face. The interview questionnaires were sent to the interviewees via e-mail and the responses were delivered in the same way. Content analysis was applied to the data by composing the codes and themes and finally the results have been reported. To increase the credibility of the study, 20% percent of the data has been analysed by another expert and it turned out that more than 70% percent of the codes determined by the expert and the researcher were similar. Secondary information for the research has been gathered via the corporate website of Turkish Airlines and articles about the brand.

Objectives of the research: Along with the main research question of this study ‘discovering the relationship between brands and culture and the concept of brand culture’, research objectives are: to point out the effects of culture on THY, to display how culture is used by the brand, to define the brand culture of and it’s representation in intercultural environments. Finally, to compare the diverse perceptions from the point of view of the brand and the customer.

Findings and Discussion: The interview data has been content analysed. Data attained from the interview with the brand manager has resulted in five main themes: The relation of culture and THY, brand culture of THY, intercultural management, brand communication and THY and brand culture and corporate target audiences. Data attained from the interview with the customer has formed seven main themes. Five themes turned out to be the same: The relation of culture and THY, brand culture of THY, intercultural management, brand communication and THY and brand culture and corporate target audiences. Also, two different themes were formed: brand image and ‘Turkish customers’ choices.

4.1 Relation of Culture and Turkish Airlines

The brand manager of THY defines the relationship between brand and culture as follows: “There is a mutual relationship between brand and culture. Culture include values created in the process of historical and social development and the tools used to transmit these values to next generations. Ignoring the dominant culture of the society will have negative results on the success of the brand”. It is much more easier and faster to be accepted for a long term by consumers as a brand which gives importance to the generally accepted values of the society. Therefore, a local and a global brand needs abstract brand values appropriate to the social, cultural and psychological features of the target audiences.

He defines the relationship of culture and brand within the case of THY as follows: “THY has an important place in the history and culture of the Turkish society and it is a brand which creates important effects with its history and cultural
consumers’ commitment to the company increases due to THY being the first Turkish airline company and with all historical associations of the brand.

It is within THY’s strategic priorities to create brand advantage which is formed of Turkish society’s values. Especially within the service sector, the way the service is presented should affect people as a ritual and an experience, and thereby create loyalty. Turkish cultural heritage presents many precious opportunities and differentiating points for services and THY is trying to nourish from these.

THY customer M.T., also shares the same opinion about the mutual relationship of brands and culture - being affected by the culture and affecting it. She indicates the cultural traces visible on the brand elements of THY and Turkish culture’s strong effects on the brand. According to her, cultural influence has been a main part of the branding process of THY. In other words, the successful branding process has been strongly grounded on using Turkish cultural elements. She also designates that not only THY has been influenced by the Turkish culture, but also THY has effects on Turkish culture as a strong brand.

4.2 Brand Culture of Turkish Airlines

According to S.Ö. the brand culture of THY: creates a privileged journey experience with its brand identity which combines the hospitality and warmth of its local culture with dynamism and innovative approaches shown in all contact points with customers. He adds that this definition is a good example of the brand’s positioning and how the brand’s cultural heritage is effectuated. The cultural codes of THY mentioned by S.Ö. may be seen in Table 1.

Table 1: The Cultural Codes of Turkish Airlines Mentioned by the Manager

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Customer Centric</th>
<th>Prestigious</th>
<th>Reliable</th>
<th>Visionary</th>
<th>Entertaining</th>
<th>Global</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional hospitality *Takes work seriously *Privileged *Has “the most”</td>
<td>Has standards *Consistent *Disciplined *Experienced *Informed *Punctual</td>
<td>Innovative *Dynamic *Energetic *Initiator *Admirable</td>
<td>Presents rich treatment *Fun *Comfortable *Full of nice surprises</td>
<td>Many alternative of flights network *Presents the synthesis of the east and the west *Multi-cultural *Niche and private routes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Interview with the brand manager of Turkish Airlines

According to S.Ö., THY reflects the Turkish culture to its guest by presenting the traditional values of the Turkish culture such as; hospitality, friendliness, being helpful and presenting a thoughtful and a concerned attitude. When customers relate the cultural values of the country with the brand, these values for THY come out to be: rich cultural heritage, hospitality, friendliness, intimacy, trustworthiness, quality and being global.

Brand culture is one of the most important elements of THY’s success. THY was chosen to be the best airline company of Europe in 2012 and brand culture has serious contributions to this award. The brand culture stands out with the strong effects of Turkish authenticity and its balanced presentation to its guests worldwide. With these aspects of brand culture, it has a strength to differentiate the brand among competitors.

M.T. indicates that a brand can create a culture of its own and defines the culture of THY as a mixture of the Turkish culture and the corporate culture of THY. The cultural codes of THY mentioned by M.T. may be seen in Table 2. There are common codes indicated both by the customer and by the manager. Focusing on service quality, hospitality and friendliness are seen both in both classifications. Again, strongly indicated codes by both interviewees turned out to be the mixture of tradition and modernity and the synthesis of the east and the west. M.T. strongly stressed on the legendary perception of THY as being a brand to be proud of for Turkey and for Turkish people.
Table 2: The Cultural Codes of Turkish Airlines Mentioned by the Customer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>Mixture of tradition and modernity</th>
<th>Being legendary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Service quality</td>
<td>*Synthesis of the east and the west</td>
<td>*Being the first flying Turkish brand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Hospitality</td>
<td>*Being proud of its past</td>
<td>*Cultural heritage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Friendliness</td>
<td>*Effects of Ottoman Culture: clothes, music</td>
<td>*Relating THY success with Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Comfort</td>
<td>*Turkish authenticity</td>
<td>*Being a Turkish brand to be proud of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>*Religious texture</td>
<td>*Showing a Turkish brand’s success</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Interview with TA customer M.T.

In the study of Küçükertoğan, et. al. (2011) where they evaluate the visual content of THY ‘Globally Yours’ advertising campaign, they came up with several points: They detected that messages given via color, text and visuals are: trust, comfort, quality, excellence and success. They noted that there are several elements stressed in the advertisements: the emphasis on localness and globalization at the same time, simplicity, traditionality and innovation, the emphasis on ‘us’, presenting an adventure and feeling of privilege.

Brand culture diffuses and strengthens with many channels. Sponsorships are one of them. THY sponsored many famous sports teams and events like; FC Barcelona, Manchester United FC, Greece’s basketball club Maroussi Basketball Club and THY has also become the sponsor of a golf tournament “Turkish Airlines Challenge”. There were important outcomes of these sponsorships: THY logo and advertisements were to take place in the famous football stadiums Nou Camp and Old Trafford Stadium, THY was to film a commercial with the players of Barcelona and advertise their sponsorship all over the world (Küçükertoğan, et. al., 2011). The sponsorship chosen create an idea on the intentions of the brand. Also, with sponsorships, THY have the chance to demonstrate its visual identity, which is an important indicator of brand culture.

To summarize the results on brand culture, it would be appropriate to indicate the common codes which were visible in data attained from the content analysis of the both interviewees and from the secondary data. These codes of THY’s brand culture turned out to be: Turkish authenticity, hospitality, friendliness, quality, being global, cultural heritage, comfort, synthesis of the east and the west and mixture of tradition and modernity.

4.3 Intercultural Management

Cultural differences affect the perceptions and behaviours of consumers. Due to this fact, THY differentiates its communication messages to different regions, countries and cultures, by sticking to the main theme of the advertisement campaign and maintaining the brand’s cultural elements.

An important thing is to be able to have success in different countries with the same cultural brand elements. THY manages this process with various principles and behaviour: They present close, creative and customer-centric unique experiences in all customer meeting points. These experiences lead to a meaningful long-term relationship with the customers. THY makes its guests feel privileged and special during all their journeys and avoids being common and standard. Always presents surprises to its customers via innovations made in customer meeting points. THY is aware of social responsibility and presents sensibility in all platforms.

When operating in an international platform, it is important to know the customers from different cultures. S.Ö. indicates that THY manages this diversity with two main methods; focus group meetings and local employees. With focus group meetings, THY tries to understand the perceptions about the brand and customers’ expectations from the brand. According to these, the company organizes its local operations and communication plans. Another important source of information about customers from different countries is the local employees of these countries. As a global company, THY mainly works with local employees in all countries. Thereby, they receive important information about their customers from the point of view of people of their own culture.

To manage cultural differences, brands choose to differentiate their marketing strategies for different cultures. Brands may sometimes use standardization and offer the same marketing strategy worldwide and sometimes use customization and differentiate their messages according to countries, cultures and societies. S.Ö. notes that THY chooses to mix these two different strategies. They have standard presentations and the sense of the Turkish culture in their offerings but they also actualize local implementations for products, services and communication. They believe that differentiated presentations enable their guests to feel themselves in a private, safe and joyful flight experience. THY gives importance to cultural differences in making various selections from cuisine to the movies that their guests are going to watch during the flight. For example, the different cuisine of Far East or Europe is always considered and the
catering services are organized according to the diverse tastes of the flying destination. Though THY differentiates their offerings for different cultures, it is important for the brand to always keep Turkish cultural aspects and assemble these with other cultural values of their guests.

According to M.T., today TA is a global brand due to its success in intercultural management. Becoming a star-alliance member, sponsorships of well-known world teams and collaboration with international airline companies were correct choices of THY in the path of becoming a global brand. According to her, THY succeeds in different cultural environments due to its high level of quality which is the same everywhere. Though company faces problems, these are never reflected to the customers. Another important advantage of THY is its wide range of flights and having direct flights to long destinations.

4.4 Brand Communication and THY

Brand manager of THY has mentioned the following about their brand communication:

- THY plans its brand communication activities on; legal, honest and true roots. All projects are planned according to honest competition principles and all operations are carried with professional responsibility.
- THY never uses statements or words which are not appropriate to the culture and morals of the countries which it flies to.
- THY plans all its communication campaigns without trying to benefit from consumers’ trust and without exploiting their lack of information or experience. All elements that affect the buying decision of consumers are transmitted within the right time and way so that consumers will be able to perceive the messages.
- In all flight routes, THY’s attitude is based on respecting cultural values. The company is sensitive about races, national roots, religion, gender, age, disability and sexual preferences. It does not benefit from unlucky situations, does not use the fear factor in communication and does not exploit any belief or emotion.
- In all communication practices of THY, it is fundamental not to give misleading messages but only the truth.
- THY never creates lack of information and does not use exaggerated offers which lead consumers to spurious ideas.

What M.T. has observed about the brand communication of THY, is that the most frequently used techniques are advertisement and sponsorships. In its advertisements THY uses cultural figures but also uses world-known celebrities to become a global brand. She also indicates that the special card for THY customers (Miles & Smiles) is a successful element to create customer loyalty.

4.5 Brand Culture and Corporate Target Audiences

The interviewee M.T. mentioned one issue about this theme. According to her, THY is not very successful in communicating with its corporate target audiences. Many employees of THY have been on strike and this strike has gained a serious support from the public. However, the company did not effectuate its employees demands. This issue being stressed from a customer is fairly important. It means that brand’s relation with corporate target audiences affects its customers point of view about the brand and its image.

The following section about corporate target audiences depends on the content analysis of S.Ö.’s interview. Cultural aspects of the brand has strong effects to corporate target audiences. When doing business in international platforms, the synthesis of the east and the west creates a different impact. For example, Eastern countries admire that THY has a western presence while at the same time presenting the rich cultural heritage of the east. Also, the enthusiasm of the brand and employees create very strong bonds with international partners.

Brand culture also has serious effects on employees. As part of its brand identity based on globalness, THY has created an employee profile who are respectful to their customers’ rituals and values of all cultures.

THY managed to increase the loyalty and motivation of its employees, and direct them to a common behavioural model. THY employees internalize the corporate cultural values and act as volunteered representatives of the brand. The positive effects of culture on employees bring out many advantages. Employees are enthusiastic about developing innovative ideas, creating business models to increase efficiency and profits, questioning and enhancing the business processes. Thereby, employees make maximum contribution to THY to reach its goals by becoming a global leader.

As a service brand, THY gives great importance to corporate culture. According to THY, corporate culture and brand culture should be nourished from the same fundamental values. The brand identified many common values both for corporate and brand culture:
• Being customer-centric.
• Being proud of the brand that he/she is a part of.
• Maintaining the values and standards which the brand represents.
• Being aware that he/she is a representative of the brand and feeling responsible about this.
• Being friendly all the time.
• Creating new ideas, easily adapting to innovations.
• Seeing every passenger as his/her own guest.
• Respecting every individual without discrimination.
• Believing in common mind and collaboration.
• Focusing at continual development.
• Inspiring confidence.
• Creating fast solutions.
• Being open to communication.

All managers and employees who represent the brand should act in accordance with these values.

4.6 Brand Image

Interviewee M.T. has mentioned the brand image of THY. She indicates that the brand image of THY strongly grounds on being the first flying Turkish brand and being proud of Turkey’s and brands’ past. She highlights that the mutual bond and trust between THY and Turkish culture-history is what really creates the positive image for the brand. She notes that this message can be seen in THY’s corporate advertisements. Being a successful Turkish brand enhances THY’s positive image and creates customer satisfaction in the domestic market.

4.7 Turkish Customers’ Choices

This theme has emerged from the content analysis of M.T.’s data. She indicates that not being able to choose your food in national flights and not being able to drink alcohol in national flights create unhappiness. Another issue stressed by her is that, though there was a reaction from the Turkish public on THY’s new decisions on not giving alcohol in national flights and the new clothes of its cabin staff, the brand did not change its decision.

5. Limitations

There are two main limitations of this study. First, by using typical case sampling, this study has only been directed to one brand. Second, due to geographical and limited time problems, interviews could not take place face to face.

6. Conclusion

Turkish Airlines as the first airline company of Turkey is a brand with strong cultural background and influences. It is seen as one of the most successful brands of Turkey and has demonstrated its success by becoming the best airline company of Europe in 2012. THY has a brand culture which is highly influenced by the Turkish culture. At the same time, as a strong brand THY seems to affect the Turkish culture and the perceptions about Turkish brands in a positive way. The brand defines its cultural codes as being; customer-centric, prestigious, reliable, visionary, entertaining and global. Data gathered from both interviewees and secondary data indicate the cultural codes of THY as: Turkish authenticity, hospitality, friendliness, quality, being global, cultural heritage, comfort, synthesis of the east and the west and mixture of tradition and modernity.

THY maintains the fundamental elements of its culture in all platforms but assemble these with the cultural aspects of different countries. One of the most important factors of THY’s growing success stands out to be the intercultural management and brand culture. The brand is successful in handling culture in their relationships with its corporate target audiences and customers. Though, from the customer’s point of view, THY is criticized of not being as successful in respecting its employees and Turkish people’s choices. Also, THY’s brand image is highly related with its cultural roots. The successful branding process and the positive brand image are grounded on embracing the Turkish culture.
References


http://www.turkishairlines.com, Received: October 2012.
Development of a Simple Version of the 27-item Version of an Instrument to Measure Self-Efficacy for Social Participation of People with Mental Illness

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Abstract

Background: People with severe mental illness can now function better in their communities because of improved local mental health services. Nevertheless, a convenient short scale for evaluating their functioning would be useful. Purpose: We simplified the 27-item version of an instrument measuring self-efficacy for social participation in mentally ill individuals (SESP27), creating an abridged 10-item version (SESP10). The validity and reliability of the SESP10 were then assessed. Methods: We administered the SESP27, Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Scale, Norbeck’s Social Support Scale, the Sense of Coherence Scale (13-item), and the 12-item General Health Questionnaire to 145 community-dwelling mentally ill people using a psychiatric service. We also assessed how satisfied subjects were with their lives and whether they had any life goals. To verify the reliability of the SESP10, the SESP27 was distributed to the same participants about 1 month after the first survey. By referring to the factor structure of the SESP27, 10 items that were found to have high loadings were selected and used to create the SESP10. Results: Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the SESP10 maintained the four-factor structure of the SESP27, with sufficient content validity; these factors were: “trust in social self” (2 items), “self-management” (3 items), “social adaptability” (2 items), and “mutual support” (3 items). Furthermore, the SESP10 had excellent internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and criterion validity. Conclusion: The validity and reliability of the SESP10 were confirmed. Because of its convenience, it can be widely applied to people with severe mental illness.

Keywords: self-efficacy, social participation, mentally illness

1. Background

Supporting individuals with mental illness is often about helping them participate in society in their own ways despite their chronic symptoms or disorders, rather than achieving complete cure of the disease. The primary factor that inhibits social participation in mentally ill people is the insufficiency of social support or governmental systems to help them integrate into society; however, their own individual factors cannot be ignored. This involves not only their impaired functions or abilities, but also their lack of self-efficacy (self-confidence) in social participation or community life. Lack of self-efficacy requires more attention as a factor that inhibits mentally ill people from engaging in social participation.

Accordingly, we developed an instrument to measure mentally ill people’s level of self-efficacy (self-confidence) in social participation (SESP27). This scale is significant in that it can measure the effectiveness of psychiatric rehabilitation from the subjective perspectives of mentally ill individuals.

In recent years, even the people with severe mental illness have become able to live successfully in communities, because of 24-hour comprehensive services such as assertive community treatment (ACT), which provides mentally ill people with adequate healthcare, welfare, and employment. We believe that it would be beneficial and convenient to develop a simplified scale with good reliability and validity, and that is applicable to a wide range of mental disease levels, for measuring self-efficacy in social participation in mentally ill people.

The objective of this study is to abridge the original SESP27 for individuals with mental illness into a simplified 10-item version.

2. Methods

2.1 Study period: May to December 2009.
2.2 Subjects

We selected 164 mentally ill community-dwelling people who were using day hospitals in psychiatric medical institutions, local activity support centers, small workplaces for mentally ill people, working continuation support workshops, and related institutions.

2.3 Measures

2.3.1 Basic characteristics of participants

The specific items that we examined regarding participants' characteristics were gender, age, race, religion, diagnosis, history of hospitalization, duration of disease, housing condition, sociopsychological services currently used, employment status, etc.

2.3.2 Evaluation of psychological symptoms

Participants' psychological symptoms were evaluated as part of our assessment of their characteristics. To reduce the possible burden on participants, their psychological symptoms were evaluated using the Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale (BPRS) with the minimum number of items. Evaluations were conducted by trained psychiatric nursing specialists.

2.3.3 SESP27

In this survey, the original version of the SESP27 was used to measure the levels of self-efficacy in social participation of mentally ill people. We had developed this scale previously, and have already confirmed its reliability and validity (Amgai, Suzuki, Shibata, & Tsai, 2012). This scale consisted of four subscales (27 items): “trust of social self” (8 items), “self-management” (7 items), “social adaptability” (7 items), and “mutual support” (5 items). Subjects were asked how confident they currently felt about each item, which they rated on a 4-point scale, ranging from 3 (“I am confident”) to 0 (“I am not confident”). Higher scores indicated greater confidence in social participation.

2.3.4 Scales related to social participation

We used Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), Norbeck’s Social Support Scale (Japanese version, Maeda, Hata, & Hata, 2003), the Sense of Coherence Scale (13-item Japanese version, Togari & Yamazaki, 2005) and the 12-item General Health Questionnaire (Niino & Mori, 2001). Before using these related scales, we confirmed that they were available and obtained their developers' approval before using them.

Additionally, we included questions on how satisfied the subjects were with their lives and whether they had any life goals.

2.4 Procedures

2.4.1 Selection of survey-cooperating facilities and invitation of participants

People with mental illness are likely to exhibit greater vulnerability to stress than healthy people. In light of this, before asking for participants' cooperation in the survey, we explained the study purpose and all ethical considerations to staff members of facilities that had good relationships with us.

For recruitment, we asked staff members who had built good relationships with prospective participants to introduce them to us. Extreme caution was exercised to ensure that participants did not interpret our approach as coercion. The study content and ethical considerations were explained to participants, and those who agreed to participate were asked to sign the consent document.
2.4.2 Procedures

The questionnaire was primarily self-administered, but we also interviewed participants who expressed the desire to be due to their impeding mental or physical conditions.

In order to verify the reliability of the newly developed abridged version of the SESP27, a questionnaire sheet consisting only of the abridged SESP scale for individuals with mental illness was distributed to the same participants about 1 month after the first questionnaire survey.

Mental conditions were assessed immediately after participants finished the first questionnaire survey. Psychiatric nursing specialists interviewed the participants to make these assessments. For this assessment, nurses exercised extreme caution to protect participants’ privacy and avoided giving any impression of forcing the participants.

A cover was put on the questionnaire sheets so that the content could not be seen by others. After the survey, the questionnaire sheets were put in a drawstring envelope and carried to a designated collection site. The collected questionnaire sheets were put into a locked cabinet for preservation as soon as possible.

2.5 Ethical considerations

The present study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Graduate School of Medicine, in the Faculty of Medicine at Kyoto University.

Our ethical considerations included respect for the will of the participants (including the voluntary nature of participation in the study and the possibility of withdrawing at any point), privacy protection (anonymity during the statistical analysis of questionnaire responses), the restriction of data usage to only the study, and the requirement of a signature on the consent form as evidence of participation.

2.6 Data Analysis

First, a principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the 145 responses to the SESP27 scale. By referring to the factor structure of the SESP27, 10 items were selected from the items that were found to have high loadings in the above factor analysis, and used in the simplified version of the SESP scale (SESP10). Confirmatory factor analysis was performed to assess the validity of the SESP10.

To assess the reliability of the SESP10, we calculated the Cronbach’s α coefficient of internal consistency and the test-retest reliability coefficient.

To assess the validity of the SESP10, the concurrent validity was determined by calculating the correlation coefficients between the total SESP10 score, the subscale scores, and the scores of other self-efficacy scales.

All statistical analysis was performed using SPSS for Windows 18.0 J (SPSS Inc., 2009).

3. Results

3.1 Overview of participants

The number of valid responses was 145 (88.4%) from among 165 questionnaires distributed. Table 1 shows the breakdown of participants’ characteristics. Although variations were observed in some areas—including gender, age, diagnosis, and severity of the conditions among the eight facilities—the distribution was generally similar, and therefore, these facilities were grouped into one for the subsequent analyses.

Table 1. Gender, age, diagnosis, and BPRS in each facility and in the total sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Sex (Male)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Diagnoses N (%)</th>
<th>BPRS Mean (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>Schizophrenia</td>
<td>Mood disorder</td>
<td>Others (SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>(88.2)</td>
<td>36.1 (9.7)</td>
<td>13 (86.7)</td>
<td>0 (0) 2 (13.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>52.9 (7.9)</td>
<td>6 (75.0)</td>
<td>0 (0) 2 (25.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2 Item selection and confirmatory factor analysis based on the factor analysis results of the SESP27

Table 2 shows the results of the factor analysis of the SESP27 (principal component factor analysis, varimax rotation). There were five factors, which mostly retained the four original subscales of “trust in social self,” “self-management,” “social adaptability,” and “mutual support.”

By referring to the factor structure of the SESP27 (four subscales), 10 items (shown by in Table 2) were selected from the items that were found to have high loadings in the above factor analysis. These 10 items form the SESP10.

We performed a confirmatory factor analysis to assess the validity of the SESP10, and found that the factor structure consisting of four subscales was maintained, demonstrating full content validity (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Factor 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can do things without worry.</td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can break free from past failures.</td>
<td>0.827</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>0.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can associate with others even when I feel tired and nervous.</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>0.407</td>
<td>0.126</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I am a valuable person in society.</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>0.186</td>
<td>0.528</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can be useful for something or to someone.</td>
<td>0.595</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>0.412</td>
<td>0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can make decisions on my own judgment.</td>
<td>0.529</td>
<td>0.420</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.351</td>
<td>0.403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can control my social position in my daily life.</td>
<td>0.378</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have the physical strength to live as I would like.</td>
<td>0.378</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can find work or activities that suit me.</td>
<td>0.264</td>
<td>0.542</td>
<td>0.344</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am aware of the social resources that I can use when I am in trouble.</td>
<td>0.242</td>
<td>0.509</td>
<td>0.198</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can get by even when I feel I have more difficulties (than others) in life.</td>
<td>0.380</td>
<td>0.483</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>0.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am capable of having a social position I can describe to others.</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>0.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can find work or activities that suit me.</td>
<td>0.208</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the future, I can live a life that will satisfy myself.</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.432</td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>0.348</td>
<td>0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have work that I am used to and a comfortable environment, and I feel that I will do all right.</td>
<td>0.186</td>
<td>0.278</td>
<td>0.473</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I try, I have the power to change society.</td>
<td>0.260</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>0.430</td>
<td>0.429</td>
<td>0.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My actions and social participation are encouraging to others.</td>
<td>0.261</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.409</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>0.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are people who accept me.</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td>0.327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can consult others about worries or problems.</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>0.371</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.643</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If I try, I can live while getting along with people around me. 0.295 0.395 0.242 0.600 0.144

Others believe in my recovery. 0.331 0.250 0.418 0.471 0.175

There is a place for me to spend leisure time. 0.336 0.242 0.053 0.450 0.523

I can seek necessary information on my own. 0.199 0.312 0.176 0.298 0.479

When I want to do something, I know how to do it. 0.321 0.408 0.324 0.196 0.461

I will be accepted by society even if I do not hide my illness. 0.386 0.217 0.303 0.261 0.393

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Trust of Social Self</td>
<td>0.350</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>0.773</td>
<td>0.306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the future, I can live a life that will satisfy myself.</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>0.416</td>
<td>0.466</td>
<td>0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I try, I have the power to change society.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Self Management</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>0.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can control my physical condition in my daily life.</td>
<td>0.631</td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can control my mood in my daily life.</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>0.270</td>
<td>0.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have the physical strength to live as I would like.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Social Adaptability</td>
<td>0.187</td>
<td>0.256</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>0.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can seek necessary information on my own.</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>0.313</td>
<td>0.538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I want to do something, I know how to do it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Mutual Support</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are people who accept me.</td>
<td>0.325</td>
<td>0.584</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>0.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others believe in my recovery.</td>
<td>0.343</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can consult others about worries or problems.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Assessment of the reliability of the SESP10

The Cronbach’s α coefficient was calculated for the total and each subscale of the SESP10, to assess its internal consistency (Table 4). The α coefficients for the total and each subscale of the SESP10 were 0.7 or greater, indicating good internal consistency.

In order to assess the test-retest reliability of the SESP10, we calculated scores on the SESP10 separately for the first and second SESP tests and then calculated the correlation coefficients between the scores on the first and second tests. All of the correlation coefficients were significant at the 1% level, thus confirming the test-retest reliability (Table 5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SESP10</th>
<th>Cronbach’s α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Trust of Social Self</td>
<td>0.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Self Management</td>
<td>0.839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Social Adaptability</td>
<td>0.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Mutual Support</td>
<td>0.786</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SESP10</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.718**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Trust of Social Self</td>
<td>0.617**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Self Management</td>
<td>0.642**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Social Adaptability</td>
<td>0.496**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Mutual Support</td>
<td>0.724**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p < 0.01
3.4 Assessment of the validity of the SESP10

In order to assess the criterion validity of the SESP10, we calculated the correlation coefficients between it and the related scales (Table 6). Significant correlations were confirmed for all scales except for the “self-management” subscale and Norbeck’s “social support” scale.

Table 6. Correlation coefficients between SESP10 and related scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>SESP10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Scale</td>
<td>0.798**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norbeck’s Social Support Questionnaire</td>
<td>0.207*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of coherence</td>
<td>0.510**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHQ12</td>
<td>0.437**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>0.522**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having any life goals</td>
<td>0.334**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01

4. Discussion

In the present study, we simplified the original 27-item version of the instrument to measure the self-efficacy (self-confidence) in social participation of individuals with mental illness, and created an abridged 10-item version (SESP10) that can be widely applied to people with severe mental illness.

The confirmatory factor analysis showed that the SESP10 maintained the four-factor structure of the original scale, with sufficient content validity; “trust of social self” (2 items), “self-management” (3 items), “social adaptability” (2 items) and “mutual support” (3 items). Furthermore, it had excellent internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and criterion validity.

Because people with severe mental illness can now function better in their communities because of improved local mental health services, the SESP10 should be a useful instrument due to its convenience. Further investigation will be needed for broader utilization of the SESP10, including an assessment of its effectiveness in local mental health services and in examining the abilities of mentally ill individuals.

References


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Comparing and Contrasting First and Second Language Acquisition

PhD Ilda Poshi
MSc Fjona Çukani

Abstract

The ways in which an individual characteristically acquires, retains, and retrieves information in secondary language collectively term the individual’s learning ability. This paper will mainly treat the difference between a child and an adult language acquisition. Determining the difference between a child and an adult foreign language acquisition best depends on a number of variables: the learner’s age, aptitude, and motivation; the amount of time available for instruction; and the difference between the native and the foreign language. For young children, starting early can lead to mastery of a foreign language — with no long-term detriment to their grasp of English. Older students and adults, on the other hand, need a judicious mixture of practice and communication. We are looking at child first language acquisition and adult second language acquisition because they both seem most relevant to our lives right now — as college students who have most definitely mastered our first language at a young age, and are mostly likely attempting to master our second as adults. On the surface, one would look at child first language acquisition and adult second language acquisition and see similarities. The theory of Universal Grammar as developed in the tradition of generative grammar by Noam Chomsky was adopted. In each case, the learner first learns how to make basic sounds, then words, phrases and sentences; and as this learning continues the sentences become more and more complex. However, when one looks at the outcomes of these two types of acquisition, the differences are dramatic. The child’s ability to communicate in the target language far surpasses that of the adult. In this paper differences in these two processes that most always produce such different outcomes will be explored.

1. Introduction

In our everyday lives, the origin of our ability to communicate is usually not often taken into consideration. One doesn’t think about how every person has, or rather had at one time, an innate ability to learn a language to total fluency without a conscious effort — a feat that is seen by the scientific community "as one of the many utterly unexplainable mysteries that beset us in our daily lives" (First Language Acquisition). Other such mysteries include our body's ability to pump blood and take in oxygen constantly seemingly without thought, and a new mother's ability to unconsciously raise her body temperature when her infant is placed on her chest. But, a child's first language acquisition is different from these phenomena; different because it cannot be repeated. No matter how many languages are learned later in life, the rapidity and accuracy of the first acquisition is an established motor pattern (Genesee, F. (1988) pg. 101) which can simply not be repeated. This mystery is most definitely why first language acquisition, and subsequently second language acquisition, is such a highly researched topic.

On the surface, one would look at child first language acquisition and adult second language acquisition and see similarities. In each case, the learner first learns how to make basic sounds, then words, phrases and sentences; and as this learning continues, the sentences become more and more complex. However, when one looks at the outcomes of these two types of acquisition, the differences are dramatic. The child's ability to communicate in the target language far surpasses miraculously that of the adult. In this paper, differences in these two processes that most always produce such different outcomes will be explored.

Before this exploration begins, however, I would like to state that I am looking at child first language acquisition and adult second language acquisition because they both seem most relevant to our lives right now — as college students who have most definitely mastered our first language at a young age, and are mostly likely attempting to master our second as adults. One could also look at situations where only one variable changes (e.g. child first vs. child second or child second vs. adult second) but these comparisons are not represented in this paper.

2. The Criterions

The first area of difference between first (L1) and second (L2) language learning is input – specifically the quality and quantity of input. It is the idea of the "connectionist model that implies... (that the) language learning process depends on the input frequency and regularity" (Macnamara, J. (1975), pg. 71-94). It is here where one finds the greatest difference
between L1 and L2 acquisition. The quantity of exposure to a target language a child gets is immense compared to the amount an adult receives. A child hears the language all day every day, whereas an adult learner may only hear the target language in the classroom – which could be as little as three hours a week. Even if one looks at an adult in a total submersion situation the quantity is still less because the amount of one on one interaction that a child gets for example with a parent or other caregiver is still much greater than the adult is receiving. And as Chomsky assesses “Language learning is not really something that the child does, it is something that happens to the child placed in an appropriate environment much as the child’s body grows and matures in a predetermined way when provided with appropriate nutrition and environmental stimulation.” (Cook, Vivian J. & Newson, Mark, 2007, pg: 204-205). No matter how weird it might sound, the mind is somewhat “equipped” with a mechanism which was settled into the brain beforehand so that it can interpret language experience. Experience does not exist if pre-set knowledge had not been there in first place.

This idea of one on one interaction versus a classroom setting (where an instructor could be speaking to up to twenty, or more students) also ties in with the idea of quality. It is also much easier for a parent or caregiver to engage the child in what he or she is learning. It is hard, however, for a teacher to make the topic being learned relevant to the students’ lives. This can lead to a lack of concentration, and a lack of motivation – something that will be visited later.

The next great and obvious difference between L1 and L2 learning is age. A large part of this train of thought is the idea of a “critical period, or the “time after which successful language learning cannot take place” (Gass, Susan M., Larry Selinker. 2001). This time is usually aligned with puberty. This change is significant, “because virtually every learner undergoes significant physical, cognitive, and emotional changes during puberty.

There are three main physical changes one undergoes in regards to language acquisition. The first is the presence of muscular plasticity (psychomotor considerations = related to the development of speech muscles that allow the learner to control complex sounds determining pronunciation and accent). A child’s plasticity goes away at about the age of five. After this age, it is very hard for a learner to fully master authentic pronunciation of a second language. The second change is one’s memorization capabilities. It is fairly well known that as a person grows older their ability to hold large amount of information reaches its peak fairly early in life, and then begins to decrease. This is seen most dominantly with very old individuals. The third physical change that occurs is more related to neurology.

“As a child matures into adulthood, the left hemisphere (which controls the analytical and intellectual functions) becomes more dominant than the right side (which controls the emotional functions).” (First and Second Language Acquisition).

This idea is called the Lateralization Hypothesis. The significance these specific neurobiological changes have on language learning will be discussed below (Genesee, F. (1988), pg. 81-112).

The one advantage adults seem to have over children is their cognitive ability (= the learner’s intellectual development). Adults are better able to benefit from learning about structure and grammar or even deductive thinking. Unfortunately, this slight advantage in ability does not help adult second language acquisition in general. In fact, this ability almost hinders them in that they analyze too much. Specifically, they cannot leave behind what they know about their first language, which leads to a tendency to overanalyze and to second-guess what they are learning.

The final area that puberty changes is within the emotional or affective realm. Motivation is much affected by emotional change. A child’s motivation is simple. In order to communicate and to be a part of family and society the child must master the target language. This motivation is quite weighty, especially when compared to the motivation that adults have, or rather, must find. Adult motivations usually fall into one of two categories: “integrative motivation (which encourages a learner to acquire the new language in order to become closer to and/or identify themselves with the speakers of the target language) or instrumental motivation (which encourages a learner to acquire proficiency for such practical purposes as becoming a translator, doing further research, and aiming for promotion in their career)” (Larsen-Freeman, D. and Long, M.H. (1991). Either one of these types of motivation must be prevalent for successful acquisition to take place.

The final change that takes place, and changes language learning has to do with egocentricity. Children are naturally egocentric. While learning their language they are not afraid to make mistakes, and in general, they do not feel abashed when they are corrected. Also, their thoughts usually do not surpass their language ability. Adults, on the other hand usually suffer form a fairly large amount of language learning anxiety. Adults often “feel frustrated or threatened in the struggle of learning a different language” (Holland, R. and Shortall, T. (1997). Mistakes are seen more as failures then as opportunities for growth. “The adult learner may also feel greatly frustrated, for being only able to express their highly complex ideas at a discourse level of an elementary school pupil”, (Larsen-Freeman, D. and Long, M.H. (1991). These new emotions leave an adult learner in a slightly helpless position, unable to regain the egocentricity of their childhood, which is just one more hindrance in a line of many. In order to become a successful learner, therefore, adult
learners must overcome these inhibitions and frustrations, and cross the bridge to acquire a second identity (Brown, H. D. (1994) Principles of Language Learning and Teaching: 63), or emphatic capacity in the new language.

3. The Results

Although the desired outcomes of child first language acquisition and adult second language acquisition are exactly the same, the actual outcomes are in reality quite different. Factors such as motivation, quality and quantity of input and a lack of egocentrism, among many other factors such as: the learner’s ability to make conscious something that he uses sub-consciously or something he has learned to use sub-consciously many years ago, his native language and exposure to the foreign language, his innate ability to embrace or assimilate a foreign language sound/pattern and the learner’s speech habit, - will forever stand in the way of adult second language learning. In conclusion, because of so many varying factors, both the processes and outcomes of child first language acquisition and adult second language acquisition are extremely different, and are only connected by a common goal – i.e. to acquire the best and the most they can from the language learning process.

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The Impact of Company Characteristics on Derivatives Usage:  
Survey Study of Large Croatian Companies


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Abstract

The use of derivatives for risk management purposes has been a worldwide phenomenon for several decades. Researches show that use of derivatives as a tool of corporate risk management can contribute to the creation of company’s market value and shareholder wealth. Studies on companies’ motives for derivatives usage and non-usage were conducted in USA, Canada, Australia, United Kingdom, Belgium, Sweden, Taiwan and Pakistan. In the recent years, the subject of derivatives markets has been abundantly covered in Croatian literature as well. At the moment, there is no derivatives market in Croatia, and only viable exchange trading is spot trading of securities on the Zagreb Stock Exchange. However, those interested can trade at major European and world exchanges through mediation of domestic and foreign brokers. For this reason, the attitude of Croatian companies towards derivatives trading imposed as insufficiently studied area of research. For the purpose of this paper a primary research was conducted among large Croatian companies. The purpose of the research was to determine the extent to which large Croatian companies are familiar with the concept and strategies of derivatives trading, how many companies use derivatives, the type of most commonly used derivatives and motives for use and non-use of derivatives among Croatian companies. The analysis of survey results was conducted through cross-tabulation in order to assess the impact of company characteristics on derivatives usage.

Keywords: hedging, risk management, derivatives, large companies, Croatia.

1. Introduction

Even though trading of goods with delivery into the future has been present for several centuries now, trading of derivatives still remains one of the most sophisticated forms of modern corporate risk management. Derivative is financial instrument or security whose value is dependent on value of some other fundamental good or underlying asset. Derivative contracts involve exchange of one asset for another and are initiated at one time, while performance in accordance with the terms of contracts occurs at a subsequent time (Kolb, 2003). For example, a gold derivative is an agreement between a buyer and a seller on the exchange of gold at a fixed date in the future, called the contract’s expiry or maturity date, at a price agreed at a time of initial contracting while the actual payment and delivery of gold occur later in the future.

Nowadays, trading in derivatives takes place mostly on the organized exchanges in the form of futures contracts. Futures contracts are highly standardized derivative contracts with the quantity and quality of underlying asset, form of price...
quotation and method of final delivery or settlement clearly defined by the contract specification. Alternative to institutional trade on organized exchange is the over-the-counter trade in the form of forwards and swaps as privately negotiated agreements. Trading in futures requires margin deposit. Margin is the amount of money or other highly liquid asset which has to be paid by the prospective traders in order to indicate their ability to fulfill their financial obligations arising from trading futures (Orsag, 2006). Due to the margin deposits, performance on futures contracts is guaranteed by the clearinghouse, meaning that trading in futures virtually eliminates credit risk i.e. risk of default. On the other hand, trading in forwards is self-regulated and can expose traders to great amount of credit risk. However, forwards provide traders with benefit of customized risk management solutions. Futures trading emerged from forwards trading.

There are four basic strategies of trading at derivatives markets: speculation, hedging, arbitrage and trading options (Lazibat et al., 2007). A speculator is a trader who enters the futures market in search of profit and, by doing so, willingly accepts risk. Because of this, speculators are often mentioned in a negative context, although their presence is necessary for futures market liquidity. In contrast to a speculator, the hedger is a trader who enters the futures market in order to reduce a pre-existing risk. An example of a hedger is a subject who needs to buy or sell certain goods in the future, such as a farmer or a food producer, and whose future business performance is reflected by price changes of related goods. A hedge is performed by taking a position in the futures market that is opposite to the risk exposed position in the cash market. Arbitrage is a riskless futures trading strategy and arbitrageur simultaneously buys and sells certain good given that price spread is large enough to cover all the transaction costs. Fourth trading strategy is trading options.Options on futures contracts give option buyers the right, but not the obligation to buy or sell an underlying futures contract at a predetermined fixed price, called strike or exercise price, until maturity date. For such right, option buyer pays option seller a premium (Lazibat & Matić, 2001). There are two basic types of options; a call options that gives the buyer the right to buy an underlying futures and a put option that gives a buyer the right to sell an underlying futures. The major advantage of options over futures contracts is that buyer’s maximum loss is limited to the amount of premium. If the futures prices move in the unfavourable direction, the option buyer can decide not to exercise the option and all he loses is prepaid option premium (Lazibat, 2000). It can be concluded that the most important function of futures markets is to allow the price risk transfer from the subjects who wish not or cannot accept it to the subjects who consciously and willingly accept it in order to gain profit, i.e. from hedgers to speculators.

The use of derivatives for risk management purposes has been a worldwide phenomenon for several decades. Mseddi & Abid (2010) argue that use of derivatives as a tool of corporate risk management can contribute to the creation of company’s market value and shareholder wealth. The purpose of risk management activities is to ensure the best possible combination of return and certainty of achieving that return with respect to the company’s resources and risk preferences. Deviation from the planned revenues or cash flows may weaken company’s financial state and lead to harder access to external capital at higher rates (Schultz, 1996). Reducing the volatility of cash flows, companies can decrease costs of financial distress and obtain internal funds for financing new investments, as well as reduce the dependence on costly external capital (Bartram, 2000).

At the moment, there is no derivatives market in Croatia, and only viable exchange trading is spot trading of securities on the Zagreb Stock Exchange. However, those interested can trade at major European and world exchanges through mediation of domestic and foreign brokers. For this reason, the attitude of Croatian companies towards derivatives trading imposed as insufficiently studied area of research. For the purpose of this paper a primary research was conducted among large Croatian companies. The purpose of the research was to determine the extent to which large Croatian companies are familiar with the concept and strategies of derivatives trading, how many companies use derivatives and how they evaluate the usefulness of derivatives usage. Further was explored which type of derivatives are most commonly used by Croatian companies and reasons why Croatian companies choose not to use derivatives. The analysis of survey results was performed through cross-tabulation of results as to assess the impact of company characteristics on derivatives usage.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. After introduction, next section gives a literature review of studies on derivatives usage. Third section describes the design of conducted empirical research. Fourth section presents characteristics of surveyed sample and results analysis. Fifth section concludes.

2. Literature review on derivatives usage

Bodnar et al. (1998, 2003) provided a detailed description of derivative usage, motives for usage and non-usage, exposures and concerns of the U.S. companies. In a number of recent survey studies, additional countries have been studied, such as Australia (Nguyen & Faff, 2002; Heaney & Winata, 2005), United Kingdom (Grant & Marshall, 1997; El-
Masry, 2006), Belgium (De Ceuster et al., 2000), Sweden (Alkebäck et al., 2006), Pakistan (Afza & Alam, 2011) and Taiwan (Shu & Chen, 2003). Jalilvand et al. (2000) compared the use of derivatives between Canadian, U.S. and European companies, and Bodnar et al. (2003) between U.S. and Dutch companies.

In the recent years, the subject of derivatives trading has been abundantly covered among Croatian researchers as well. However, the majority of papers deal with the conceptual framework of derivatives, while only some smaller number of authors conducted an empirical research on derivatives trading among Croatian companies. Lazibat (2000), Lazibat & Matić (2001), Uran (2007), Lazibat & Baković (2007), Šperanda (2008, 2009), Lazibat et al. (2009, 2011) and Gardijan (2011) discussed the instruments of derivatives markets and possible trading strategies. Slakoper & Stauffer (2007) discussed the legal aspect of option contracts. Dedi (2004), Poseidel (2006) and Božić (2010) studied the option valuation techniques. Some smaller number of domestic authors conducted an empirical research on derivatives usage among Croatian companies. Miloš Sprčić (2007a), Miloš Sprčić & Šević (2008), Miloš Sprčić et al. (2011) studied the use of derivatives among Croatian companies as a mean of corporate risk management, whereas Lazibat et al. (2007) and Baković et al. (2012) studied the use of derivatives among Croatian companies in general, including both hedging and speculative motivation of derivative traders. Miloš Sprčić (2007b) compared the derivatives usage among Croatian and Slovenian companies. The value of research conducted for the purpose of this paper is that it explores whether company characteristics, and in what way, affect derivatives usage among large Croatian companies.

Results of previous studies show that large number of companies uses derivatives, regardless of a country of origin. For example, 44% of surveyed companies in U.S. and 60% in Netherlands (Bodnar et al., 2003), 57% of surveyed companies in Croatia (Miloš Sprčić et al., 2008; Sučić et al., 2011), 59% of surveyed companies in Sweden (Alkebäck et al., 2006), 65% of surveyed companies in Australia (Heaney & Winata, 2005) and Belgium (De Ceuster et al., 2000) and 66% of surveyed companies in Slovenia (Miloš Sprčić, 2007b) use derivatives. Results of studies are not directly comparable as characteristics of surveyed sample differ between countries. Nevertheless, results give good insight into degree of development of financial markets in given countries.

Some authors conducted longitudinal comparable studies on derivatives usage the results of which indicate the trends on financial markets in given countries. The share of companies that use derivatives remained somewhat constant in U.S. (Bodnar et al., 1998) and Croatia (Miloš Sprčić et al., 2008; Sučić et al., 2011) and slightly increased from 52% in 1996 to 59% in 2003 in Sweden (Alkebäck et al., 2006). On the other hand, in the recent years a growing number of companies in Croatia became aware of the importance of risk management. In 2006, 73% of large non-financial companies in Croatia managed at least one type of financial risk (Miloš Sprčić et al., 2008), whereas in 2011 the share of large non-financial companies that manage financial risks rose to 93% (Sučić et al., 2011). It can be concluded that even though companies in countries with underdeveloped financial markets began to realize financial risks, they still do not acknowledge the benefits of derivatives as hedging instruments. Hence, further education on derivatives market is needed.

Studies show that large companies are the dominant users of derivatives (Nguyen & Faff, 2002; Bodnar et al., 2003; Alkebäck et al., 2006; El-Masry, 2006), so it can be concluded that company size is the primary characteristic distinguishing users from non-users of derivatives. Such results are reasonable given that larger companies are exposed to a greater range of risks and that derivative trading entails high fixed costs associated with transaction start up. Economic activity of company also affects the extent of derivatives usage. Excluding financial firms, results of Bodnar et al. (1998) show that use of derivatives is higher among primary product companies and manufacturers than among companies in the service industry. However, the intensity of use of derivatives by service companies is increasing significantly faster than for other companies.

The results of Nguyen and Faff (2002) show that leverage (as proxy for financial distress costs), firm size (financial distress and setup costs) and liquidity (as proxy for financial constraints in the underinvestment hypothesis) are the most important factors influencing the likelihood that company will use derivatives.

Companies, regardless of a size or economic sector, mainly use derivatives for hedging purposes striving to achieve lower earnings volatility. On the other hand, the use of derivatives for speculative and arbitrage purposes is concentrated to large companies (Alkebäck et al., 2006). Companies benefit from hedging by reducing the volatility of earnings and cash flows, decreasing thus specific costs such as bankruptcy costs, expected taxes and agency costs, which in turn increases firm value. Focusing on stabilizing recorded earnings and cash flows, companies manage stakeholders’ perception about company and thus its market value. Beside earnings volatility reduction, De Ceuster et al. (2000) mention locking in profits and reducing costs of funds as major motives for using derivatives as hedging instruments.
Derivatives are dominantly used as hedge against foreign exchange and interest rate risk, whereas only some smaller share of companies uses derivatives as hedge against commodity price risk (Bodnar et al., 1998; Jalilvand et al., 2000; Nguyen & Faff, 2002; Alkebäck et al., 2006). Regarding the type of derivatives, most commonly used are forwards, swaps and options and such results prevail for countries with well-developed derivatives market such as Belgium (De Ceuster et al., 2000), as well as for countries with underdeveloped derivatives market such as Croatia (Miloš Sprčić et al., 2008; Sučić et al., 2011). Swaps prove to be dominant derivative type used as hedge against interest rate risk and forwards as hedge against foreign currency risk, both in developed Belgian market (De Ceuster et al., 2000) and underdeveloped Croatian market (Sučić et al., 2011). Derivatives types traded on organized exchanges, such as futures, are rarely used on both Croatian and Belgian markets. Further on, results of Sučić et al. (2011) show that majority of companies exposed to financial risk rely on natural hedging by managing assets and liabilities, which can be explained with the fact that there is no organized derivatives exchange in Croatia and lack of knowledge about derivatives market among Croatian managers. Lack of awareness of the benefits that result from using derivatives may lead companies to lose out in the gains and protection that derivatives offer when carefully handled.

The most important reasons why Croatian companies do not use derivatives as risk management instruments are insufficient supply of risk management instruments offered by Croatian financial industry, high costs of establishing and maintaining risk management programs and difficulties in pricing and valuation of derivatives (Miloš Sprčić et al., 2008). Belgian companies mention policy restrictions imposed by board of directors, perceived risk of derivatives, insignificance of company’s exposure to financial risks and existence of other hedging instruments as main reasons for not using derivatives (De Ceuster et al., 2000).

3. Design of research

Empirical research on the use of derivatives among Croatian companies lasted for five weeks and was conducted during May and June in 2012. The survey was conducted using an online questionnaire as a research instrument. Large companies were selected as a population of interest because former studies of Nguyen & Faff (2002), Bodnar et al. (2003), Alkebäck et al. (2006) and El-Masry (2006) show that large companies, compared to small and medium companies, tend to use derivatives to a larger extent. Large companies were classified in accordance with the Croatian Accounting Act (Narodne novine, no. 109/2007). Register of Business Entities of the Croatian Chamber of Commerce was used for list of companies that meet the size criteria. Only companies that have submitted annual financial report in 2011 were included as to assure that active companies are surveyed. According to the Register, there are 360 active large companies in Croatia. The questionnaire consisted of 19 questions, of which 8 general about company characteristics and 11 specific about derivatives usage. The questionnaire was constructed as a mixture of close-ended, open-ended and rating scale questions. To ensure the maximum rate of return, every week new reminders on research were sent out. During the specified time period, 32 companies fulfilled the questionnaire, which resulted in rate of return of 8.9% of total number of large active companies in Croatia. Respondents were mainly Board members and Directors of Finance or Accounting Departments.

4. Research results

4.1 Sample characteristics

Table 1 shows characteristic of companies in the sample. Majority of companies in the sample are from the manufacturing sector, legally established as a public limited company, privately owned and with dominantly domestic sources of capital. According to the total income earned in 2011, majority of companies belong to the 100 to 500 million HRK category (1 EUR ≈ 7.5 HRK). Regarding the educational structure within the company, an equal number of companies in the sample have less than 50% and more than 80% of top managers with a university degree.

4.2 Knowledge about and usage of derivatives among Croatian companies

The respondents were asked to assess on a scale 1 to 5 their knowledge about derivatives trading strategies and results show highest familiarity with hedging strategy (Mean=2.97), followed by speculations (Mean= 2.93), options (Mean= 2.83) and arbitrage (Mean=2.50). Given that all assessments of familiarity are lower than 3.0 it can be concluded that Croatian companies have poor knowledge of derivatives market and trading strategies. The majority of respondents
learned about derivatives through formal university education (52.4%) and further education at workplace (28.6%). As other sources of information on derivatives, respondents mention seminars, business contacts and media. Only seven companies actually use derivatives (21.9%), which is rather small share compared to the results of Miloš Sprčić et al. (2008) and Sučić et al. (2011). Forward contracts are the most commonly used derivatives type, which is reasonable given that there is no organized derivatives exchange in Croatia. Majority of companies hedge against foreign currency risk. All respondents whose companies use derivatives, mention hedging as primary purpose of derivatives usage. None of the companies use derivatives with the aim of conscious risk taking and achieving speculative gains. Hence, it is not surprise that hedging is the trading strategy that respondents are most familiar with. Moreover, respondents perceive hedging as the most important derivatives trading strategy for the company profitability and the one that results with greatest benefits. Insight that some Croatian companies use derivatives for more than a decade acts as a confirmation that proper use of derivatives results with substantial benefits. More than 70% of respondents believe that derivatives will become inevitable risk management tool for Croatian companies in next 10 years.

Table 1. Sample characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic activity according to National Classification of Activities 2007</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, forestry and fishing (A)</td>
<td>3,1%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing industry (C)</td>
<td>34,4%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water supply, sewerage, waste management and remediation activities (E)</td>
<td>3,1%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction (F)</td>
<td>9,4%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles (G)</td>
<td>9,4%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and storage (H)</td>
<td>6,3%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation and food service activities (I)</td>
<td>6,3%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and communication (J)</td>
<td>3,1%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial and insurance activities (K)</td>
<td>12,5%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>12,5%</td>
<td>4</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Legal organizational form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public limited company</td>
<td>62,5%</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private limited company</td>
<td>37,5%</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of ownership</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>74,2%</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State/community</td>
<td>19,3%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>6,5%</td>
<td>2</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Origin of capital</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>75,0%</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign</td>
<td>15,6%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>9,4%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Total income in 2011</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 100 million HRK</td>
<td>29,0%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 to 500 million HRK</td>
<td>38,7%</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500 million to 1 billion HRK</td>
<td>22,6%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 1 billion HRK</td>
<td>9,7%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Share of top managers with university degree</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 50%</td>
<td>43,8%</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 to 80%</td>
<td>12,5%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 80%</td>
<td>43,8%</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents that stated that their companies do not use derivatives were asked to assess the importance of reasons for not using derivatives. Results show that insufficient knowledge about derivatives, perception of derivatives as risky investments and insufficient support of top management act as most important obstacles that hinder more widespread use of derivatives among large Croatian companies.
4.3 Impact of company characteristics on derivatives usage among Croatian companies

The survey results were cross-tabulated in order to explore association between company characteristics and derivatives usage. First, association between economic sector and derivatives usage was explored. Companies were divided into four economic sectors according to the economic activity they are engaged in. Primary economic sector included Agriculture, forestry and fishing (A). Secondary economic sector included Manufacturing industry (C), Water supply, sewerage, waste management and remediation activities (E) and Construction (F). Tertiary economic sector included Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles (G), Transportation and storage (H), Accommodation and food service activities (I), Information and communication (J) and Financial and insurance activities (K). Quaternary economic sector included other economic activities. Results are presented in Table 2. It can be seen that primary sector is only economic sector that has more derivatives users than non-users, so it can be concluded that economic activity has impact on derivatives usage. Such results can be explained by the fact that primary sector includes the production of raw materials and food from natural resources, resulting in higher exposure to risk of unfavourable commodity price movements and foreign currency risk if companies are operating internationally.

Table 2. Association between economic sector and derivatives usage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic sector</th>
<th>Derivatives users</th>
<th>Derivatives non-users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>77.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quaternary</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>75.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Next, association between legal organizational form and derivatives usage was examined. It can be assumed that public limited companies use derivatives to a greater extent than other organizational form of companies, as they need to manage public perception and maximize shareholders’ wealth. Results are presented in Table 3. It can be noticed that greater share of public limited companies than private limited companies uses derivatives, as it was expected, so it can be concluded that legal organizational form impacts derivatives usage. However, given that difference is rather small, results should be taken with caution.

Table 3. Association between legal organizational form and derivatives usage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Legal organizational form</th>
<th>Derivatives users</th>
<th>Derivatives non-users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public limited company</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private limited company</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>75.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 presents the results of examination of association between form of ownership and derivatives usage. It was assumed that private companies use derivatives to a greater extent, compared to other forms of ownership, since they are fully dependent on market movements and cannot pass costs of unexpected unfavourable events on tax payers. The results regarding the impact of form of ownership are quite unexpected. Companies owned by state show the greatest share of derivatives users, compared to privately owned companies and companies of mixed ownership. One possible explanation for such results is that omnipresent economic crisis forced state owned companies to strengthen their costs and revenues control in order to achieve positive financial results and reduce budget deficit.

Table 4. Association between form of ownership and derivatives usage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of ownership</th>
<th>Derivatives users</th>
<th>Derivatives non-users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>75.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State/community</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Next, association between origin of capital and derivatives usage was examined under the assumption that companies established as subsidiaries of foreign companies use derivatives to a greater extent as a result of acquiring new knowledge and expertise from abroad. Results are given in Table 5. Results show that foreign companies use derivatives
to a larger extent than domestic companies, as was expected. However, derivatives are mostly used by companies of mixed origin of capital. Further research is needed in order to explain such results.

Table 5. Association between origin of capital and derivatives usage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Origin of capital</th>
<th>Derivatives users</th>
<th>Derivatives non-users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>78.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further on, association between income and derivatives usage was examined. According to the income realized in 2011, companies were divided into four groups. Assumptions regarding impact of income are somewhat divided. It can be assumed that companies with higher income use derivatives to a larger extent as they have higher financial exposure to risk. On the other hand, it can be hypothesised that companies with smaller income use derivatives to a larger extent as they are in greater threat of financial distress. Results are presented in Table 6. Results suggest there is no consistent impact of income on derivatives usage. Somewhat similar shares of companies of all income classes use derivatives, with the exception of companies in the 500 million to 1 billion HRK income class that are using derivatives to a considerably smaller extent. Such results can be explained by the fact that all surveyed companies are large companies. Perhaps, income impact would have been more pronounced if companies of different sizes were examined.

Table 6. Association between income and derivatives usage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Derivatives users</th>
<th>Derivatives non-users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 100 million HRK</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 to 500 million HRK</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500 million to 1 billion HRK</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 1 billion HRK</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Last, association between education and derivatives usage was examined. It was assumed that education has positive impact on derivatives usage, i.e. that the companies with higher share of top managers with university degree use derivatives to a larger extent. Such assumption is reasonable given that results show that formal faculty education is primary source of information about derivatives for majority of respondents. Results on impact of education are given in Table 7. Results show that education has positive, but inconsistent, effect on derivatives usage. The higher the share of top managers with university degree the higher is the share of companies that use derivatives, with the exception of companies with 50 to 80% of top managers with university degree.

Table 7. Association between education and derivatives usage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Share of top managers with university degree</th>
<th>Derivatives users</th>
<th>Derivatives non-users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 50%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>83.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 to 80%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 80%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusion

Active risk management is an important part of contemporary corporate financial culture and growing use of derivatives is a result of increased awareness of potential benefits of proper risk management among corporate managers. However, the results of an empirical survey study show that majority of large Croatian companies are only moderately familiar with the derivatives and trading strategies on derivatives market. Herein, hedging comes to the fore as a trading strategy that large Croatian companies are most familiar with. The dominant source of information about derivatives is formal university education followed by education at workplace. Only 21.9% of surveyed companies use derivatives, mainly over-the-counter forward contracts on foreign currency with the basic purpose of hedging against unfavorable foreign exchange and commodity price movements. Furthermore,
the results show that hedging is perceived as the most important derivatives trading strategy for company profitability, as well as the one the usage of which results with greatest benefits. Accordingly, large Croatian companies can be characterized as highly risk averse.

As the most important obstacles to more widespread use of derivatives among large Croatian companies following can be featured: insufficient knowledge about derivatives market and trading strategies; perception of derivatives as highly risky form of investment and lack of awareness and initiative by the companies’ top management. According to the survey results, it can be concluded that further education among Croatian companies is needed, both on the benefits and risks of derivatives usage. By avoiding trading at derivatives market companies are missing on business opportunities, therefore promotion of derivatives among company managers is necessary as well.

Regarding the impact of company characteristics on usage of derivatives, results show that economic sector, legal organizational form, educational structure, form of ownership and origin of capital are associated with derivatives usage. Companies engaged in activities from primary economic sector, organized as public limited company and with larger share of top manager with university education tend to use derivatives to a greater extent. Results on the impact of form of ownership and origin of capital are somewhat surprising as they show that companies owned by state and companies with joint domestic and foreign origin of capital tend to use derivatives to a greater extent. On the other hand, income proves not to have an impact on derivatives usage.

As limiting factor of this study, sample size should be mentioned. A sample size of 32 companies is too small for more comprehensive statistical analysis. Future researches should try to include larger number of companies and companies of different sizes as to provide further insights into impact of company characteristics on derivatives usage. The value of conducted research is that it offers preliminary insights into impact of company characteristics on derivatives usage among Croatian companies.

References


Music and Dance as Learning Interventions for Children with Intellectual Disabilities

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Abstract

Amongst the many disadvantaged groups of people in the world, an important minority are children with intellectual disabilities. Relative to their counterparts without intellectual disabilities, children with intellectual disabilities face a wide spectrum of challenges, including learning difficulties, social segregation and negative stereotyping. Children with intellectual disabilities find it difficult to perform various functions such as communicating and socialising with others, and, in many situations, even looking after themselves. They are extremely vulnerable to depression, poor self-image and a lack of self-confidence. The pace at which they learn and grasp things is much slower than that of children without intellectual disabilities. Appropriate interventions are therefore required for them to function at an acceptable level in school. Various interventions have been identified to assist such children cope with their learning challenges. Amongst these interventions is the integration of music and dance into formal lessons in order to facilitate their learning. The purpose of this study was to examine the contribution made by music and dance to improving learning in the classroom amongst children with intellectual disabilities. Following a qualitative approach, three focus group interviews were conducted using purposive samples of educators. Interpretative phenomenological analysis procedures were used to analyse the data. The following key themes emerged through the process: confidence in communicating, group work, knowledge, concentration and behaviour. The study found that dance and music are positive mediums that contribute significantly to the learning experience of children with intellectual disabilities.

Keywords: Dance, music, intellectual disabilities, interventions, confidence, concentration, behaviour

1. Introduction

Amongst the many disadvantaged groups of people in the world, an important minority are children with intellectual disabilities. In 2009, it was estimated that there were approximately 200 million people with intellectual disabilities in the world (Special Olympics, 2009). Caldwell, Brinko, Krenz and Townsend (2008:129) describe an intellectual disability as “a significant impairment in intelligence and significant limitations in adaptive functioning”. It is also known as developmental delay or mental retardation, which comprises a group of disorders defined by diminished cognitive and adaptive development (Disabled World, 2013). The main characteristics of intellectual disabilities are deficits in social interaction, language and communication, and abnormal behaviour (Dempsey & Foreman, 2001). Most intellectual disabilities are associated with either Angelman syndrome, Asperger’s syndrome, Autism, Down syndrome, Fragile X, Pervasive Development Disorder or Prada-Willi Syndrome (Activ, 2007).

Relative to their counterparts without intellectual disabilities, children with intellectual disabilities face a wide spectrum of challenges, which include learning difficulties, social segregation and negative stereotyping (King, Law, King, Rosenbaum, Kertoy & Young, 2003). They are one of the most marginalised groups in society - discriminated against historically and culturally (Special Olympics, 2009). As a result, their performance expectations are low and the opportunities for them to participate in general group activities are limited (Sooful, Surujlal & Dhurup, 2010).

Children with intellectual disabilities are unable to perform various functions such as communicating and socialising with others, and, in many situations, even looking after themselves. They experience problems with basic activities, including eating, dressing, talking and walking. They are extremely vulnerable to depression, poor self-image and a lack of self-confidence. The pace at which they learn and grasp things is much slower than that of children without intellectual disabilities. These individuals find it difficult to learn and the time taken to teach them is substantially longer than that taken to teach those without intellectual disabilities. Appropriate interventions are therefore required for them to function at an acceptable level in school. Green (1996) argues that early intervention with children with intellectual disabilities can produce large, comprehensive and meaningful improvements in many important domains within the learner. Various interventions have been identified to assist children with intellectual disabilities cope with their learning challenges. These include language therapy, family therapy, and the integration of music and dance into formal lessons.
to facilitate learning, (Fidell, 2000). Halpern (1999) argues that of all the factors that influence learning, few are as far reaching and as little understood as music.

2. Music and dance as instruments of learning

Music and dance are strongly connected to learning. Research (e.g. Staum, 2013; Sze & Yu, 2004; Barry & King, 1999) has shown that music and dance are able to stimulate learning. Skoning (2008) argues that the use of creative arts such as dance and movement enables students to experience increased understanding of content and serves to modify their classroom behaviour for the better. Through activating, stimulating and giving meaning to those who are mentally challenged, engagement with dance and music taps into their strengths and establishes contact and emotional connection. Sooful et al. (2010) posit that dance and music encourage personal effort, provide the opportunity to overcome the limitations imposed by their disabilities and facilitate a greater sense of achievement. The authors posit that the motivation to reach one’s potential, regardless of the level of ability, raises the human spirit of those with intellectual disabilities and increases the chances of them socialising with others.

Hallam (2002) asserts that music has been used with success to facilitate interaction and communication amongst children with severe intellectual disabilities. According to the author, music promotes stimulation and arousal, and creates the basis for learning. Stambough (1996) found music to be beneficial for students with mental retardation and learning disabilities. Music has the ability to help individuals realise their strengths and enables them to connect with different groups of people (Henderson & Gladding, 1998). Since music is a natural reinforcing stimulus, which is immediate in time, it provides the motivation for practicing skills other than those of music (Staum, 2013). While dance assists in developing fine motor skills (Krapp & Wison, 2005), learning takes place when children with intellectual disabilities are required to understand and follow instructions. This further contributes to them being able to take care of themselves and develop a sense of independence.

Music has the potential to play an important role in the lives of children with intellectual disabilities because these children need special instruction and intervention. Sze and Yu (2006) posit that the use of music in the classroom can help improve the quality of life of individuals with intellectual disabilities as well as facilitate speech and improve cognitive ability. As it is a non-verbal form of communication, music has been found to be an effective medium in evoking positive responses from children with intellectual disabilities (Staum, 2013).

Music enables children with intellectual disabilities to develop socially and emotionally, and promote cognitive development, which involves recognising, processing, organising and using information appropriately (Allen & Marotz, 2003). The cognitive process encourages activities such as discovery, interpreting, sorting, classifying and remembering so that those with intellectual disabilities understand themselves as well as their environment. Sze and Yu (2004) posit that normal teaching strategies accompanied by music benefits the learner cognitively, socially and emotionally. The authors found that music assists in releasing tension, thereby enabling learners to engage on an individual level as well as in a group.

In order for learners with intellectual disabilities to interact socially, it is important for their communication skills to develop. For this to happen, they should be able to understand concepts and relationships before applying them. Given its non-threatening nature, music is able to facilitate both verbal and non-verbal communication. Staum (2013) found that planned activities such as passing a ball back and forth, playing musical chairs or playing sticks encourage interaction, helps children develop eye contact with each other and focuses attention.

Music and dance encourage increased engagement and provide the stimulus for the processing, assimilation and recollection of information for learners with intellectual disabilities. Barry and King (1999) allude to the fact that classroom lessons can be greatly enhanced through the introduction of calming background music. Music has also been found to be effective in improving and capturing the attention of a learner so that he/she acquires a sense of control and is able to create a routine, which is essential for academic success (Brunk, 2004). Music and dance also bring out creativity in learners with intellectual disabilities, which contributes to enhanced self-awareness, self-expression and self-esteem.

3. Problem statement

It is important that interventions designed to assist learners with intellectual disabilities to develop and progress academically are planned, developed and introduced into the classroom as quickly as possible, in order to help learners reach their potential as swiftly as possible. In many instances, it may taken for granted that such learners are unable to cope, absorb or retain knowledge and educators often fall into the trap of doing the bare minimum and sticking to a
mundane/boring routine in the class without being creative in their efforts to assist the learner. The adoption of this stance results in non-learning or slow learning, which is perpetuated over time causing these learners’ intellectual development to be compromised. The classroom provides the best opportunity for learners with intellectual disabilities to develop emotionally, socially and academically.

Historically, activities for children with intellectual disabilities have been organised and institutionalised separately from those who do not have disabilities (Sooful et al., 2010). In many instances, these children are required to be in either separate classrooms or separate schools, under the supervision of specialist teachers in order to cater for their special educational needs. The home environment, the child’s perceived self-competence, family and child preferences, family demographics and lack of social support from schools and communities, all contribute to their segregation (King et al., 2003). Although learners with intellectual disabilities are limited in their capacity to understand different instructions to dance and music fully, they have the potential to learn through the experience. Therefore, interventions using dance and music that assist in their learning development by providing an environment conducive to learning should be introduced.

Music and dance as interventions in the learning process need to be viewed as more than just leisure activities. They need to be formalised as an integral component of the curriculum so that children with intellectual disabilities are able to attain their educational goals. According to the American Music Therapy Association (AMTA) (2006), the repetition of songs enable intellectually challenged children to identify numbers, colours and objects, develop cognitive, behavioural, physical, emotional and social skills, and enhance communication. AMTA (2006) also argues that involvement in music stimulates attention and encourages participation in educational settings.

Few studies have examined the effectiveness of the integration of music and dance with individuals with intellectual disabilities. This exploratory study attempts to fill that void. Over the past decade, numerous studies on the development of children with intellectual disabilities have been conducted. The majority of these studies focused on the physical development of these children while there is a paucity of research on interventions such as dance and music as interventions that contribute to their intellectual and psychological development.

4. Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to examine the views of educators regarding the contribution of music and dance to learning in the classroom amongst children with intellectual disabilities.

5. Methodology

5.1 Design

As the aim of the current study was to examine the contribution that music and dance makes to improving learning in the classroom amongst children with intellectual disabilities, a phenomenological approach was deemed most appropriate. Therefore, data were collected through the use of semi-structured qualitative focus group interviews and subsequently subjected to interpretative phenomenological analysis, which aims “to explore in detail the participant view of the topic under investigation” (Smith, Jarman & Osborn, 1999:218). This approach potentially evokes responses that are ‘rich’ and explanatory in nature.

5.2 Sample

Purposive sampling was used to recruit the subjects for the study - the advantage being that it allows the researcher to deliberate on people or events, which have good grounds in what they believe, which will be critical for the research (Dane, 1990). The principals of two schools for children with intellectual disabilities were approached and explained the purpose of the research being undertaken. After permission was obtained to conduct the study, the principals were requested to identify ‘seasoned’ educators to participate in the study, based on their experience, involvement and participation in dance and music with children with intellectual disabilities. Subsequently, principals identified and selected educators with experience of five years and more to participate in the interviews.

5.3 Data collection

Prior to the interview, participants were informed of the topic to be discussed and the purpose of the study. Data were
collected from three focus group interviews. Each interview lasted between 45 minutes and 60 minutes. An extensive literature review guided the development of a semi-structured interview protocol. All three focus groups were subjected to the same set of questions. Where answers were very brief and unclear, probing questions were asked as a follow-up. Probing was also used to explore new themes and issues that were not initially considered (Gray, 2004; Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004).

5.4 Ethical considerations

At the outset, consent was obtained from each participant that took part in the focus group interviews. Participants were informed that participation was voluntary and that they could terminate their participation and remove their data at any stage without providing a reason. The responses of participants were recorded with their permission. Core ethical issues such as respect, honesty, confidentiality and anonymity were adhered to during the study.

5.5 Data analysis

The interviews were transcribed verbatim from the recordings. The data from the transcripts were subjected to interpretative phenomenological analysis procedures, as described by Smith, Jarman and Osborn (1999). In order to reveal the underlying meaning of the participants' accounts “through a process of interpretative engagement with the texts” (Smith, 1995:123), each transcript was read and reread a number of times and notes regarding the similarities and differences concerning the data were made. From these preliminary notes, emergent themes within the text were developed.

5.6 Reliability

The interpretation of the data was tested by requesting an independent experienced researcher in qualitative research to read the transcripts in conjunction with the emergent themes and comment thereon. Thereafter, through a discussion between the researcher and the independent researcher, consensus was reached regarding the emergent themes. In addition, reliability was ascertained using member validation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). A summary of the transcripts as well as the emergent themes were sent to two participants from two focus groups for feedback to ascertain whether the themes were representative of their respective focus group interviews. In all instances, there was consensus regarding the interpretation of the data.

6. Results and discussion

In qualitative research, the description and interpretation of the data are closely linked; therefore, these two subsections have been integrated. In this way, the repetition of explanations is avoided (Gustafsson, Hassmén, Kenttä & Johansson, 2008). An analysis of the transcripts revealed several consistencies in responses across the three focus groups. These responses were subsequently grouped and the following key themes emerged: confidence in communicating, group work, knowledge, concentration and behaviour.

6.1 Confidence in communicating

There was consistency across all three focus groups regarding the contribution that music and dance made in boosting the confidence of learners in communicating. The frequency of this finding and the manner in which the participants' responses were articulated illustrated the value of integrating music and dance in formal classroom lessons. This confidence was reflected in the manner in which the learners tried to express themselves during lessons.

Coyle (2011) found that music encourages those who may not normally communicate to communicate in different ways when they listen to music. Hanser (1999) found music to play a pivotal role in developing the self-esteem of children, thereby increasing their confidence to communicate. Tallapragada (2007) found that although children with intellectual disabilities have limited vocabulary, dance and music helped them to develop communication skills, which enabled them to interact better and more confidently.
The role that music and dance plays in boosting that confidence of learners’ communication is aptly encapsulated in the following excerpts:

“Even the ones that can’t talk, you will see their mouths trying to form the words as the others have.”

“You see it in their body language, you will see it, then you can just see how they got self-confidence, how they build up. It’s just fantastic; they are shedding their inhibitions; that they can imitate any singer or they can imitate any dancer.”

6.2 Group work

Dance and music serve well as a medium for group activity, as they create a unifying energy and a cohesive framework in which children with intellectual disabilities are able to express themselves (Sooful et al., 2010). Music has been found to improve socialisation skills, open the doors of communication and process feelings in children with learning difficulties, mental illness and mental retardation (Grimm & Pefley, 1990). In addition, it provides opportunities to form friendships, express creativity, develop a self-identity and foster meaning and purpose in life (Dykens, Rosner & Butterbaugh, 1998; Fromholz & Schaefer, 2009).

Coyle (2011) found music to have an effect on the actions of individuals. Individuals tend to express different actions such as clapping and dancing during the music session. Those who suffer from intellectual disabilities normally prefer to be on their own but they are encouraged through music and dance to interact with others. This helps build friendships and facilitates group work. Tallapragada (2007) posits that dance and music contributes greatly to children engaging in groups. The author found that the introduction of dance into lessons stimulated and motivated learners, and rhythmic dance provided the children with the opportunity to work and interact with each other.

A few of the excerpts that illustrate the positive development of group work are as follows:

“They always in a circle and they always together in a group”

“They really start bonding together”

“They got experiences together that they share”.

6.3 Knowledge

Through listening to music and dancing learners are compelled to follow and remember actions and movements via the transmission of information to the brain (Tallapragada, 2007). Dance and music helps to imitate movement with the application of the mind, thereby contributing to cognitive development. In this way, expression skills are also developed. In Australia, music was integrated into the curricula to introduce Aboriginal knowledge and perspectives in school and to convey indigenous interpretation of Australian life (Neuenfeldt, 1998). The lyrics of songs encode different meanings and worldviews, and are able to convey different stories (Huy Lê, 1999). This may be particularly beneficial in the production of new knowledge in learners with intellectual disabilities.

Excerpts from the focus group interviews that illustrate the positive effects music has in improving the knowledge base of children with intellectual disabilities include the following:

“Because their vocabulary improves quite a lot using the songs”

“Vocabulary is…because you explain the word, the difficult word to them and they know, this is the word and it’s the meaning while they are singing it and they are acting it with… If it’s possible they are acting the song so their vocabulary improves a lot”

6.4 Concentration

Cavanagh (2001) found that children with intellectual disabilities were easily distracted, had lower task orientation and tended to be hostile. This resulted in difficulties in organisation, controlling their behaviour and focusing on their task performance (Barabasz & Barabasz, 2000). Music and dance produce a safe environment, which helps in redirecting learners’ attention so that they are able to concentrate on a particular task. Brunk (2004) found music to be effective in improving the attention span of the child, thereby improving his/her concentration so that the child has a greater sense of control in the environment. This enables the child to develop a routine. Crump (2010) reports that music assists in
reducing hyperactivity. The author posits that learners with intellectual disabilities learn to relax through the introduction of dance and music, which, in turn, increases their attention and focus. The responses of the participants regarding the contribution of music and dance to increased concentration are illustrated in the excerpts that follow.

“So you can see that they start to concentrate and because they want to do the work”
“Relaxation - they are more relaxed and they are working so nice together with the music”

6.5 Behaviour

Behaviour disorders have often been linked to mental health problems that lead to social difficulties. They are grouped into two broad categories, namely externalising and internalising. Externalising behaviours, which include aggression, interfering and attention seeking (Crump, 2010), disrupt classroom routine, directly challenge authority and affect teachers’ ability to instruct.

According to the National Coalition of Creative Arts Therapies Association (2010), dance/movement and music are forms of expressive and creative interventions that have been found to be effective in improving behaviour as well as self-expression. The implication here is that through the improvement of self-expression improved learning takes place. Similarly, Jackson, Muro and Parker (2008), and Rickson (2006) found movement to be instrumental in improving behaviour. Music, if purposefully used, has been found to be effective in modulating mood change, modifying and managing behaviour (Jackson, 2003; Adamek & Darrow, 2005; Rickson, 2006). Music may be used as a positive reinforcement to encourage socially acceptable behaviour (Crump, 2010). It has also been found to increase group cohesion (Horton, 2005). Tallapragada (2007) used a sound-based and sensory-centred Tiger Dance Therapy on children with intellectual disabilities and found it to be helpful in converting aberrant behaviour into excellent behaviour patterns. Riddoch (2006), in similar vein, found that the introduction of music in painting lessons over a six-week period not only improved the quality of work significantly but also improved behaviour and attitude significantly.

The following excerpts provide evidence of the contribution of music and dance to improved behaviour of learners with intellectual disabilities in the classroom:

“I’ve got a boy in my class, and he is terrible very, very ….behaviour is terrible. But when he goes into the hall, he sits down and he sings with his mouth open, and when we get out of there, he just for a while gets better”

“And also I have a boy in my class. He’s a big guy and oh! And his behaviour is something very, very bad but when I put on the music, he starts working”

“Same with me, with my Benny, switch on the music, he settles down otherwise he’s jumping up and down, screaming; it’s another stimulant for our learners”

7. Limitations of the study and implications for further study

It is important to consider that the results of this study were derived from three focus groups representing two schools whose geographical locations were close to each other. Therefore, the results cannot be generalised to the population of children with intellectual disabilities. Notwithstanding these limitations, the study does provide implications for further research. The study could be conducted using a quantitative research approach over a broader geographical scope. Other interventions to improve classroom learning could also be investigated and the outcomes of the different interventions compared.

8. Conclusion

The results of this study reveal that music and dance are indeed useful interventions, which contribute to improved learning amongst learners with intellectual disabilities. The many positive perceptions of educators regarding music and dance as interventions indicate that music and dance not only contribute to learning but also, more importantly, to the socialisation of learners with intellectual disabilities. The results of this study confirm that learners with intellectual disabilities have the ability to perform well academically as well as to interact with others, provided that they have appropriate stimulating interventions.
References


Washington, D.C.


The Family “Diverse” but not Natural: The Case of Albania

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Abstract

The question and mostly the debate on marriage between persons of the same sex touches two fundamental principles: the equal sign of the rights and the rejection of any form of discrimination, in particular, as it pertains to personal identity. The approach to the intolerant phenomenon is of ancient date in the Albanian juridical and social environment. Furthermore, it is an approach that has nothing to do and therefore should not be identified with the political history that has living Albanian society. First, this was intolerance as mentality, as an act, then become legal precept. First, this was intolerance as mentality, as an act, then become a normative rule. Initially, it was homophobia and after the rule of law. In other words, it was a mix of ultra-conservative traditions with orient-atheist foundations and the ius naturalist vision of the rights, which classifies what is natural and non-natural base on legal topics. So there are two questions to be resolved: 1-from a legal standpoint, is it justifiable the rejection of gay marriage?; 2- do homosexual couples, enjoy the right to have a recognized civil family?

Keywords: equality, iuris person, gay marriage, affectio coniugalis

1. I diffetti dell’ impostazione iusnaturalista e tradizionalista

L’argomento per eccellenza che i rappresentanti della corporazione antiomosessuale articolano ogni volta che sentono parlare di un tale argomento è che si tratta di un rapporto che distrugge l’ordine biologico e minaccia la legalità naturale delle cose. Come tale, non merita attenzione giuridica, perché non raggiunge il rango di un fenomeno giuridico rilevante.

L’impostazione intollerante nei confronti del fenomeno è vecchia nel ambiente socio-giuridico albanese e quindi, non si può spiegare prendendo in considerazione o trovare qualche relazione con la storia politica che potrebbe aver vissuto la società albanese. Innanzitutto, è stata un intolleranza come atto per poi codificarsi, il che vuol dire, lo era omofobia per poi diventare una norma positiva. Detta diversamente, è stata un miscuglio tra la tradizione ultraconservatrice con base oriento-atea e la visione iusnaturalistica dei diritti il quale determina aprioristicamente che cos’è naturale o meno, basata su argomenti pregiuridici.

Riferendosi brevemente al codice penale della monarchia e del regime comunista, è molto facile identificare le analogie nella visione del fenomeno ma anche la similitudine quasi assoluta della natura repressiva delle disposizioni giudicarie che riguardano il fenomeno.

Nel capitolo “Oscenità antigay” del codice penale della Monarchia, articolo 377, si stabiliva: “Colui che compie il gesto di oscenità antigay...omissis... viene punito con la reclusione da 3 mesi fino a 2 anni,oppure con l’ internazione da 1 a 5 anni e in entrambi i casi si aggiunge una pesante multa e l’interdizione temporaneo dagli uffici pubblici. Con le stesse penalità viene condannato anche colui che subisce le oscenità in questo modo...omissis...”

Il codice penale del 1952 del periodo comunista, nel capitolo “Crimini contro la morale sociale” nel articolo 289 (tranne un incertezza concettuale, perché metteva sullo stesso piano omosessualità e pedofilia) disciplinava: “Pedofilia, cioè i rapporti sessuali tra maschi, viene condannata: con privazione della libertà fino a 10 anni. Lo stesso atto, compiuto con violenza o contro un minore che non ha raggiunto i 14 anni d’età, viene condannato con privazione della libertà dai 5 ai 15 anni”. Pochi anni dopo,si passa in una regressione qualitativa che portò il codice penale del 1977, il quale nel articolo 137 non specificava né differenziava ma semplicemente sanzionava: “Pederastia viene condannata: con privazione della libertà fino ai 10 anni”. Il fatto che i rapporti con i minorenni non venivano né menzionati né classificati dimostra che per il legislatore del tempo era importante soltanto la conservazione della salute della famiglia tradizionale, come un istituzione primariamente ideologica (famiglia socialista) e poi giuridica.

Ritornando al argomento “naturale o antigay”, è necessario mettere alcuni paletti sulla questione dell’omosessualità in rapporto ai diritti di personalità. Costituisce un asserzione, accettata quasi ovunque nella letteratura giuridica moderna che “l’essere umano è persona anche nel universo giuridico”. Questo vuol dire che, persona iuris, non è altro che un complesso di diritti di personalità i quali, visto che sono oltre tutto, anche a-essenziali, b- assoluti, c-strettamente personali, d-imprescrittibili, e- non negoziabili, definiscono tutto il piano degli obblighi che l’essere umano, in maniera legittima, ha il diritto di pretendere nei rapporti con il terzo ed il corpo sociale. Diritto di personalità è...
anche il diritto di costruire una struttura di relazioni affettive e sociali incondizionate e in conformità totale con la "natura" o l'essere personale.

Il diritto al nome per esempio, il quale difende il diritto dell' individuo di avere e di usare un elemento distintivo, il quale gli garantisce, appunto, la distinzione e l' identificazione nei rapporti con terzi, viene difesa dall' articolo 5 del codice penale secondo il quale, "ogni persona ha il diritto e il dovere di avere il proprio nome e cognome...omissis...". Derivato di questo diritto è il diritto dell' identità personale il quale, come un prodotto giuridico, difende il diritto del individuo di essere quello che è, cioè, di conservare in maniera integrale il suo essere, nel senso della sua orientazione etica, morale, ideologica, sessuale ecc., non condizionata da fattori esterni: il altri termini, non può trovare nessuna giustificazione giuridica, etica, morale, l'approccio omofobo ed il rifiuto di qualunque profilo, anche quello più privato, di un individuo, basta che egli non comporti un pericolo per il copro sociale e la sicurezza dell' altro.

Arrampicarsi sugli specchi della tradizione e sui "valori morali della nostra società" come ad esempio, l'unità familiare, il rispetto della donna per l' uomo (non tanto vero il contrario), la continuazione della razza o discendenza, in un contesto intollerante e conservatore come il nostro, non produce altro che un positivismo giuridico rigido e angusto, il quale proprio tramite questi paradigmi, limita o esclude a priori quelle prerogative dell'essere umano che, al contrario, meritano garanzia e protezione. E' pienamente ragionevole affermare che, se il diritto è un sistema culturale fondato sulle basi dell'esperienza e convivenza di una certa comunità, è ugualmente ragionevole articolare fortemente che l'interesse giuridico verso l'istituzione della famiglia non deriva dal fatto che essa sia un unità biologica, ma perché è un unità sociale. Questo fa intendere che la sua struttura non è e la storia è un testimone credibile in questo caso) un perpetuum ma cambia e si adegua al costume sociale in diverse epoche storiche. Proprio questa impostazione atipica ci aiuta a capire la necessità della distinzione tra il concetto "famiglia" e il concetto "tradizione" oppure "naturale". Se affermarmo il contrario ci servirebbe rivedere, per così dire, il diritto dell'aborto, il quale non potrebbe essere concepito dalla nostra tradizione socio-familiare fino a un paio di decenni fà; l'ostesso vale anche per l'istituto civile della convivenza tra un uomo e una donna che, giustamente, il legislatore ha accettato come istituzione solo pochi anni fà. E' normale che gli oppositori del matrimonio omosessuale abbiano una posizione tradizionalista, la quale ratio viene giustificata, secondo loro, con l' esistenza di norme consuetudinarie, le quali, sempre secondo loro, costituiscono neccesariamente una fonte di diritto. Ma, anche se così fosse, nessuno si può "salvare" dal obbligo di trovare a quella fonte, la posizione giuridica nella gerarchia delle fonti. Comunque l'aspetto più importante da sottolineare è che, nessuno deve dimenticare, che la consuetudine può essere legittimata come fonte solo se si sposa completamente con i principi base della costituzione.

2. La violazione del principio costituzionale dell'uguaglianza

Il dibattito sulla famiglia omosessuale sarebbe completamente senza senso se si tenesse al di fuori dal perimetro dei principi costituzionali.Bisogna ammettere che, in un'interpretazione evolutiva, la nostra costituzione non manifesta nessuna rigidità estrema normativa quando si parla di matrimonio e famiglia. Essa, semplicemente, deve essere contestualizzata. Nel articolo 53 si recita:"1-Chiunque ha il diritto di sposarsi ed avere una famiglia. 2-Il matrimonio e la famiglia godono del protezione speciale dello Stato...omissis..."

Letta in combinazione con l'art. 18, secondo il quale “1-Tutti sono uguali davanti alla legge. 2-Nessuno può essere discriminato ingiustamente per cause come sesso, razza, etnia...omissis...” essa produce una giustificazione, relativamente stabile, per riconciderare l'istituzione del matrimonio, oramai, fuori da quei paradigmi citati prima.

A sostegno di questa visione si esprime anche il diritto comunitario che ha incoraggiato l'approvazione degli strumenti giuridici per l' eliminazione della discriminazione che sono costretti a sopportare le coppie di diverso orientamento sessuale. E' emblematico in un questo contesto, il nuovo orientamento storico che ha portato la Carta Europea dei Diritti Fondamentali nel suo art. 9: “il diritto di sposarsi ed il diritto di creare una famiglia sono garantite..omissis...”(nonostante delegava la materia concreta alle legislazioni nazionali), senza imporre formule che prevedano esclusioni a causa del sesso o del orientamento sessuale. Senza nessuna esitazione l'approccio era storico visto che, oltrepassava le cornici della Convenzione Europea del 1950 la quale nel articolo 12 disciplinava che “gli uomini e le donne nell'eta giusta hanno il diritto di sposarsi”. E' stato lo stesso spirito antidiscriminante che si è manifestato dopo, nella lettera della risoluzione del Parlamento Europeo del 8 febbraio 1994 “Sull'uguaglianza dei diritti degli omosessuali nell'Unione Europea”, la quale chiaramente richiedeva " la cancellazione di tutte le barriere contro il matrimonio omosessuale... garantendo pienamente il diritto al matrimonio...". La stessa cosa si può dire anche della Raccomandazione del Consiglio d'Europa 1474/2000 "Sulla situazione degli omosessuali nei paesi membri del Consiglio d'Europa". Nella stessa linea è stata anche la risoluzione del Parlamento Europeo del 2006 sull'omofobia e i deficit legislativi nella difesa dei diritti degli omosessuali, risoluzione che, tra l’altro, fu proposta dal Partito Popolare Europeo
(membro del quale è il partito al potere in Albania) la quale nella sua essenza sottolineava che “se si impedisce il matrimonio tra le coppie omosessuali, questo comporta una forma di discriminazione”. La stessa risoluzione definiva l’omofobia come “una paura irrazionale contro gli omosessuali”... “simile all’antisemitismo”. Anche la giurisprudenza del Tribunale Europeo dei Diritti dell’Uomo ha sostenuta questa tesi quando, nel caso Goodwin c. Regno Unito, precisa che “la garanza del diritto di sposarsi tra un uomo e una donna non va sottinteso nel senso che, il sesso si deve stabilire semplicemente sulla base dei criteri biologici”. La stessa identica impostazione vale anche nel caso Schalk & Kopf c. Austria, quando questo Tribunale stabilì chiaramente che “la possibilità di riprodurle non è condizione necessaria per incontrare un matrimonio civile”.

La questione del matrimonio tra persone dello stesso sesso, chiama in causa due principi fondamentali: l’uguaglianza nel trattamento dei diritti fondamentali ed il rifiuto contro ogni discriminazione che ha a che fare con l’identità personale.

La riflessione sulla esclusione arbitraria dei matrimoni omosessuali propone alcuni punti interrogativi seri sul valore reale del principio costituzionale di uguaglianza e della garanzia dei diritti fondamentali. Analizzando strettamente in termini iusnaturalisti, i matrimoni dello stesso sesso non meritano una copertura normativa. Ma, visto che presumiamo il superamento di un tale stadio dottrinale, allora è pienamente giustificabile integrare questo “istituto illegale” nei diritti fondamentali.

Su quale principio razionale dobbiamo accettare un modello famigliare, normativamente predefinito, tra un uomo e una donna ed escludere un nuovo modello (neanche tanto nuovo in verità) tra due femmine e due maschi? Non suona come una pura aberrazione logica, (ma anche giuridica), applicare il principio della parità tra uomo e donna da una parte e la disuguaglianza tra la famiglia “normale” uomo-donna e la famiglia “anormale” o meglio diversamente normale omosessuale? Perché “noi” abbiamo il diritto di autocategorizzarci come “normali” e “loro” categorizzarli come “anormali”? Quindi, c’è (esiste) qualche base teorica o dottrinale in questa assimetria dell’interpretazione giuridica?

I nostri costituenti, se non visionari (non hanno specificato l’appartenenza al genere che avrebbe condizionato il valore giuridico del matrimonio) sono stati, almeno, (forse casualmente) attenti quando si sono esposti nel articolo 53 comma 1 della costituzione che, “ Chiunque ha il diritto di sposarsi ed avere una famiglia...”. Ogni altra definizione avrebbe prodotto un disposizione liberticida.

Quindi, la Costituzione di oggi (che avrebbe prodotto una situazione estremamente complessa, una diversa Costituzione chiamad esempio, disciplinasse le appartenenze al genere dei coniugi) facilita il problema visto che la formulazione sopramenzionatta vuol dire che lo Stato non ha intenzione di imporre la sua “formula” o suoi concetti iedomoralisti nella creazione ed esistenza dell’istituzione del matrimonio e della famiglia. La nostra costituzione, contrariamente rispetto a molte omologie, non ha dentro di sè contraddizioni del tipo, “non è permessa la discriminazione per motivi di sesso” ed “il matrimonio ci può essere solo tra un uomo e una donna”. Sempre in questa linea, sarebbe incompiibile dal legislatore, e di conseguenza la norma, di determinare o prestabilire a qualquno il suo partner affettivo. Siccome in questo momento interpretativo non siamo condizionati dallo spirito, bensì dalla lettera della norma, allora siamo giustificati di presumere che, per gli autori dell’atto fondamentale dello Stato, l’unico elemento condizionante per l’esistenza giuridica dell’istituto del matrimonio è il cosiddetto affectio coniugalis della coppia e non la loro orientazione sessuale. Conclusione: allorché la Costituzione non predetermina nessun modello familiare, vuol dire che include tutti i modelli familiari o almeno, anche modelli che oltrepassano quello tra un uomo ed una donna.

Le difficoltà che, in apparenza, possono provocare gli oppositori di questo “nuovo” modello familiare (lo ripeto, neanche tanto nuovo, anzi coetaneo con il modello tradizionale), sono facilmente superabili. In che modo?

Prima di tutto, appellandoci sull’infondatezza della tesi arcaica che l’omosessualità è una deviazione, che è fuori dal “normale” nel senso biologico, scientifico, antropologico e così via. In una sua presa di posizione nel 17 maggio 1990, l’Organizzazione Mondiale della Sanità, ha chiarito ogni ecquivoco riguardante lo status biologico-anatomico degli omosessuali giudicando l’omosessualità come “una variazione naturale del comportamento sessuale dell’individuo”. Inoltre, sempre secondo l’OMS, almeno il 5% della popolazione ha un orientamento sessuale diverso. La percentuale si commenta da sola. Da questo, per analogia, potrebbe nascere la domanda: sarebbe giustificabile uno stato, abbastanza liberale, che viola i diritti fondamentali del 5% della sua popolazione?

Il secondo, distinguendo una volta per tutte il concetto “famiglia” dal progetto “riprodurre”.

Non cè e non potrebbe esistere nessuna disposizione che potrebbe condizionare l’esistenza della famiglia con la nascita dei figli. Perché, cosa faremmo con le coppie sterili? O con quelli che decidono di sposarsi a un’età in cui la fertilità è compromessa? Oppure con quelle donne in menopausa che decidono di iniziare una nuova vita in coppia? Per caso, gli dobbiamo negare il diritto fondamentale di sposarsi? Come ci comporteremmo con quei genitori che durante la loro vita nella famiglia tradizionale, con figli, scoprono un comportamento sessuale diverso da quello precedente?
Terzo, liberando dalla paura quelli che vedono una conseguenza inevitabile tra la famiglia omosessuale e l’adozione di bambini. Il matrimonio omosessuale e il figlio sono due realtà socio-giuridiche che non necessariamente sono correlate tra loro. Questo vuol dire che loro possono vivere in maniera autonoma, senza esserci un rapporto causa-effetto. Noi possiamo accettare il matrimonio omosessuale con tutti i suoi effetti civili però, non siamo obbligati di accettare l’adozione da parte di essa dei bambini.

Quarto, spogliando la famiglia tradizionale dal suo status di un istituto giuridico privilegiato. Assicurando, in termini normativi, uno status uguale ed alternativo tra la famiglia eterosessuale e quella omosessuale, non facciamo altro che rispettare il principio costituzionale dell’uguaglianza. In quest’ottica è paradigmatico quello che Nicholas Sarkozy avrebbe dichiarato nel 2007: “L’amore etero non è superiore a quello omo. L’unica vera distinzione tra amore e semplice passione sessuale sta nel fatto che l’amore necessita sempre il riconoscimento sociale... L’amore omosessuale deve essere riconosciuto, dobbiamo darle un quadro normativo che li permetterebbe di esprimersi...”

3. L’ antidiscriminazione che discrimina

Sarebbe completamente razionale che in appoggio a questa posizione, la quale favorisce chiaramente la libertà dell’individuo in piena conformità con il principio fondamentale dell’uguaglianza, rivolgersi alla giurisprudenza oppure i modelli sociogiuridici di molte società a cui cerchiamo di assomigliare. Anche se va sottolineato, nonostante tutti questi esempi, la corporazione dei tradizionalisti avrebbe pronto il controargomento “a noi ci serve tempo per diventare come loro”. Preferisco evitare una tale tipologia di confronto anche per il fatto che, la politica albanese che durante questi anni si è fatta carico dell’obiettivo di fare una legge per i diritti e le libertà della comunità omosessuale, ci sta “ripensando”, riducendo quello in una di semplice norma antidiscriminazione. Una legge non semplicemente ritardata ma terribilmente superata, la quale in realtà, attraverso “l’antidiscriminazione”, nasconde una discriminazione. La stessa impostazione del problema ci crea l’impressione che, per il legislatore, questo è un quadro normativo necessario, visto che abbiamo a che fare con una comunità sfortunata (non sono propenso a credere che si tratti di una questione importante da risolvere in quanto richiesto da i nostri partner europei). Però,fortunatamente,il tempo ha dato ragione ai sospetti di molti su questo. In un contesto globale così delicato nei confronti dei diritti e delle libertà in generale, fare una semplice legge antidiscriminazione nei confronti degli omosessuali è lo stesso, per dire, come parlare agli americani del 2013 che hanno rivolto un presidente di colore, di Rosa Parks che nel 1954 chiedeva di sedersi nel autobus dei bianchi per protesta contro la discriminazione.

Comunque, la libertà di scegliere il partner in generale e i matrimoni omosessuali in particolare, non possono restare ancora per molto tempo al di fuori dall’orizzonte normativo ed istituzionale. Questo, per la semplice ragione, che, in un paese libero e democratico non si possono permettere infinitamente terreni giuridici abbandonati sopra i quali vengono costruiti ghetti per le libertà e i diritti dell’individuo.

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Research on Factors Affecting Knowledge Transfer in Mentoring Process

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Abstract
Mentor programs are efficient, inexpensive and tailored ways of transferring knowledge from experts to less experienced employees. We put forward a conceptual model of affecting the knowledge transfer and creation in mentoring process and research numerically how the overlapping knowledge and the heterogeneous knowledge between mentor and mentee influence the performance of transfer activities, such as the quantity of the transferred knowledge and the increment of the created knowledge. We find that the moderate overlapping knowledge and heterogeneous knowledge between mentor and mentee are very important for the enhancement of the performance of transfer activities, that is to say the more transferred knowledge from mentor to mentee, the more effective knowledge creation becomes. The findings suggest a number of key factors that can affect knowledge transfer success, with suggestions for making a good pair of mentor-mentee and knowledge management. The authors would like to thank the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Fund of Ministry of Education of China under Grant No. 10YJA630082 for the financial supports.

Keywords: mentoring process; knowledge transfer; overlapping knowledge; heterogeneous knowledge; Disseminative capability; Absorbing capability

1. Introduction

Just as technological innovation up until the 1960s was treated as an unexplained variance in economic growth and performance, knowledge as an element within technological innovation has, until recently, been seen in a similar way. In order to keep the competitive advantages of companies, activities transferring and sharing knowledge, especially for tacit knowledge, have developed recently in multi-nationality companies. The interest in tacit knowledge has grown rapidly as it has become increasingly acknowledged that the contribution of knowledge innovation to performance of companies is not just simply associated with embodied knowledge, but is also highly dependent on disembodied, intangible assets and working practices[1]. Therefore, many companies have big interest in seeking to transfer some of the insights and best practices learned to their other divisions or other employee.

Research on knowledge transfer has developed out of studies focused on how companies could best accomplish technology transfers internally to keep or raise their competition ability and inter-company governance modes, including transfers in alliance settings [2]. Early work focused on the role of administrative structures on knowledge flows. It is found that companies with organizational structures that supported combining activities and sharing resources across subsidiary boundaries were more innovative[3]. Late work focused on the model of knowledge transfer and creation,
such as the SECI process[4], knowledge creation through the conversion of tacit and explicit knowledge. Based the technology transfer and innovation literature, successful knowledge sharing can promote companies to master and get into practice product designs, manufacturing processes, and organizational designs that are new to them[5], and knowledge transfer is seen as occurring through a dynamic learning process where individuals of company continually interact each other to innovate or creatively imitate [6]. From this perspective, knowledge transfer involves the re-creation of a source’s knowledge package in the recipient and mentoring process essentially is one of dynamic learning processes in which knowledge, embedded in many different structural elements of an organization, such as in the people and their skills, the technical tools, and the routines of company, could be transferred from junior colleague to senior.

The concept of mentoring is not new because it is closely related to craft apprenticeship schemes of the past[7]. Recently the topic about mentoring program and its importance not only to employees’ career and professional development but also to transferring and sharing knowledge of companies have received substantial attention in the literature. Research has consistently demonstrated that those who are mentored reap significant benefits, such as career advancement, career satisfaction[8-11] and the knowledge embedded in individuals and organizational routines and best practices of company can also be imparted and inherited successfully. Mentoring provides a variety of developmental functions[12]

Mentoring programs are important mechanisms for transferring and creating knowledge by face-to-face knowledge exchanges. In mentoring programs of companies, mentors pass on their knowledge such as experiences, skills, techniques, crafts and know-how to mentees by saying and doing for them to absorb and grasp the knowledge through imitating and practicing and at the same time, create new knowledge[13-14]. Therefore the organizational distance and physical distance[15] between mentor and mentee is small. However, it is find that knowledge transfer to be challenging and knowledge sharing at companies proved to be like more difficult than expected[16-17]. Research on factors affecting knowledge transfer in mentoring process is advantageous to support knowledge exchange and to improve the performance of mentoring program.

2. Factors Affecting Knowledge Transfer in Mentoring Process

In mentoring program, though mentor can sometime learn from the mentee, mentor is still the main knowledge sender and mentee is the main recipient. Based on the researches mentioned above and literatures[18-21], we are inclined to consider the factors affecting knowledge transfer in mentoring process as three contextual domains: objects of knowledge transfer, such as overlapping knowledge and heterogeneous knowledge, subjects in knowledge transfer, such as capabilities of mentor and mentee, and learning culture of organization. Fig.1 presents a model of knowledge transfer that includes six key factors affecting knowledge transfer.

![Figure 1. The model of affecting knowledge transfer in mentoring program](image)

Under the atmosphere of mentoring environment, mentee generally will actively take part in mentoring program, while mentors’ level of participating in is related to the their willingness of sharing knowledge with mentee and the difficult degree of transferring knowledge and the capabilities of transfer activities between mentor and mentee.
2.1 Disseminative capability of mentor

Whether mentor is willing to share knowledge with mentee, the amount of knowledge provided, and the way used by mentor to impart his or her knowledge will directly influence the performance of knowledge transferring in mentoring process. There is significant evidence that effective re-creation requires that the knowledge package is made accessible to or de-contextualized for the recipient so that the recipient can convert it, adapt it or reconfigure it to its localized needs [22]. In order to let the mentee understand the knowledge imparted the mentor should express the intended teaching objective clearly by utilizing tools such as body language and demonstration because knowledge, especially tacit knowledge, is hard to transfer from person to person. Mentor's willingness and capability to transfer knowledge is considered as disseminative capability[23], shown as $\alpha$ in our research. Disseminative capability is the one of the most influential factors effecting knowledge creation. We define $\alpha$ as the ratio of successfully disseminated knowledge quantity to total knowledge quantity the mentor have. The absorbing power describes the will of mentee

2.2 Absorptive capability of mentee

Absorptive capability describes the will and initiative of mentee to learn from mentor in mentoring process, the capability of mentee to comprehend the knowledge of the mentor's induction and combine with the previous knowledge he or she has had. We define absorptive capability as the ratio of the quantity of the knowledge absorbed successfully to the quantity of the knowledge disseminated by mentor, shown as parameter $\beta$.

2.3 Insight capability of knowledge-creating

Insight is an essential form of creative thinking. In mentoring process, both mentor and mentee may have a sudden inspiration while disseminating or absorbing knowledge and as a result new knowledge is created. This kind of knowledge creating is called insight knowledge-creating. From researches mentioned above, we think knowledge transfer in mentoring process also involves a dynamic learning and re-creation of mentor's knowledge package in mentee. Compared with mentor, mentee benefit more and get more inspiration by insight learning and learning by performing in transfer activities and hence mentee is more susceptible to enlightening. Therefore mentee’s insight capability, shown in parameter $\gamma$, is more important for the knowledge increment to be produced in mentoring process. We define $\gamma$ as the ratio of the quantity of the knowledge produced by enlightenment mentee received to the quantity of mentee’s knowledge. Parameter $\gamma$ represents for the insight capability of mentee.

2.4 overlapping knowledge and heterogeneous knowledge

Although Mentor and mentee usually have certain common knowledge because of similar major or job area, they have more difference in knowledge stock due to difference in backgrounds and working experiences. Whether mentee could understand and absorb the knowledge disseminated from mentor well is associated with the quantity of common knowledge they have. It has being proven in literatures that the heterogeneous knowledge in team work is good for arousing team creativity, but easy to cause opinion conflicts and communication problems. We use the parameter $\epsilon$ to express the proportion of overlapping knowledge in the whole knowledge package of mentor and mentee and the parameter $k$ to express the ratio of heterogeneous knowledge between mentor and mentee.

2.5 Learning culture

Learning culture of a company is an important organizational environment factor which influences knowledge transfer and creation in mentoring process. Learning culture, such as advocating communication, encouraging innovation, tolerating mistakes and valuing talent, is helpful for making mentor and mentee exchange and share knowledge information and thus provides a good atmosphere for knowledge transfer and innovation. Learning culture makes norm distance shorten between mentor and mentee. We think the communication frequency between mentor and mentee can be used to measure the learning environment of the organization. In our research the communication frequency is represented as $\mu$. The higher communication frequency, the higher the level of transfer activity is. In fact, every time the knowledge exchange happened between mentor and mentee, some knowledge is transferred effectively from mentor to mentee. The higher the communication frequency is, the more quantity of knowledge is transferred and created.
Parameter $\mu$ has great influence on the performance of transfer activities in mentoring program. In conclusion, the influential factors of knowledge transfer and creation in mentoring process and the parameters defined are listed in table 1.

### Table 1. Factors affecting knowledge transfer in mentoring process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence factors</th>
<th>Subjects in Knowledge transfer</th>
<th>Objects in Knowledge transfer</th>
<th>Learning culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentor’s disseminative capability ($\alpha$)</td>
<td>Proportion of overlapping knowledge ($\varepsilon$)</td>
<td>Communication frequency ($\mu$)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentee’s absorptive capability ($\beta$)</td>
<td>Ratio of heterogeneous knowledge ($k$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentee’s insight capability ($\gamma$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 3. Models and Simulation

Based on the factors summarized above, we research numerically the influence on the performance of knowledge exchange by measuring the quantity of the transferred and created knowledge.

##### 3.1 Variable definition

We define the knowledge quantity $V_0$ before the knowledge exchange as the union set of mentor’s and mentee’s knowledge, that is, $V_0 = \text{quantity of mentor’s knowledge} + \text{quantity of mentee’s knowledge} - \text{quantity of overlapping knowledge}$.

We also define the ratio of mentor’s tacit knowledge to his or her total knowledge as $\theta$. As tacit knowledge is far more than explicit knowledge for a person, we suppose $\theta \in (0.9, 1)$.

The mentor’s heterogeneous knowledge ratio is represented as $\omega_1$ and mentee’s as $\omega_2$, so $\omega_1 + \omega_2 + \varepsilon = 1$.

The heterogeneous knowledge ratio between mentor and mentee is represented as $k$ and $k = \omega_1: \omega_2$.

The relation of $\omega_1$, $\omega_2$ and $\varepsilon$ is shown in figure 2.

**Figure 2.** The knowledge ratio of mentor and mentee

In the process of mentoring program, as mentee absorbs and acquires the knowledge from mentor continuously, mentee’s knowledge stock level increases gradually and the overlapping knowledge ratio $\varepsilon$ increases. This means that $k$ diminishes gradually, as shown in Figure 3. Therefore, $k$ is always no less than one during the period of mentoring programs.

**Figure 3.** The changing of knowledge ratio in a period of mentoring

Mathematical models of transferred and created knowledge quantity

We are intent on the research of the performance of one knowledge transfer by measuring the quantity of the transferred and created knowledge because the total performance is the sum.

According to the factors and variable definitions mentioned above, the quantity of the knowledge disseminated by mentor can be expressed as $\omega_1 \theta \omega_1 \alpha$ and the quantity acquired by mentee as $\omega_2 \theta_2 \omega_2 \beta$, which is the knowledge transferred in the process of mentoring program. We let $V_T = \omega_1 \theta_1 \omega_1 \alpha$. Then, mentee’s total knowledge is equivalent to $V_0 (\varepsilon + \omega_2) + V_0 \theta_2 \omega_2 \beta$. Because mentee’s insight capability is based on his or her total knowledge, the quantity of the
enlightened knowledge is \[ V_0(\varepsilon+\omega) + V_0\theta\omega\alpha\beta] \gamma. \] As insight capability is the main source of knowledge creation between mentor and mentee, the quantity of increased knowledge can be expressed as \[ \Delta V=(V_0(\varepsilon+\omega)+V_0\theta\omega\alpha\beta] \gamma. \]

As mentioned above, the mathematical models of transferred and created knowledge can be represented in formula (1) and (2):

\[
\begin{align*}
V_T &= V_0\theta\omega\alpha\beta \quad (1) \\
\Delta V &= (V_0(\varepsilon+\omega)+V_0\theta\omega\alpha\beta] \gamma \quad (2)
\end{align*}
\]

### 3.2 Basic conditions and hypotheses

In the models above, if mentor and mentee are certain, the influence caused by \( V_0, \theta \) and \( \gamma \) would be certain. Thus we give them a fixed value:

1) \( V_0=1, \theta=0.95. \)
2) In another research[24], it is indicated that the knowledge creation rate of a node in a knowledge creation network obeys uniform distribution \( U[0,0.1] \). so we let \( \gamma=0.1. \)
3) In the literature [25], it is pointed out that the knowledge disseminative capability and absorptive capability both obey the random distribution \( \text{Rand}[0,1] \). Therefore we let the \( a\beta \) obey the distribution \( \text{Rand}[0,1] \) and increase with \( \varepsilon \) because mentor’s disseminative capability and mentee’s absorptive capability both have positive correlation with overlapping knowledge ratio, that is \( \alpha\varepsilon, \beta\alpha\varepsilon. \)

### 4. The Results

The results achieved from simulating numerically, the effect of heterogeneous knowledge ratio \( k \) and overlapping knowledge ratio \( \varepsilon \) on the performance of knowledge transfer and creation, are shown in Fig.4 and Fig.5.

#### 4.1 the impact of \( \varepsilon \) upon the quantities of transferred and created knowledge

From Fig 4 we can see that as \( \varepsilon \) increases, \( V_T \), the quantity of the transferred knowledge, increases initially and decreases gradually, and the maximum occurs while \( \varepsilon \) is between 0.4 and 0.6. This result verifies Yang’s opinion[26], that is, the overlapping knowledge is the base for knowledge transfer. Enhancing knowledge exchange frequency, which is associated with the relationship between mentor and mentee, is propitious to the increase of overlapping knowledge. Increasing of overlapping knowledge between mentor and mentee is helpful for mentee to comprehend the knowledge transferred from mentor deeply and thus the efficiency of the knowledge transfer and creation will be improved. However, as the overlapping knowledge increases, the heterogeneous knowledge between mentor and mentee decreases. This situation would cause strong dependency between knowledge sender and receiver and also decrease knowledge transfer performance and organization’s learning capability[27]. The results of our numerical research indicate that moderate amount of overlapping knowledge is most helpful for knowledge transfer besides the capabilities of mentor and mentee in transfer activities and the characteristics of knowledge. From Fig 5 we can see when \( k \) is a constant, the quantity of knowledge created increases with \( \varepsilon \) and the more the \( \varepsilon \) is, the more the knowledge increment created by mentee’s enlightenment is. It is indicated that there is a positive correlation between the knowledge increment \( \Delta V \) and the overlapping knowledge \( \varepsilon \). We can also see while \( \varepsilon<0.4, \Delta V \) increases very quickly and while \( \varepsilon>0.6, \Delta V \) increases very slowly in Fig 5. There is almost the same space between increase and decrease as \( V_T \) coincidentally. The results hinted that the quantity of knowledge transferred from mentor to mentee has positive correlation with the knowledge increment created and also is important for enlightened knowledge.
Figure 4. The effects on knowledge transfer

![Figure 4](image)

Figure 5. The effects on knowledge creation

4.2 the impact of k upon the quantities of transferred and created knowledge

From Fig 4 we can see along with the increase of \( k \) the quantity \( V_t \) of the knowledge transferred from mentor to mentee increases initially and decreases gradually. It is considered in our research that too large \( k \) would bring an obstacle to communication and too small \( k \) would affect the relationship between mentor and mentee while in the process of mentoring. This indicates that besides the moderate overlapping knowledge, the sufficient ratio of the heterogeneous knowledge quantity between mentor and mentee is also needed in order to promote knowledge transferring effectively. From Fig 5 we can see while \( \varepsilon \) is fixed, the created knowledge quantity \( \Delta V \) decreases while \( k \) increases and the larger \( k \) becomes, the less the knowledge increment be enlightened. When \( k \geq 10 \), it has little impact on \( \Delta V \). And when \( k \) increases to a certain level, the mentee’s knowledge is very little compared with the mentor’s so that the change of \( k \) could barely make an impact on \( \Delta V \). This is for the reason that the knowledge mentee have is too little for him or her to understand deeply the knowledge transferred by mentor and thus to create knowledge. These results hint us that if there are too big difference of knowledge stock level between mentor and mentee, the performance of transfer activities is not good.

5. Conclusions and Suggestions

Based on our researching numerically, the following conclusions can be reached:

1) The moderate \( k \) and \( \varepsilon \) is very important for knowledge transferring in mentoring process because \( k \) and \( \varepsilon \) can reflect the knowledge distant[15] between mentor and mentee. The knowledge distance is too big or too small all not good for transfer success.

2) In the mentoring process the quantity of the knowledge increment created is positive correlation with the quantity of the transferred knowledge from mentor to mentee.

3) Mentee’s amount of knowledge stock is very important for own insight capability and its increase is positive correlation with the quantities of knowledge transferred and enlightened knowledge increment.

These findings will help company to put mentoring programs in practice effectively. A successful mentoring relationship relies on a reciprocal exchange between the mentor and mentee, in that the developmental experience involves responsibility and effort of both parties[24]. Based on our research, there are some suggestions for companies in areas of making mentor and mentee pair, knowledge management, such as knowledge sharing, transferring and creating, mentoring relationship supporting in mentoring programs:

1) The mentee should have a certain quantity of basic knowledge so that he or she has enough knowledge to understand, absorb and thus create knowledge and should throw himself or herself into mentoring program, such as being active in asking, hearing, learning by doing and etc.

2) Besides being willing in the mentor process mentors should be good at expressing their tacit knowledge in some ways because the tacit knowledge is hard to transfer and is the basis of new knowledge creation for organization.

3) It is necessary that between mentor and mentee there should be a moderate difference of knowledge stock level, which can be oriented from their working experience, positions, etc, and the moderate overlapping
knowledge, which can be resulted from the similarly of background and their work, positions, other things in common and so on.

4) Learning culture is important to the success of mentoring programs for company because the subjects of mentoring process are the most important factors of the influence on performance of transfer activities. So it is necessary for company to build a good atmosphere of organization for knowledge exchange and innovation, such as communication for exchange and share knowledge information without any misgiving and tolerating mistakes between mentor and mentee and encouraging innovation. And further the performance of participation in mentoring programs could be related with employees' performance management to inspire employees to take part in the program and prompt mentors' willingness to share knowledge with mentees.

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An English Reconquista: The Impact of the Enhanced Language Proficiency Requirements on Canada’s Multicultural Immigration Model

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Abstract

The multicultural model of immigration advocates for a blended society, where individuals are respected and cultural, religious and linguistic diversity is celebrated. However; in Canada which has long been an advocate for the multicultural immigration model, a feeling of resentment has recently surfaced toward some immigrant groups who are perceived as a threat to Canadian culture and values. This preliminary study explores the potential outcomes of the newly enhanced English language proficiency requirements on Canada’s multicultural immigration model. Historically, the majority of immigrants in Canada have entered through the Federal Skilled Worker Program which uses a point system to determine entrance eligibility. In 2012, however, the language proficiency requirement for this program was made significantly more rigorous, necessitating all applicants to demonstrate a a enhanced level of proficiency in either English or French. Applicants under the newly enhanced Federal Skilled Worker program must now meet a minimum score in language as well as score the minimum number of required points in education, work experience and adaptability as set forth by the Minister. This essay explores the potential outcomes of the new more stringent language requirement and its potential influence on Canada’s multicultural immigration model.

Keywords: immigration, language proficiency, Canada, multiculturalism

1. Introduction

While some European countries have proclaimed multiculturalism a failure, Canada has remained committed to multiculturalism as their preferred immigration model (Rodriguez-Garcia, 2010). The multicultural model of immigration advocates for a blended society, where individuals are respected and cultural, religious and linguistic diversity is celebrated (Rodriguez-Garcia, 2010). According to Strait (2012, p. 12), “Multiculturalists believe that immigrants should not be forced to fully assimilate or integrate with the host population but rather host countries should encourage and foster a pluralistic society”. An authentic multicultural model embraces diversity at an institutional level by sanctioning religious freedom and the support of the first languages of immigrants (Rodriguez-Garcia, 2010). Canadians consider themselves tolerant of different cultures. Recently, however, there has been increasing resentment towards some immigrant groups based on the perceived threat they present to Canadian culture and values. (Li, 2001).

According to Kymlicka (2012), “Canada was the first Western country to officially adopt a multiculturalism policy toward immigrant ethnic groups, and it remains the only country in which multiculturalism is enshrined in the constitution” (p. 10). In addition, the Canadian government sponsors a variety of programs such as Black History Month, Asian Heritage month, diversity resources for teachers, and the annual Paul Yuzyk Award for Multiculturalism. These programs are designed to celebrate the different immigrant groups within Canada. Support for diversity is prevalent in government initiatives at both the local and national level. According to the Annual Report on the Operation of Canadian Multiculturalism Act 2010- 2011, “the Canadian approach to diversity has encouraged the evolution of a dynamic, successful and highly diverse society” (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2012b). The Canadian government contends that Canadians who are able to speak a variety of languages make it easier for Canada to compete globally (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2012d). Additionally, Canadians assert that their commitment to multiculturalism is one of the reasons that Canada is a preferred destination for immigrants (ibid).
Despite these policies, many immigrants have faced challenges finding their way in the Canadian economy thereby raising concerns among Canadian citizens (Friesen, 2012b). In response to these growing concerns, the Canadian government revised the application process effective July 1, 2012 for individuals wishing to enter Canada through the Federal Skilled Worker program (Friesen, 2012a). According to narrative on the Application for Permanent Residence, “Skilled workers are selected as permanent residents based on their education, work experience, knowledge of English and/or French, and other criteria that have been shown to help them become economically established in Canada” (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2012a). Arguing that language proficiency is essential for integration, the Canadian government now requires that immigrants must demonstrate fluency in English or French in order to be eligible for citizenship (Citizen and Immigration Canada, 2012b).

This essay explores the implications of this more stringent language requirement on the policy of multiculturalism promoted by the Canadian government. Specifically, this essay examines the motivations behind the new Canadian requirements, and what consequences those requirements may have on their multicultural model of immigration. Although immigrants applying to Canada have the option to demonstrate proficiency in English or French, this essay will focus solely on the English proficiency requirement and its potential impacts.

2. Literature Review

A commitment to diversity was not always present in Canada. Early immigration policy in Canada was explicitly restrictive. According to the Immigration Act of 1910, “The Governor in Council may prohibit for a stated period, or permanently, the landing in Canada or the landing at any specified port of Canada of immigrants belonging to any race deemed unsuited to the climate or requirements of Canada” (Green& Green, 2004, p. 106). Prior to World War I, the central goal of Canadian immigration policy was to attract individuals to work on farms and in homes from traditionally white sources such as Great Britain, Ireland, Australia and Western Europe. Strict restrictions on immigration continued when the law was revised in 1919 to include a literacy test, and reinforced the government’s control over the “level, timing, and ethnic composition of immigrants” (Green, et al., 2004, p. 108). In 1946, Canada recognized the need for additional immigrants, but maintained their commitment to a selective policy, with a 1947 address to the House from Mackenzie King included this statement warning against immigration of visible minorities, “Canada is perfectly within its rights in selecting persons whom it regards as desirable future citizens...Large scale immigration from the Orient would change the fundamental composition of the Canadian population” (Green, et al., 2004, p. 108).

In 1967, Canada’s new immigration policy specified a commitment to diversity and the variable of race was removed from immigration applications (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 1996). A points system was established for the Federal Skilled Worker Program which allowed the Canadian government to evaluate potential immigrants without discrimination based on race, religion or national origin (Friesen, 2012a). Under the points system, potential immigrants are evaluated based on criteria which include work experience, education, language proficiency, and adaptability. With the new system in place, Canada saw a significant shift in source countries of immigrants. In 1967, 29% of immigrants were British or Irish, 9% American, and the remaining top source countries were European. Overtime these source countries have changed, and throughout the past decade, Canada has seen a significant increase in immigrants from Asia. The top three source countries from 2001-2010 have been the Philippines, China, and India (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2010). This increase in diversity has presented some difficult economic and cultural challenges for the host populations of Canada, which has resulted in the new requirement of language proficiency testing for all Federal Skilled Worker applications.

3. Description of the new language requirement

A commitment to the official languages of Canada is reinforced through the points system established in the Immigration and Refugee Protection Regulations. According to these regulations, applicants for the Federal Skilled Worker program must meet a minimum score in each of the categories which include language, education, work experience and adaptability. The minimum number of points required in each area may be adjusted based on the number of applications, projections regarding the number of skilled workers who are likely to become permanent residents, and the number of skilled workers already established in Canada (Immigration and Refugee Protection Regulations, 2012).

The Immigration and Refugee Protection Act requires that skilled workers demonstrate proficiency in the official languages through designated organizations or assessments as established by the minister (Immigration and Refugee Protection Regulations, 2012). This requirement is not new. However, the previous assessment of language proficiency
was more subjective in nature, and individuals were often credited with greater language skills than they actually had. Under new the rules, which apply to all applicants submitting after November 1, 2012, applicants must provide "objective evidence" of language proficiency. This can be demonstrated through results obtained from an approved third party exam which measures proficiency based on the Canadian Language Benchmark Standards (CLB), evidence of secondary or post-secondary education completed in English or French, or evidence of achieving an appropriate level of proficiency through a government funded training program (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2012c). Language proficiency includes the ability to speak, listen, read, and write in the designated primary language (English or French), with additional points available for proficiency in the secondary language (English or French). Points are awarded based on the score received on the CLB evaluation. In a September 2012 press release, Citizenship, Immigration and Multiculturalism Minister, Jason Kenney, announced that all citizenship applications for individuals ages 18 – 54 must provide evidence of a minimum CLB level 4 in speaking, listening, reading and writing in order for their application to be considered by immigration services (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2012c). The CLB Level 4 is described as the ability to "communicate basic needs and personal experience, follow, with considerable effort, simple formal and informal conversations, read a simple set of instructions, and write short messages, postcards, notes or directions" (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2012e, p 6). A sample question requires the applicant to write the following essay: "Describe a favorite memory from a weekend" (CELPICP General, 2012). According to Kenney (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2012c, p3), "extensive research has consistently shown that the ability to communicate effectively in either French or English is a key factor in the success of new citizens in Canada".

4. Motivations behind enforcement of language testing

The Canadian Multiculturalism Act of 1988 articulates Canada’s commitment to multiculturalism and the requirements placed on the federal government to ensure an environment of inclusion for diverse populations. According to the Act, Canadians should "recognize and promote the understanding that Multiculturalism is a fundamental characteristic of the Canadian heritage and identity that provides an invaluable resource in the shaping of Canada's future" (Canadian Multiculturalism Act, 1988, 3b). The Multiculturalism Act also addresses the issue of language diversity stating that Federal Institutions should “make use, as appropriate, of the language skills and cultural understanding of individuals of all cultures; and generally carry on their activities in a manner that is sensitive and responsive to the multicultural reality of Canada” (Canadian Multiculturalism Act, 1988, 2f). The Act recognizes a commitment to the official languages of Canada calling on the population to “preserve and enhance the use of languages other than English and French while strengthening the status and use of the official languages of Canada” (Canadian Multiculturalism Act, 1988, 3i). By requiring evidence of English or French language proficiency, Canada is attempting to foster the economic success of new immigrants. According to Green, et al. (2004, p. 128), “Immigrants fluent in English or French are argued to enter the labor market more quickly and to be more successful in the long run”. Despite this perception, data has shown that even a highly educated immigrant typically earns only one half of the salary of their Canadian counterparts after one year in the country. It may take up to ten years for an immigrant to match the earnings of a similarly qualified native born Canadian (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2004). Upon arriving in Canada, immigrants are entitled to Canada’s social programs which include free health care and language training. These benefits are expensive, and the tax revenues generated from immigrants are not enough to cover the costs of these social programs (Tamburri, 1998). In 1996, 41% of immigrants spoke neither English nor French, which had a detrimental effect on their earning potential (ibid). The new language requirement has been a source of controversy among Canadians. Some fear that the new language requirement may have a disproportionate impact on visible minorities. Recent media reports indicate that the new language requirement is contributing to a feeling of discrimination and intolerance between the immigrants and the host population. As a recent article suggests, a country’s immigration policy by its nature is intended to discriminate against certain groups and the new Canadian requirements “point to a tighter border for certain immigrants” (Black, 2013). Despite the strain placed on the Canadian economy, the majority of Canadians continue to support immigration. Polls also have shown that almost half of Canadians agree that immigrants should have the ability to maintain their cultural and religious practices (Multiculturalism in Canada: one nation or many, 2006). Since the Multiculturalism Act went into effect in 1988, multiculturalism itself has become a basic Canadian value (ibid).

5. Analysis and Discussion

Given the information and trends described within the literature review, there appear to be three potential impacts on...
Canada as a result of the new language requirement. These potential impacts include: an increase in the economic benefit derived from immigrants, a shift in the ethnic backgrounds of new immigrants, and an increase in the power and influence of the host population. Each of these potential outcomes is discussed below.

5.1 Potential outcome one: Economic benefits derived from immigrants in Canada

One of the major drivers for the language requirement is a desire to ensure the economic success of immigrants in Canada while reducing their need for social programs such as language training. The government funded Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada (LINC) has increased in cost from $94 million in 2004 to $172 million in 2008-2009. These expenses include course instruction as well as transportation and child minding services for participants. From 2008-2009, 55,000 immigrants participated in the program (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2011). The assumption is that by requiring all immigrants demonstrate fluency in English or French prior to entry, immigrants will be able to contribute more quickly to the Canadian economy. Canadian officials are hopeful that these same individuals will also have higher earning potential than non-English speaking immigrants and require fewer costly social services. As this essay is a preliminary study of the implications of the language requirement, additional research is needed to verify if these assumptions are correct. If the desired economic benefits are realized, it may be tempting for Canadian policy makers to continue to make immigration policy decisions based on economic factors rather than its commitment to diversity which has been a central part of Canada’s multicultural model.

5.2 Potential outcome two: Change in ethnic background of new immigrants

By requiring that individuals speak English or French prior to entering Canada, the pool of potential immigrants will dramatically shift to immigrants from English speaking countries. This will likely have a stifling effect on immigrants who come from countries with a completely different language structure and alphabet system than English. Historically speaking, the Philippines, China, and India have been the top three source countries for immigrants to Canada. When the language proficiency requirement is implemented, the numbers of immigrants from Asia might decrease significantly as it becomes necessary for individuals to demonstrate basic fluency in English prior to entering Canada. In the past, when the points system was initially established and race and ethnicity were removed from immigration applications, it was approximately 30 years before Canada saws shift in source countries from traditionally white countries to the majority of immigrants coming from Asia. As the new language requirement takes effect, it is likely that the source countries will once again shift. As Canadian immigration policy becomes more favorable towards English speakers, Canada will pull more from countries where individuals have easy access to English instruction. These potential source countries are also more likely to be more closely aligned with Canada’s values and religious practices. In addition, English speaking applicants are more likely to be white, which will reduce the ethnic diversity of new immigrants to Canada. By targeting new immigrant groups who speak English, Canadian policymakers are sanctioning the growing preference for individuals who are similar to the host population of English speaking Canadians in terms of ethnicity, religion and values.

5.3 Potential outcome three: Increase in the influence and power of host population

In addition to restricting the diversity of new immigrants accepted by Canada, the new language requirement may also give way to an increase in the power and influence of the Canadian host population. This resurgence of traditional Canadian values could result in the isolation of “visible minority” groups currently living in Canada. Many of these minority groups have voiced their disagreement with the new language proficiency policy, noting that they have been successful in Canada even though they had very little knowledge of English or French. Validated by the new language requirement, the English speaking host population may also begin to dominate the political dialog. The changing social climate may cause minority groups to feel disconnected from Canadian society and values. As the language requirement takes effect and newcomers become more isolated further marginalization may occur. By enforcing the language requirement, the Canadian government could be seen as nurturing the view that Non-English speaking groups are not welcome in Canada. Even the mere perception of these feelings could have a detrimental impact on Canada’s long embraced commitment to multiculturalism.
6. Conclusions and Ideas for Future Research

This essay has outlined three potential impacts of the new language requirement in Canada. The potential impacts included an increase in economic benefit for Canada by virtue of obtaining English-ready immigrants, a change in the ethnic backgrounds of immigrants, and an increase in the power and influence of the host population. Each one of these potential impacts represents an opportunity and a need for further research. It is important to note again that this essay did not address what the new language requirement means for French speaking immigrants or the French speaking host population. Because the number of English speakers in the world is greater than those who speak French, the Canadian English requirement is likely to have a more significant impact on Canada and its immigration policies. Separate research should be done to investigate what impact the French language proficiency requirement may have on French speaking immigrants and the Canadian French host population. With so many French speaking nations located in Africa, Canada could see an increase in immigrants from African nations. As European countries also shift away from immigration policies which favor multiculturalism, they too have put into place new language proficiency requirements. While it is highly unlikely that Canada will ever completely abandon their policy of Multiculturalism, they are beginning to redefine what being multicultural means in a practical sense. The fact that the new language requirement will have a disparate impact on visible minorities cannot be ignored. It is also possible that the language requirement is simply the tip of the iceberg in terms of greater restrictions on immigration in the future as Canada and many other countries continue to deal with unemployment challenges. It is possible these new restrictions could escalate tensions between various ethnic groups and the host population. In a more dramatic although not unprecedented scenario, feelings of superiority among the host population could lead to rising nationalism among right wing groups. Accordingly, isolated minority groups could resort to violent measures. It is fortunate that Canada’s immigration policy has an inherent flexibility factor embedded in its current immigration system. This will make modifying acceptable exam scores a much simpler task then engaging in a complete overhaul of the policy. It is possible then that Canada can adjust requirements as needed in order to react to any unforeseen consequences of the new language requirement.

References


Sustainable Economic Development, a Necessity of the 21st Century

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Abstract

Sustainability is mostly perceived as the combination of environmental, social and economic performance; while still remain difficulties in defining sustainable economic development. Today, the human needs of many people are not met, and by the same time the ability of future generations to meet their needs is being compromised. It is because this that sustainable development has raised as a concept, affected by the need to offer people a kind of development which can meet the needs of the present without compromising the capacity of future generations to meet theirs. Economic growth may result in an improvement in the standard of living related to a small proportion of the population whilst the majority of the population remains poor. It is how the economic growth is distributed amongst the population that determines the level of development. The concept of sustainable development has become a widely recognized goal for human society of the 21st century. In this research it is analyzed the why and how has emerged the concept of sustainable development; how should it really be conceptualized and what should be done in order to achieve it.

Keywords: Economics, Sustainable Development, Social Issues, Human Welfare, Distribution

1. Introduction

There was a time when by the "new economics" was meant the Keynesian economics, which was notable as a response to the depression of the 1930s. The new economics that is struggling to grow today is something very different. It constitutes our response to a new set of problems which was only dimly perceived earlier, but has steadily grown in urgency over the last quarter of this century. It attempts to put forward new ideas about how to organize the foundations of a sustainable economy at this juncture in history when there are clear signs that the global economy cannot move much further along the accustomed paths of industrial growth without ending up in total disaster. For the true welfare economist the horizons of enquiry are shifting again in a new direction.... The study of wealth and welfare stands at a new crossroads. (Datta, A., 1997)

The concept of sustainable development has become a widely recognized goal for human society of the 21st century. The idea of sustainable development came into light in 1987 with the publication of Our Common Future, which firmly established sustainable development as a critical component of international development (Sneddon et al., 2006). As the anomalies were increasing inequalities within and among the nations, increasing poverty, especially in developing countries; depletion of the ozone layer; global warming; depletion of natural resources, some species of animals and plants, water and air pollution, etc., sustainable development came as an effort to change the way of thinking towards the planet. Behind this lies the reason why nowadays the concept of development is preferred instead of growth. Growth is believed to reflect only a quantitative aspect of countries without taking into account some other qualitative items such as education, health and equality. Daly (1990, p.1) argues that “growth is quantitative increase in physical scale while development is qualitative improvement or unfolding of potentialities”.

In this research it is analyzed the why and how has emerged the concept of sustainable development; how should it really be conceptualized and what should be done in order to achieve it. After the introduction part, chapter two deals with a comparison between growth and sustainable development concepts. In chapter three a discussion about income and wealth distribution among people and regions takes place. Chapter four is related to the evolution of the sustainable development concept. Chapter five explains the system of sustainable development while in chapter six take part the conclusions of the research.
2. Economic Growth Versus Sustainable Development

Beginning from the XXI century, the increase of GDP is not anymore considered a main macroeconomic indicator and economic growth is not the main goal of the economy. Since World War II (Figure 1), the focus on economic development policy has changed through different paradigms up to the concept of sustainable development. From the Keynesian thought in the period of post-war through mid 1970s, in which economic policy was built on strong governmental interventions, to the Monetarist thought in 1980s where initiatives to reduce social disparities by incorporating disadvantaged groups into the mainstream economy took place. In the late 1980s to 1990s the focus on economic development policy shifted to a rationalist thought and initiatives to improve environmental and overall quality of life by attracting highly skilled workers and firms began.

![Figure 1. Focuses of Economic Development Policy through Years](image)

The basic concepts of the UN specify sustainable development to be considered as the main goal of the economy from the modern point of view. Economic growth measured by the increase of GDP, shows the increase of economic activities and is in correlation with the welfare. A rapid economic growth hardly ever is sustainable. There are countries, mainly developing countries, where there exists high discrepancy between the level of economic activities and the welfare of people – high growth with low development. Development is a broader process than economic growth, as well as welfare cannot be measured only in monetary terms. Economic growth is an external notion, whereas development is a broader internal one by including the raise in standards of living and poverty reduction. Economic growth may result in an improvement in the standard of living related to a small proportion of the population whilst the majority of the population remains poor. It is how the economic growth is distributed amongst the population that determines the level of development. Economic growth is measured by the increase of GDP, whereas economic development is a more complex process which needs more than one indicator.

The analysis of economic process in many countries shows that the rapid economic growth has caused serious problems from the point of view of sustainable development such as social and regional inequality dramatic loss of infrastructure and rural environment, lack of national capital etc. Sustainable development is an instant increase of welfare for all inhabitants, not compromising the welfare in the nearest and further future. Economic growth is a necessary, but not sufficient condition for the development.

3. Income and Wealth Distribution

Income distribution is one of the main economical and social problems societies face today. The facts show that a small proportion of the population earn a high percentage of the income and it is not evenly spread as Fig. 1, part (a) shows world income distribution by percentile. The uneven income distribution is expended also between regions, as Fig. 1, part (b) shows, a large majority of people in the top 20% of the global income distribution live in the reach countries while most of those in the bottom 60% live in Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia.
The issue of distribution adopts an “impersonal approach”, by separating workers’ share through a market-determined wage. The residual goes as a matter of principle to the owners of the capital, as profit by including also interest. If the market-determined wages could be shown to be “just” on the contribution basis, the division would obviously be just. However, no such demonstration has so far been convincing and conclusive.

Economics is defined as the science of allocation of scarce resources to meet the unlimited needs and desires of the individual members of a given society. Ekins (1997, p.96) explains the need about new directions for economic policy if sustainable development is to be achieved.

“They will be taken in turn under the following heading:
(1) Differentiation between North and South
(2) Justice in the global economy, and participatory development”

4. The Evolution of Sustainable Development Concept

The concept of sustainable development appears to have emerged by one of its earliest efforts in the global arena with the Stockholm Conference held in 1972. Many publications followed the conference with the central focus on man’s over-exploitation of the environment and the links between environment and development. Intergovernmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, nations, international organizations, the private sector and civil society were the actors taking part in these efforts.

The first real attempt from the World Conservation Strategy (IUCN/WWF/UNEP, 1980) to define sustainable development is as follows:

“For development to be sustainable, it must take account of social and ecological factors, as well as economic ones; of the living and non-living resource base; and of the long-term as well as the short-term advantages and disadvantages of alternative action.”

Barbier (1987) differentiates two ways of debate at the time about economic development:
• focusing on basic needs with emphasis on helping the poor;
• stressing that real development was impossible without consideration of the environment and without taking into account local social and cultural values and enabling stakeholder participation.

But the most commonly cited definition of sustainable development is that produced in 1987 by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987, p.43) that stresses the economic aspects and defines sustainable development as:

“Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It contains within it two key concepts:
the concept of 'needs', in particular the essential needs of the world's poor, to which overriding priority should be given; and

the idea of limitations imposed by the state of technology and social organization on the environment's ability to meet present and future needs.

Thus the goals of economic and social development must be defined in terms of sustainability in all countries - developed or developing, market-orientated or centrally planned. Interpretations will vary, but must share certain general features and must flow from a consensus on the basic concept of sustainable development and on a broad strategic framework for achieving it.

This formulation seems imprecise and vague since it does not clarify what is meant with the term 'needs'. Dalal-Clyton and Bass (2000, p.8) explain the meanings of 'needs' according to them:

- "meeting the needs of the present" means: satisfying the economic needs; social, cultural and health needs; and political needs;
- meeting such needs "without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" means: minimizing use or waste of non-renewable resources; sustainable use of renewable resources; keeping within the absorptive capacity of local and global sinks for wastes.

Although the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) was focused on the socio-cultural and economic impacts of development, the main concern was the implication of global development on the environment. At the Earth Summit, the widening gap of access to the economical opportunities and the disparity among those countries with fewer resources was formally recognized (Sneddon et al., 2006).

Only by the year 2002, World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg expanded the standard definition of sustainable development by including more importance on the three dimensions: economic, social, and environmental. The Johannesburg Declaration (2002) formally acknowledged the three dimensions of sustainable development as being interdependent in that they can be both mutually reinforcing or in competition.

Despite the many efforts to achieve and maintain sustainable development such as treaties and establishment of rules, laws and regulations the fulfillment of the aim is yet to happen. There are many reasons behind this like: actors taking part in these efforts are quite diverse, such as intergovernmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, nations, international organizations, the private sector and civil society. Dalal-Clyton and Bass (2000, p.9) groups the roots of the decline such as:

"...market failures, where economic transactions fail to take account of social or environmental costs, and policy failures, where governments inadvertently encourage environmental degradation or social problem. The issue is thus not on whether governments should intervene to steer development toward sustainability, but how."

Mitlin (1992) argues that, in general, definitions involve two components:

- the meaning of development (i.e. what are the main goals of development: economic growth, basic needs, rights, etc.);
- the conditions necessary for sustainability.

5. The System of Sustainable Development

"It is now widely agreed (at least amongst those promoting and studying the concept) that there are three pillars to sustainable development:

- Economy: The creation of wealth and livelihoods;
- Society: The elimination of poverty and improvement of quality of life;
- Environment: The enhancement of natural resources for future generations." (Dalal-Clyton and Bass, 2000, p.9)

There exists a relationship between these three pillars of sustainable development which is shown by the intersection areas (Figure 1). In the past societies have had economic, social or environmental objectives, but each of them has been dealt separate from each other as unrelated parts. The economic growth considered needs of mankind alone by ignoring the interdependent social and ecosystems. As the sustainable concept was developed, these objectives are being integrated when possible by making negotiations of trade-offs between objectives in cases when the full integration is not possible. Sustainable development of human society has environmental, material, ecological, social, economic, legal, cultural, political and psychological dimensions that require attention: some forms of sustainable
development can be expected to be much more acceptable to humans and, therefore, much further away from eventual collapse than others (Bossel, 1999, p.2).

![Sustainable Development System](image)

**Figure 3. Sustainable Development System**

**Source:** Dalal-Clayton et al. (1994)

6. Conclusions

Sustainable development concept was firstly thought to be a solution to ecological crisis caused by intense industrial exploitation of resources and deterioration of the environment and the primarily focus was to preserve environmental quality. Today the concept has expanded by including quality of life in its complexity, economically and socially.

The analysis of economic process in many countries has shown that the rapid economic growth caused serious problems from the point of view of sustainable development such as social, economical and environmental (regional inequality, dramatic loss of infrastructure and rural environment, lack of national capital etc.).

Economics is defined as the science of allocation of scarce resources to meet the unlimited needs and desires of the individual members of a given society so there exist the need about new directions for economic policy if sustainable development is to be achieved such as: (i) differentiation between North and South and (ii) justice in the global economy, and participatory development".

Sustainable development is an instant increase of welfare for all inhabitants, not compromising the welfare of others in the nearest and further future.

So, in order to satisfy the concept of sustainable development, it should be studied the best possible use of all available economic resources for the production of maximum possible output of goods and services that are needed for the community now and in the future and the just distribution of this output.

References


Abstract

The goal of the paper is to test Rybczynski theorem in the case of selected European transition countries. Simple Heckscher-Ohlin model is extended in the analysis of many countries, two production factors and two products in the model. Assumptions of the theorem are conducted to scrutiny. The results of the analysis reject the hypothesis of the paper which states that “an increase in the endowment of one production factor, all other variables unchanged, will increase, by a greater proportion, the production of good that intensively uses that factor of production”. There is an existence of cointegration between input-output changes only in case of Poland. There are few key reasons why Rybczynski theorem does not hold in European transition countries: human capital and land as other factors of production, unemployment, increasing marginal costs of production, trade barriers, differences in technology among countries, product diversification and other factors related to globalization and liberalisation of world trade.

Keywords: Factor endowment, Heckscher-Ohlin theory, Rybczynski theorem, transition European countries, cointegration, Johansen approach.

1. Introduction

Early theories of international trade which tried to explain why nations trade were Smith’s theory of an absolute advantages and Ricardo’s theory of comparative advantages created at the end of 18th and early 19th century. These theories observed international trade only from aspect of supply and neglected the aspect of demand respectively consumer behavior. Only factor of production was labor. Neoclassical view on international trade sources of comparative advantage no longer sees in different labor productivity among countries but in different relative endowments in two factors of production (labor and capital). Originators of the so called Heckscher-Ohlin model were Swedish economists Eli Heckscher and Bertil Ohlin in the early 1920’s (Heckscher, E. (1919). The Heckscher-Ohlin (H-O) model of international trade is a general equilibrium model that predicts the pattern of trade and production based on the relative factor endowments in trading countries. It assumes two countries with constant returns to scale, identical homothetic preferences and technologies for two goods but different endowments for the two factors of production. The main prediction of the model is that each country will export the good that intensively uses their relatively abundant factor of production and import the good that intensively uses their scarce factor of production. There are four fundamental
Theorems in the Heckscher-Ohlin theory. They are Stolper-Samuelson theorem, Rybczynski theorem, Factor price equalization theorem and Heckscher-Ohlin theorem. All theorems are proved in the neoclassical framework under strong assumptions.

Well known Rybczynski theorem is one of most significant achievements in the international trade theory. Given a standard Heckscher-Ohlin framework the Rybczynski theorem states that "at given commodity price, if the endowment of some resource increases, the industry that uses that resource relatively intensively will increase its output, while the other industry reduces its output", Rybczynski (1955). Rybczynski investigated the effects of increase in the quantity of a factor of production upon production, consumption and terms of trade. In his analysis only one factor of production varied. The generalization of the theorem by Jones (1965) stated that "if factor endowments expand at different rates, the commodity intensive in the use of the fastest growing factor expands at a greater rate than either factor, and the other commodity grows (if at all) at a slower rate than either factor". The goal of this paper is to extend the analysis for the case of variations in quantities of two factors of production for many countries in the model using Jones's concept. The paper is structured in a way that in second chapter gives an overview of the scientific literature on Rybczynski theorem. In third chapter theoretical proposition of Rybczynski theorem is carried out. The fourth chapter tests Rybczynski theorem in the case of selected European transition countries. In conclusion of the paper is presented contribution of the analysis and concluding remarks.

2. Economic Literature On The Rybczynski Theorem

The Rybczynski theorem along with the Stolper-Samuelson, Factor-price equalization and Heckscher-Ohlin theorem is one of four key propositions describing the properties of the standard Heckscher-Ohlin model with two goods and two factors. The Polish-born economist Tadeusz M. Rybczynski\(^1\) (1923-1998) in his famous paper "Factor Endowment and Relative Commodity Prices" (1955) related changes in an economy’s factor supplies to resulting changes in equilibrium output and prices. Rybczynski’s proof makes use of the Edgeworth box diagram as applied for the first time to production by Wolfgang Stolper and Paul A. Samuelson in their landmark paper, "Protection and Real Wages" (1941), which presented what is now known as the Stolper-Samuelson theorem. Rybczynski builds on Stolper and Samuelson’s key insight of the Heckscher-Ohlin model which stated that the relative price of the two goods uniquely determines factor prices and thus factor proportions. Below is an overview of economists that have contributed to the development of theory regarding Rybczynski theorem.

The Rybczynski theorem was originally derived for the case of production function which were assumed to be linearly homogeneous. Jones (1956) however investigated variable returns to scale using various methods to derive necessary and sufficient conditions for the theorem to this case as well. In his 1965 paper "The Structure of Simple General Equilibrium Models" Ronald Jones gives alternative formulations of the Rybczynski theorem which offers the first integrated treatment, as well as a number of generalizations, of the four key theorems of the Heckscher-Ohlin model. Hanson and Slaughter (1999) examined whether immigration altered U.S. regional output mixes as predicted by the Rybczynski Theorem. They pointed out two main findings: first, state output-mix changes broadly match state endowment changes and second that variation in state unit factor requirements is consistent with relative factor-price-equalization across states. Wong (2000) examined the validity of the fundamentals theorems in the positive theory of international trade in a basic model of external economies of scale. The result of the analysis showed that if global changes under the specified adjustment mechanism are allowed, the Rybczynski and Stolper-Samuelson theorems are always valid, whether or not the production equilibrium is stable. Chakrabarti (2001) demonstrated the implications of asymmetric adjustment costs for the Rybczynski theorem and shows it can be sensitive to the existence of asymmetry in adjustment costs. The Rybczynski path is shown to be a special case of a more general expansion path. Pfingsten and Wolff (2006) discussed about the validity of Rybczynski’s theorem under increasing marginal costs within firms or industries. They assumed that economy is exposed to increasing marginal costs, and thus to diseconomies of scale, within each industry. This assumption was motivated by a critical assessment of the standard replication argument for constant returns, both from a theoretical and an empirical perspective. They showed that an extra supply of any factor may lead to an expansion of all sector outputs if at least one sector permits input substitution. Opp et al (2009) demonstrated that an increase in endowment of a factor of production can lead to an absolute curtailment in the production of the commodity using that factor intensively, and an absolute expansion of the commodity using relatively

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\(^1\)Tadeusz Rybczynski (1923–1998) was a Polish-born English economist. He studied at the London School of Economics. Immediately after discovering his famous theorem, he joined Lazard and spent the rest of his career there as an investment banker.
little of the same factor. This outcome which is called “Reverse Rybczynski” implies immiserizing factor growth. Jošić, H and Jošić, M. (2011) investigated the duality relationship between Stolper-Samuelson and Rybczynski theorem. Using the unit-value isocosts and unit-value isoquants and their basic properties lead to new findings regarding the two aforementioned theorems where prices of final goods are given endogenously.

3. Theoretical Aspects Of The Rybczynski Theorem

In this chapter are given theoretical aspects of the Rybczynski theorem by explaining the key assumptions of the theorem using Edgeworth box diagram.

Let us assume the simplest version of the Heckscher-Ohlin model with two countries; country $A$ and country $B$, two products (say agricultural and industrial product) produced using the same two factor inputs, labor and capital which are fully employed in production, but in proportions that differ across the two industries. Country $A$ is relative labor abundant and country $B$ is relative capital abundant. There are constant returns in the production of each individual factor. Specialization in production is incomplete which means that each country produces each product but in different amount. There is a free trade without restrictions and no transportation costs. Preferences of consumers in both countries are identical like technology which is assumed to be the same. Agricultural product uses a higher ratio of labor to capital, it is termed the labor-intensive product, while the industrial product is termed capital-intensive product.

At a given percentage increase in the supply of one factor, say labor, holding constant the supply of the second factor (capital) as well as the relative price of the two products, must result in a still larger percentage increase in the equilibrium output of the product that is labor-intensive in production (agricultural product), and an absolute decrease in the equilibrium output of the product that is capital-intensive (industrial product). Edgeworth box diagram for the case of increase in the labor force is presented in the figure 1.

![Figure 1: Edgeworth box diagram of the Rybczynski theorem in the case of increase in the labor force.](image)

Edgeworth box diagram allows a convenient demonstration of the reason why an increase in a country’s factor endowment will cause the output of one product to rise and the other product to fall. From the assumptions of the theorem we can say it is production function of country $A$ because it has relatively more labor than capital. Agricultural product is presented with $X$ and industrial product is presented with $Y$. The contract curve is convex with equilibrium in point $A$ where the isoquants of agricultural and industrial product are tangent. The position on the curve is determined by the condition which states that the substitution rate in production between product $X$ and product $Y$ must be equal to the substitution rate in consumption. Suppose this condition is fulfilled at the point $A$. Increase in quantity of labor force is presented with $\Delta L$. An increase in labor force will result in a greater increase in agricultural production, so called magnification effect identified by Ronald Jones. Not only is the all labor in the economy allocated to the agricultural production but additional labor and capital are released by the contraction of industrial production necessary to maintain labor/capital ratio in the agricultural production. The percentage of increase of the agricultural production is greater than the percentage increase in the labor force. The new equilibrium point is now $B$ where the isoquants of two products are tangent.

4. Empirical Analysis Of Rybczynski Theorem In The Case Of Selected European Transition Countries

The goal of this chapter is to empirically test Rybczynski theorem in the case of selected European transition countries. Difference from the original Rybczynski paper is that analysis is extended to variation in quantities of two factors of
production (labor and capital) and not only in one factor of production. Data for analysis were collected from the EUROSTAT and EBRD.

Table 1: Input-output changes in selected European transition countries (total % change)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Capital</th>
<th>Labor force</th>
<th>Agricultural gross output</th>
<th>Industrial gross output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>182,3</td>
<td>-11,9</td>
<td>4,5</td>
<td>-1,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>488,8</td>
<td>3,1</td>
<td>-14,4</td>
<td>67,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>1996-2009</td>
<td>164,9</td>
<td>-9,7</td>
<td>35,6</td>
<td>55,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>1996-2009</td>
<td>114,1</td>
<td>-18,3</td>
<td>23,5</td>
<td>65,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>131,3</td>
<td>1,6</td>
<td>18,2</td>
<td>103,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian Federation</td>
<td>1995-2009</td>
<td>56,1</td>
<td>1,6</td>
<td>21,5</td>
<td>42,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>74,9</td>
<td>9,5</td>
<td>-49,4</td>
<td>61,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>124,1</td>
<td>16,6</td>
<td>5,9</td>
<td>43,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>1995-2009</td>
<td>84,3</td>
<td>-26,9</td>
<td>12,5</td>
<td>62,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: EUROSTAT, EBRD and authors calculations

In table 1 are shown input-output changes between factors of production and production of agricultural and industrial output in selected European transition countries. Countries included in analysis are Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia and Ukraine. Analysis is conducted for the period between 1993 and 2009. Other transitional countries were not included into the analysis because data were available only for shorter time periods. Variables of interest are gross fixed capital formation ($\text{CAP}$), labor force ($\text{LAB}$), agricultural gross output ($\text{AGO}$) and industrial gross output ($\text{IGO}$). Data are aggregated as total cumulative of percentage change for the observed period. According to Rybczynski theorem if quantity of one production factor increases relatively more than the other factor of production, the production of product that relatively intensively uses that factor of production should also increase relatively more than production of other product.

In accordance with the Rybczynski theorem the hypothesis of the paper states:

$\text{H}_1$... “An increase in an endowment of one production factor, all other variables unchanged, will increase, by a greater proportion, the output of the product using intensive changing factor of production and decrease, by a smaller proportion, the output of the product relatively intensive in other factor.”

In order to empirically test the hypothesis of the paper we use linear regression econometric analysis, unit root testing and Johansen approach for cointegration testing. The first step in the analysis is to calculate and compare differences between changes in capital and labor force endowments ($\text{CAP} - \text{LAB}$) as well as industrial gross output and agricultural gross output changes ($\text{IGO} - \text{AGO}$) for the selected countries. The data are presented as cumulative percentage change in the observed period. Before using Johansen approach for cointegration testing between factor and output changes we need to examine the time data stationarity. Testing for the order of integration is standard in applied econometrics. There are two motives behind unit root tests. The first is knowing that the order of integration is crucial for setting up an econometric model and do inference. The second motive is that economic theory suggests that certain variables should be integrated, a random walk or a martingale process (Sjö (2008)). If variables in the regression model are not stationary then it can be proved that the standard assumptions of the model will not be valid. In that case spurious regression can arise as a problem. Only in situation where the variables are the same order of integration, the cointegration analysis can be performed.

In table 2 are presented results of the stationarity testing on the derived variables ($\text{IGO} - \text{AGO}$) and ($\text{CAP} - \text{LAB}$) using Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) unit root test$^3$ (Dickey, D. A. and Fuller, W. A. (1979)).

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$^2$Gross fixed capital formation refers to the net increase in physical assets (investment minus disposals) within the measurement period. It is a component of expenditure approach to calculating GDP, does not account for the consumption (depreciation) of fixed capital, and also does not include land purchases.

$^3$ADF test is a basic test for the order of integration. It can be set in three ways, depending on what we want the alternative hypothesis to be. In our case we use constant and trend. The null hypothesis of a unit root is rejected in favour of the stationary alternative in each case if the test statistic is more negative than the critical value.
The results of the analysis have shown that the derived variables \((IGO - AGO)\) and \((CAP - LAB)\) are of second order of integration under the significance of 1%, 5% and 10%. These time data series needs to be differentiated two times to be stationary. Critical values are calculated for the 20 observations and may not be accurate for the sample size less than 20.

### Table 2: Results of stationarity and cointegration testing using Johansen procedure on the variables industrial gross output minus agricultural gross output \((IGO - AGO)\) and capital minus labor force \((CAP - LAB)\) for selected European transition countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>(-6.95, I(2)*)</td>
<td>(-4.60, I(2)*)</td>
<td>7.57</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td></td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>(-5.91, I(2)*)</td>
<td>(-4.33, I(2)*)</td>
<td>16.82</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>(-3.62, I(2)**)</td>
<td>(-1.74, I(2)**)</td>
<td>16.59</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>(-5.53, I(2)*)</td>
<td>(-3.57, I(2)**)</td>
<td>14.27</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>(-4.28, I(2)**)</td>
<td>(-3.51, I(2)**)</td>
<td>18.39</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian Federation</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>(-3.67, I(2)**)</td>
<td>(-4.93, I(2)*)</td>
<td>9.77</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>(-7.23, I(2)*)</td>
<td>(-3.68, I(2)**)</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>(-3.71, I(2)**)</td>
<td>(-3.04, I(2)**)</td>
<td>15.46</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
<td>(-6.41, I(2)**)</td>
<td>(-4.78, I(2)**)</td>
<td>7.42</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Number of lags in the model was determined by minimizing Schwarz information criterion. * indicate significance under 1%, ** indicate significance under 5%, *** indicate significance under 10%. 0.05 Critical Value for Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace) is 15.49 and 0.05 Critical Value for Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue) is 14.26

### Source: Authors calculations

After determining the order of integration the next step in analysis is to relate changes in production factors to changes in output of production. For that purpose we use Johansen cointegration approach (Johansen, S. (1988), Johansen, S. and Juselius, K. (1990), Johansen, S. (1995)). Cointegration is a statistical property of time series variables. It can be said that two or more time series are cointegrated if they share a common stochastic drift. It can have higher order of integration \((I(1), I(2))\) but some linear combination still can have a lower order of integration and be cointegrated. In practice, cointegration is often used for two \(I(1)\) series, but it is more generally applicable and can be used for variables integrated of higher order (to detect correlated accelerations or other second-difference effects). A common example is where the individual series are first-order integrated \((I(1))\) but some (cointegrating) vector of coefficients exists to form a stationary linear combination of them. Before using Johansen cointegration test variables are transformed into \(I(1)\) using first differences. In Johansen’s test procedure there are two test statistics: the trace statistics and the maximum eigenvalue statistic. The trace statistic tests the null hypothesis: "there are at most \(r\) cointegrating relations" against the alternative of "\(m\) cointegration relations" (i.e., the series are stationary), \(r = 0, 1, ..., m - 1\). On the other hand, the maximum eigenvalue statistic test the null hypothesis: "there are \(r\) cointegrating relations" against the alternative: "there are \(r + 1\) cointegrating relations". In applications of Johansen’s method it can happen that trace statistic and maximum eigenvalue statistic gave different results like in our case where critical values are calculated for the 20 observations and may not be accurate for the sample size less than 20.

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4 The majority of economic and financial series contain a single unit root, although some are stationary and consumer prices have been argued to have 2 unit roots.

5 The reason why the series are \(I(2)\) because we use cumulative values for the observed period.

6 Johansen test of cointegration is one of the mostly used in practice when testing for cointegration. The weakness of the test is that it relies on asymptotic properties and is sensitive to specification errors in limited samples.
Obtained contradiction may be attributed to the lower power of cointegration tests resulting from the small number of available observations (Bahovec, V., Erjavec (2009)). Trace statistic has shown the existence of cointegration vector in case of Czech Republic, Latvia and Poland (trace statistic values are higher than 5% critical value which amounts at 15,49). On the other hand, maximum eigenvalue statistic has shown the existence of cointegration vector only in case of Poland (Max-Eigen statistic higher than 5% critical value which amounts at 14,26). For the testing of the existence of cointegration we also used graphical method. From the figure 2 it can be seen the existence of cointegration only in case of Poland while time data series in Latvia slightly diverge one from another in observed period and in case of Czech Republic there is an evident structural break in the year 2008 and 2009.

It can be concluded that Rybczynski theorem do not hold in its original form in the case of European transition countries except in the case of Poland.7 In order to correctly explain the results of the analysis we need to review the assumptions of the model. Rybczynski theorem lies on many assumptions which addresses complexity of the model. Each model is as complex as there are assumptions that restricts it. At briefly look it can be seen that many of the assumptions of the Rybczynski theorem do not hold. Except labor and capital as main production factors there are land and human capital as other factors of production which were not included in analysis. Unemployment is also the vital question when testing Rybczynski theorem. Heckscher-Ohlin theory excludes unemployment by the very formulation of the model, in which all factors (including labour) are employed in the production. But the unemployment is important factor in global economy. Other reasons why the Rybczynski theorem do not hold in practice are increasing and decreasing marginal costs of production (not only constant returns to scale), various barriers to free trade (customs, quotas, quantitative restrictions), differences in technology of production in countries, product diversification and other factors related to globalization and liberalisation of world trade. It can be concluded that the Rybczynski theorem do not hold in its original form in European transition countries. The reason is primarily because it is restricted with so many assumptions which do not hold in liberalized and globalised economy. It can be also stated that it do not generally hold in the international trade because in the last half a century there has been significant changes in global economy and

7 Which is a quite symbolic because the originator of Rybczynski theorem Tadeusz Rybczynski was Polish born economist.
trade patterns. But the Rybczynski theorem stays as one of the most famous theorems in international trade widely accepted by its simplicity and clarity.

5. Conclusion

The Rybczynski theorem along with the Stolper-Samuelson, Factor-price equalization and Heckscher-Ohlin theorem is one of four key propositions describing the properties of the standard Heckscher-Ohlin model with two goods and two factors. Many authors have contributed to the development of a theory related to Rybczynski theorem. Our analysis started by explaining the key assumptions of the theorem using Edgeworth box diagram. In the final chapter of the paper Rybczynski theorem was empirically tested in the case of selected European transition countries. Difference from the original Rybczynski paper (1955) was that analysis is extended to variations in quantities of two factors of production (labor and capital).

Variables of interest were gross fixed capital formation, labor force, agricultural gross output and industrial gross output. Data were aggregated as total cumulative of percentage change for the observed period. Next step in the analysis was to relate changes in quantities of production factors of and changes in output of two production sectors. The hypothesis of the paper, which we wanted to prove, stated that “an increase in endowment of one factor of production compared to another factor will increase the output of the product relatively intensive in that factor” as original Rybczynski said.

But the results of the analysis has shown otherwise: there is no or little correlation between difference in factor endowments and output production except in the case of Poland. It can be concluded that the Rybczynski theorem do not hold in its original form in European transition countries. Key reasons why Rybczynski theorem do not hold in practice were violated key assumptions of the model; human capital and land as other major factors of production, unemployment, increasing marginal costs of production, barriers to free trade, differences in technology of production, product diversification and other factors related to globalization and liberalisation of world trade. But the Rybczynski theorem stays as one of the famous theorems in international trade widely accepted by its simplicity and clarity.

References

The Right not to be Subjected to Enforced Disappearance: Finding Nemo in the International Human Rights Regime

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Abstract

The right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance, introduced by the 2007 Convention on Disappearances poses theoretical and doctrinal questions to the established system of human rights protection. Although the legal affirmation of the right was long awaited, so far there is little attention to its systemic incorporation in the international human rights regime. This article attempts to categorize the right both on a taxonomic and on a content-based approach. It also explores the dignitarian and political aspects of the right, arguing that enforced disappearance is a severe violation of human dignity, and tests human rights subjectivity.

1. Introduction

The stipulation of the right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance in Article 1(1) of the 2007 United Nations Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance (hereinafter the Convention) is considered fairly a noteworthy step towards the effective completion of the international human rights regime (Donnelly, 1986). The right’s alleged success rests mainly on two grounds; first, it is a definite legal response to the relevant state practices, and second it is sort of a formal atonement of the international community for the victims of enforced disappearances (the disappeared and their relatives). Yet, the fact that the right is not mentioned in any of the general universal human rights instruments (either the Universal Declaration of Human Rights – UDHR or the two Covenants, which are usually referred to as the “International Bill of Human Rights”) raises interpretive issues regarding their intrinsic cohesion, and challenges the right’s potential comprehensive integration in the current regime. In this respect, the belated conventional inclusion of the prohibition on disappearance has attracted critics who identify it as a “testimony to the inadequacy” of the existing positivism-centered human rights system (Boucher, 2009, pp.249-250).

Conversely, the absence of the right’s reference, coupled with its systemic proximity to well established fundamental human rights (such as the right to life and the prohibition on torture) have long sustained the contention that the prohibition on disappearance does not constitute a distinct right, and further cast doubts on its normative character. This view is embraced by eminent scholars, including among others Theo van Boven (2010), for whom the right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance is an example of “the further elaboration of the normative scope of [core] human rights”, and the Convention respectively does not “define [a] new right but re-define[s] and re-conceptualize[s] existing human rights in order to make them more explicit and more inclusive” (p.184). Following the same reasoning the states which were applying disappearance practices during the seventies and onwards, attempted to associate these considerations with the broader debate on the proliferation of human rights, with the view to maintain a low threshold on the international protection against enforced disappearance. However, enforced disappearances cannot fall within the proliferation - fragmentation human rights dilemma, which was addressed by the UN General Assembly during the mid-eighties, since this debate related almost exclusively to the so-called solidarity rights; that is, aspirations for the improvement of people’s standard of living, which usually lacked strong moral underpinnings. From a theoretical perspective, human rights experts in support of a finite human rights list forewarned that the acknowledgment of rights lacking in solid moral values would redound to a destabilizing factor for the well-founded ones. Thereby, it has been asserted that if every demand was called a human right, then “the currency of our moral language [would become] debased” (Mulgan, 1968, p.20).

However, the late manifestation of the right against disappearance cannot not be attached to the proliferation dialectic; first, because the international community readily proclaimed during the last decades the existence of third generation rights whose scope is hitherto contested (Alston, 1984), and second, because it is directed against the core of human existence. The inseparable bond between an enforced disappearance and the essence of human being is easy to
conceive, taking into account that even reflections of a potential disappearance are enough to instigate horrifying feelings to any person who identifies himself as a potential victim (just like practices of torture or execution) (Waldron, 2010). Hence, its late integration is the outcome of political disinclination veiled under the argument of human rights’ non-proliferation. In any case, all theoretical objections concerning the right’s conceptual ambiguity and its complex character attenuated after the relevant UN reports (UN Doc E/CN.4/2004/59, 2004; UN Doc E/CN.4/2002/71, 2002), which affirmed the existing gaps in the victims’ legal protection and attested the need for a separate prohibition on disappearance.

Overall, the existence of the right against enforced disappearance was not called into question during the Convention’s drafting and its establishment was a unanimous decision. Therefore, Article 1 provides for a non-derogable right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance. The right’s nature and dimensions have attracted little theoretical analysis until now, and they remain at most unexplored. In this regard, a thorough analysis of the right’s special features as well as the demarcation of the good protected by it, are essential for its evaluation in the context of the international human rights regime.

2. The genetics of the right: Article 1(1)

The right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance is a negative right, a feature which is evident in the first instance by its syntax. The application of grammatical interpretation indicates that Article 1(1) introduces a general prohibition addressed to the Convention’s parties not to apply the practice of enforced disappearances to all persons, either nationals or foreigners (“anyone”). Accordingly, the provision sets out an additional layer of protection of the private sphere, which may not be disrupted by state authorities. In other words, the individual (the subject of the right) shall claim that the government does not implement enforced disappearance practices against him, and the state has the correlative duty to refrain from such practices.

This pattern, where the pair “individual-claim” mirrors the pair “state-duty” refers directly to the Hohfeldian classification of human rights. More specifically, Hohfeld has identified four categories of human rights, the first of which is claim-rights. These are the rights which imply the existence of a subject (right-holder) and of at least one duty-bearer (either the state or other individuals); the right’s protection depends on the duty-bearer’s abstention from interfering within its field of protection (Hohfeld, 1926-1927). For Hohfeld, claim-rights are the only rights stricto sensu, because they entail clear duties (Brown, 1999). Claim-rights correlate to a “perfect [moral and legal] duty” (Kant, 1778, republished 2010, pp.39, 68) not to interfere with them. In this framework, the right against disappearance qualifies as a claim-right according to the Hohfeldian system, as individuals may raise their claim not to be forcefully disappeared vis-à-vis the pertinent governmental authorities.

Nevertheless, this analysis carries Hohfeld’s judicial background and as such it applies only in strict judicial context. Therefore, it seems that in the Hohfeldian scheme, justiciability is the safest criterion in order to categorize claim-rights, which are eventually synonymous to enforceable rights. From this angle, Hohfeld’s theory has little value for enforced disappearance, since it draws away from the heretofore judicial solutions, which are addressing practices of enforced disappearance in the absence of a corresponding legal right (that is, the accumulation of established rights’ breaches). Accordingly, the existence of a claim-right passes through the positivist test and consequently a claim-right can only be a legal right; this juridical analytic view is also endorsed by Roscoe Pound who characterizes claim-rights as “significant legal institutions” (Pound, 1915, p.101). Thus, Hohfeld’s explanatory theory may apply only to the Convention’s member-states, or to those states which have expressly proclaimed the right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance at a constitutional level. Although this restrictive interpretation of the Hohfeldian theory lessens considerably its field of application, it does not minimize the classification’s theoretical value, and the categorization of the right on disappearances among claim-rights.

Furthermore, it is not only Hohfeld’s theoretical frame according to which the right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance should be placed at the hard core of human rights protection. The right’s negative formulation in conjunction with the right-holder’s absolute and categorical interest in creating a firewall against state authorities from performing disappearance practices against him should place it systemically among our most familiar civil liberties (Waldron, 1993), located at the heart of the first-generation rights (Vasak, 1977). Certainly though, this categorization is hard to sustain, for it neglects the historical descent of civil liberties, most of which precede the UDHR and have a pre-nineteenth century origin (Glendon, 2004). Despite the historical inconsistencies that the acknowledgment of a “freedom from enforced disappearance” may entail, the right’s nature and its protective scope converge to this categorization.

Committing an enforced disappearance predisposes at least the endangerment of the victim’s physical integrity and mental health, implies ultimate allegiance to the captor, and results in the victim’s alienation from any social or legal
structure. These perils suffice for the establishment of a reasonable individual interest in protecting oneself from disappearance. It is an interest in avoiding the extreme pain and suffering caused by enforced disappearance. In this respect, when such compelling individual interests also dispose strong moral underpinnings, they lay the foundations for the emergence of a right. Particularly for civil liberties, individual interest is innate to human nature and unchallenged morality serves as a threshold for the prospect of normativity. That is, “human interest” alongside “moral nature” are the constituents for the occurrence of a human rights norm (Donnelly, 2003, p.14).

This general concept has been partly endorsed by the drafters of the UDHR (Glendon, 2004), and is further advanced by several liberal human rights theorists. Jeremy Waldron (1993), among other contemporary theorists, perceives first-generation rights as those evoking “images of autonomy, rational agency and independence” (pp.7, 11), rendering their protection vital for the right-holder’s well-being or material satisfaction. For Waldron (1993), the distinguishing feature of civil liberties, which prioritizes the need for their protection compared to the rest human rights, is the sense of extra “urgency” they bear (p.13). Urgency denotes the shared objective realization that must be ascribed to civil liberties. Their objectivity stems from the “agent-neutral” moral principles on which they are built. Reversely, civil rights are free from moral relativity or diffusion, and so morality is an “independent variable” (Gewirth, 1980, p.6). This means that they are not dependent on the right-holder’s personal interests and perceptions, and thus they are not subject to positional interpretations. Consequently, although they are the rights of the individual, they are not individualistic rights. Hence, urgency evolves to an additional qualitative characteristic of civil liberties, both moral and factual. Initially it moralizes It serves as the moral shield in the rhetoric of civil liberties justifying the necessity of their protection (in abstracto protection), whilst it turns to a fact when a particular right of the holder is breached and the latter seeks protection (in concreto protection). Apparently, this argument relies on an essential tautology, where morality and urgency are interlocked; in this perspective, first-generation rights turn into a self-fulfilling moral prophecy.

According to this analysis, the pronouncement and recognition of civil liberties depends on the interplay between individual interest, moral objectivity, and urgency of protection. This threefold test corresponds to Alan Gewirth’s perception of human rights. Gewirth defines human rights as “personally oriented, normatively necessary, moral requirements”, further pointing that morality and normativity are unavoidably interwined (Gewirth, 1984). Their combination is the equivalent of the Waldrian “morally-neutral principles” (referred as “moral objectivity”), whereas “urgency of protection” reflects the Gewirthian “necessary requirements” (as it follows from the abridgment of the phrase “normatively necessary, moral requirements”). The common factor of these approaches is the endeavor to preclude a relativity-based reading of human rights that could challenge the absolute character of the right-holder’s protection. Consequently, individual protection is the decisive element around which both theories revolve; it emerges as the genuine purpose of human rights’ existence, their underlying rationale. It is a protection-oriented teleological interpretation (or else what Gewirth [1980] names “normative moral interpretation”, pp.156, 280), under which the right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance qualifies by way of induction as a civil liberty.

Furthermore, enforced disappearance threatens the individual in such a way that its moral foundations are immune to relativistic interpretations. Regardless of the particular circumstances under which a disappearance occurs, the practice aims mainly at stripping the individual from any humane quality he/she bears, and render legal institutions void. Apart from the violation of legal norms, and the breach of self-evident morally objective values like life, deprivation of liberty, practical abolishment of the right to justice and torture, the victim of enforced disappearance deserves urgent protection because it despises the philosophy of rights itself, making the rule of law inaccessible to the victim, or else taking away from it the right to have rights (Kesby, 2012). Indeed, enforced “disappearances [have] reshaped our understandings” of well established human rights (Donnelly, 2003, p.58). In this respect, if the right-holder’s protection is opted as the most appropriate interpretive tool in human rights literature in general, then the characterization of the right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance as a “freedom” is certainly consistent with the international human rights regime.

However, the theoretical classification of the right against enforced disappearance as a civil right does not automatically presume its systemic incorporation to the international human rights regime. This integration, given the lack of any explicit reference to the International Bill of Human Rights, can only come through the interpretive connection of the right to the principle of human dignity, which permeates the established international human rights regime. That is, why and how the commission of enforced disappearance amounts to severe desecration of human dignity.
3. Dignitarian aspects of enforced disappearance

The conceptual vicinity of the right against disappearance and human dignity is obviously uncontroversial as well as logical; however, it is prima facie legally unfounded. Apart from the historically justified lack of reporting enforced disappearances either in the UDHR or the Covenants (as the phenomenon had not yet received international attention during their conclusion), the absence of reference to human dignity both in the provisions of the Convention on Enforced Disappearance and in its preambulatory clauses, although a minor weakness of the Convention, suggests the loose reflexes of its drafters and further makes the notional connection of dignity and disappearance initially problematic. This omission is particularly intriguing, taking into account the Convention’s “structural loans for use” from other UN human rights instruments (like the Convention against Torture), where it is a commonplace to associate the rights in question to human dignity. This structural discontinuity between the Convention and the UDHR does not negate the intrinsic link between disappearances and dignity, but instead renders their joint interpretation as the only pathway. Evidently, this approach depends on the necessary condition that human dignity is the cornerstone of the UDHR, and therefore justifies a short digression in its meaning and role within the international human rights regime.

Human dignity is unquestionably the starting point of the modern (post-UN) human rights discourse, for it captures the critical shift from natural law to legal positivism, or better the latter’s acceptance of nature as the incentive source of human rights (Glendon, 1999). Thus, its reference in the UDHR signifies the drafters’ attempt to bridge different legal traditions; as such, human dignity is the “minimum yardstick” of human rights law, “by virtue [of human beings] common humanity” (Brown, 1999, p.107). This dignitarian approach of human rights unfolds at least three key functions of dignity: a) it is the causa of human rights existence (a), and in the meantime a prerequisite of their functioning (b). Moreover, human dignity thrusts the development and flourishing of human nature (c). Regarding the first two functions, human dignity is simultaneously the source of human rights and their protective scope. In other words, human beings have and claim rights due to dignity (Osiatyński, 2009), and conversely the protection of human rights is intended to safeguard it (Dworkin, 1997, p.199), revealing an axiomatically cyclical relation between them. In the context of the well-known chicken-egg dilemma human dignity is egg and chicken together. Beyond this, the first two functions presuppose that human dignity is inherent to human beings, who therefore seek “a life of dignity” through human rights’ protection (Donnelly, 2003, p.14). In turn, dignity’s inherent nature provides a degree of objectiveness to the rather indeterminate content of the term, first because it connotes that human dignity is a natural and thus inalienable virtue, and second because it adds a moral nuance to its meaning. In this framework, dignity’s inherent nature is employed to establish a standardized and uncontroversial language of human rights, sometimes setting aside its progressive aspect.

This progressive attribute incorporated by human dignity is emphasized by the third function mentioned above. Indeed, human dignity cannot be confined to a standard-content approach, for otherwise it would abjure any potential improvement of people’s moral evolution. Hence, dignity’s natural interpretation is deficient if “the intervention of [human] thought and reflection” is not incorporated therein (Hume, 1896, Book III, Part II, Sect I). That is, commonly accepted notions produced by human experience attain a natural sheath. In this natural-empirical oriented understanding, human dignity “is concerned with what human beings might become, not what they have been historically or “are” in some scientifically determinable sense” (Donnelly, 2009, p.23), rejecting human nature’s perceived immutability (Boucher, 2009, pp.75, 93). Dignity is the driving force behind human possibility, aiming at human flourishing, and consequently morality (which guarantees inherence’s objectivity) evolves to “a distinct, independent dimension of [...] experience” (Dworkin, 2006, p.128). Empiricism as expressed in human possibility incurs a dynamic interpretation of human dignity and therefore human rights, yet without challenging their rooting in human nature; overall, it attempts the reconciliation of the empirical and natural approach to human rights law.

The debate and various interpretive approaches on the functions of human dignity under consideration attest its significance for the international human rights regime. As a result, the international Bill of Human Rights rests on a “dignity-based language of rights” which necessitates a conjunctive analysis of human rights and dignity (Glendon, 1999,

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1 The coexistence of human nature and human possibility (flourishing) appears plainly in the American Declaration of Independence, which states that “men are [...] endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness”. Although human rights are endowed to humans by their Creator (that is the metaphysical expression of human nature, corresponding to the term “human dignity” in positivistic terms), humans are engaged in the pursuit of happiness and moreover have a right to it (human flourishing as a matter of human intervention in their nature). The pursuit of happiness has long been seen as a phrase which promotes a utilitarian understanding of human rights, although “its most fundamental point is to recognize and honor the inherent worth of every human being”.

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p.8). In particular, as regards the right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance, it remains to explore the links between its protective scope and human dignity, (i.e. why and how the commission of an enforced disappearance violates human dignity), in order to substantiate the emergence of the norm, and its systemic incorporation in the UDHR.

Although it seems straightforward to point out the differences between enforced disappearances and other forms of suffering, it is quite difficult to positively distinguish the particular way in which enforced disappearances trample on human dignity. At this point, Susan Marks and Andrew Clapham’s International Human Rights Lexicon considerably contributes to the understanding of the norm, suggesting that enforced disappearances trap the disappeared in the condition of “bare life” (Marks & Clapham, 2005, pp.121-122). The concept of “bare life” has been introduced in Giorgio Agamben’s Homo Sacer as a constitutive element of the expansive trend of sovereign exception and within the broader context of the changing structure of sovereignty. Agamben rereads and juxtaposes the Aristotelian terms bios and zōē, locating “bare life” in between. It is a state where the sovereign alienates the man both from physis and nomos, depriving him from his natural activities, as well as the regular juridical order respectively (Agamben, 1998a, p.90). “Bare life” is an intermediate situation between life and death; the sovereign suspends every humane activity and decreases the victim’s life to minimum biological functions. Agamben’s theory of “bare life” is founded on the example of World War II captives who were treated as guinea pigs in the Nazi concentration camps (the so-called Versuchpersonen or VPs). In his description of the life conditions of the “experimental subjects”, Agamben (1998a) mentions

[...] they were persons sentenced to death or detained in a camp, the entry into which meant the definitive exclusion from the political community. Precisely because they were lacking almost all the rights and expectations that we customarily attribute to human existence, and yet were still biologically alive, they came to be situated in a limit zone between life and death, inside and outside, in which they were no longer anything but bare life [...] Like the fence of the camp, the interval between death sentence and execution delimits an extratemporal and extraterritorial threshold in which the human body is separated from its normal political status and abandoned, in a state of exception, to the most extreme misfortunes (p.159).

Apparently, concentration camps absorb every humane quality from the detainees. First, the victims are deprived from any legal protection, or potential protection ("no rights or expectations"), since the camp is a space of juridical exception meant to extinguish nomos. Second and most important, concentration camps literally remove detainees from the political communities they belong ("exclusion from the political community"); they constitute a forced form of political exile within the territorial boundaries of the political community. For Agamben, such removal from political life impinges on victims’ nature (physis). The equation of one’s participation in political life to man’s nature fully aligns with the Aristotelian definition of human being as a physei politikon zōon (political animal by nature) predestined to form part of a polis (political community) (Aristotle, 1253a, 3-4).

Agamben suggests that a “bare life” is a process of dehumanization analyzed in two aspects: victims not only experience excessive suffering, but they are also excluded from political life. “Bare life” overturns the underlying concession of human rights theory that “all human beings [are] citizens of some kind of political community” and therefore “if the law of their country [does] not live up to the demands of the Rights of Man, they [are] expected to change them, by legislation in democratic countries or through revolutionary action in despotism” (Arendt, 1973, p.293). Captives in concentration camps have neither the first nor the second option, as human rights are subrogated by the captors’ absolute power; a perspective which directly indicates the political dimension of human rights. Astonishingly enough Agamben does not associate the “bare life” concept to the phenomenon of enforced disappearance, particularly under the form it received in Latin America; there, in the rise of totalitarianism, secret detention facilities did not differ at all from WWII concentration camps. He only draws an interesting parallel between the Nazi paradigm and the Yugoslav war practices. Still, even these scattered references to the war in former Yugoslavia fail to report that disappearances were a deliberate governmental policy and limelight nothing but aspects of ethnic cleansing (Agamben, 1998a).

From this perspective, “bare life” is epitomized by Hannah Arendt’s analysis on the concepts of totalitarianism and violence, echoing to a great extent its insights and descriptions. In contrast, although Arendt’s work could not reasonably refer to enforced disappearance (given that it precedes the phenomenon’s emergence and crystallization), her narration on the extermination of the victims of Nazism is prophetic of the respective contemporary testimonies on disappearance. Thus, she mentions that “the camps are meant not only to exterminate people and degrade human beings, but also serve the ghastly experiment of eliminating [...] the human personality into a mere thing, into something that even animals are not” (Arendt, 1973, p.438). Both Agamben’s and Arendt’s analysis of the lives lived in concentration camps offer a vivid visualization of the lives of the disappeared, even though the link between the two practices is not self-evident. The concept of “bare life” (or of lives lived under the captors’ discretion) explains better than any other, how enforced
disappearance violates human dignity. The breach is twofold: the disappeared are forcefully expelled from the corpora politica they belonged to, and they cease to exist because their fate is kept unknown (alienation from their physis); hence, they are no longer the objects of human rights, since they are literally and metaphorically situated outside the protection of the law (alienation from nomos). This contemporaneous alienation from physis and nomos constitutes the reduction from bios to zoë, that bereaves the disappeared of a life of dignity.

4. Political aspects of enforced disappearance

Two issues arise from the application of “bare life” to enforced disappearance. Firstly, “bare life” has a distinct and prominent political dimension; in Agambenian terms, it is “authentically political”, a possible outcome of the “politicization of life” (the so-called “biopolitics” - the politics of bios, 1998a, p.106, 120-122). For Arendt too, life in concentration camps is a deliberate political choice of the sovereign, in an attempt to cease any form of existing or fictitious opposition (Arendt, 1973). Therefore, if the phenomenon of enforced disappearance is an expression of “bare life”, it remains to spot the political ramifications of the right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance. Secondly, the reduction from bios to zoë and particularly the alienation from physis and nomos constitutes such a stern violation of human dignity, that questions the very essence of living as a human being. Again there is an unavoidable tautology: human dignity is a human feature, and vice versa a life without dignity is not worth living for a human being. Following this argument, those exposed to “bare life” are forcefully deprived of their inherent capacity as subjects of human rights. Hence, it is worth exploring whether enforced disappearance endangers human rights subjectivity (recognition as a person before the law); or, do the disappeared have rights?

Moving into the first issue, “bare life’s” political content is indisputable. It is the choice of the sovereign to abruptly cut the links of the individual from the political community, a policy of the arbitrary political exclusion of those deemed dangerous or unwelcome. In this regard, “bare life” is the ultimate measure in the hands of the sovereign to impose domestic quality. Although, Agamben (1998a) does not confine “bare life” to totalitarian regimes, his contemplations directly imply certain democratic deficits, picturing forms of “total domination” within the sovereign’s jurisdiction (politics over bios, p.120), partly diverging from Arendt’s (1973) fixed context, where such political exclusion is a method of suppression originating from the totalitarian rule (“totalitarian domination”, p.438). However, the right against enforced disappearance properly does not condition its existence on particular political circumstances as such a prerequisite would render the right’s field of protection precarious. Politicizing enforced disappearance has never been an option for the drafters of the Convention, albeit the commission of disappearances presupposes a settled state policy. Even outside the conventional box, the characterization of disappearances as political acts was attempted only by those states practicing them with the view to relegate their significance and hold the international community outside their internal affairs (Egeland, 1982).

Thus, the issue at stake is not whether enforced disappearances are associated with certain political regimes, but whether they are a sign of bad governance, or political immaturity when they are employed as official state policy. The wording points directly to contemporary manifestations of the phenomenon, where disappearances are used by states with long established democratic culture as alleged anti-terrorist tools to the benefit of the society, and do not occur strictly within the totalitarian context, in which case Arendt’s model would suffice. In this occasion, enforced disappearances are purged in the name of national security and public order, and thus are not easily conceived as a state terror policy, firstly because terror is not addressed to the citizens of the country that applies them, and secondly because most times the victims are transferred outside the state’s jurisdiction (the “not in my backyard doctrine”). From this perspective, intimidation seems a tolerable deduction, since it is directed against state enemies, leaving the population secure and untouched by terrorism. What is more, the boundaries between exclusion and inclusion zones (the disappeared and the rest) are indiscernible; given that the victims are aliens, they are politically and territorially remote from the rest of the community. Nonetheless, enforced disappearances remain a policy of “exportable” state terror (Agamben, 2001) designed to bring the victim under “total domination”, effectively matching the Agambenian definition of what is a “camp”, as well as the concept of “bare life”. Agamben (1998b) observes that

[the camp as dislocating localization is the hidden matrix of the politics in which we are still living, and it is this structure of the camp that we must learn to recognize in all its metamorphoses, into the zones d’ attentes of our airports and certain outskirts of our cities (p.114),

so as to emphasize the dynamic interpretation these terms require. Apparently, the policy of enforced disappearances is implemented by democratic governments under the pretext of public order and national security, a fact which reveals the
shortcomings of modern democracies.

However, the application of Agamben’s theory of “bare life” is necessarily limited to enforced disappearances that involve state complicity. Enforced disappearances carried out by non-state actors do not match the theory, irrespectively of whether they entail state complicity or not (depending on the governmental authorities’ willingness and ability to smite their occurrence). Put it simply, the less the sovereign is involved in the practice, the less “bare life” is a successful explanatory formula for disappearances. Inevitably, enforced disappearances arising between social groups (syndicates of crime, clans etc) are placed outside the “bare life” frame, despite their undoubted implications concerning structural and political flaws.

The second political issue ensuing enforced disappearances is the glaring reality that the disappeared are placed outside the protection of the law (the Agambenian alienation from nomos). The Convention addresses the matter in Article 2 in the light of disappearances’ constitutive elements. Under Article 1, the right against enforced disappearance emerges as a hyper-right, whose violation entails not only the breach of a series of civil rights, but also the dispossession of all rights, such as political rights. Taking this into consideration, enforced disappearance is the ultimate contemporary example of Agamben’s bipolarity between zones of rights and zones of no-rights, materializing the quagmire of “bare life” (Kesby, 2012, p.130). The United Nations Working Group on Enforced or Involuntary Disappearances confirms the accuracy of this conceptualization and mentions that “while deprived of his/her liberty [the disappeared] is denied any right under the law, and is placed in a legal limbo, in a situation of total defencelessness […] [Technically, the victim] is a non-person” (http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/Disappearances/GCRecognition.pdf). The UNWGEID essentially reiterates the terminology introduced in recent jurisprudence (Anzualdo Castro v. Peru, 2009), further underlying the fact that the disappeared are not subjects of human rights.

5. Conclusions

This article aimed through the application of an inductive method to answer questions like: why was the right belatedly incorporated in the international human rights protection scheme, what its protective scope is, and how it particularly protects human dignity. In this attempt, different schools of legal thought have been employed, seeking to better substantiate disappearances’ legal existence, and not with a view to reconcile them within the narrow limits of an article. The right not to be subjected to enforced disappearance is a) negative, and b) civil. The breach of the right constitutes c) a blatant violation of human dignity, something which d) became clear after the standardization of the respective practice. An enforced disappearance results in e) putting the victim outside the protection of the law and f) alienating them from the political community. Taking these propositions for granted, the above analysis is unnecessary for it explains the obvious. However, whence it comes to the emergence of a human right’s norm, questions like why, what and how are necessary, in order to evaluate the norm within the frame of the international human rights regime.

The right against disappearance is a turning point that signals the simultaneous ripeness of the international community and of international institutions to tackle the phenomenon of enforced disappearance, as well as to enhance the individual and the rule of law vis-à-vis any similar practices. From this point of view, human rights and human dignity are the reflection of human perversity: the more ways human beings invoke to infringe other people’s human dignity, the more legal responses are necessary. This observation requires a progressive interpretation of the notion of human dignity and further denotes that the occurrence and recognition of new human rights is not a taboo.

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Syntactical Phenomena Observed in Bringing Swift's Style into Albanian: Case Study "A Tale of a Tub" and Its Variant in Albanian

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Abstract
This study focuses on the syntax and rhythm employed by the author in his satire "A Tale of a Tub", with the view of making an analysis of the effect they have on the message perceived by the reader. Furthermore, by means of analyzing techniques, it will be pointed out that the word order, in Swift's style, represents the process of thinking much more than the finished thought. In this context, it will be highlighted that the syntax employed by the author is often inconsistent with what is normally expressed, revealing, likewise, what Swift, himself, intends to transmit. Making use of contrasting technique, the analysis will be conducted on the way such important elements, part of his style are conveyed to the target language readership, in Albanian. Moreover, it will be pointed out that, in order to preserve contextual synonymy and not to accomplish a literal translation, the translator, Shpëtim Mema has manipulated the sentence structure and punctuation. Also, aiming at creating a parallel background for the target language readership, under the scope of achieving the effect of a 'thinking process' through rhythm, instead of a static thought, and taking into account the fact that Albanian is an inflected language, the translator has manipulated the word order and has partly employed additional prefixes and suffixes.

Keywords: syntax, rhythm, word order, punctuation

1. Introduction

Our capacity for language enables us to communicate virtually any thought or idea, and this is in largely because of the language faculty evolved in a syntactic component. Syntax allows words to be combined in order to create unique combinations of meaning. And although all human languages share some universal syntactic properties, the constraints on how constituents may be generated vary substantially. English, which is often characterized as a language that offers little in the way of word ordering options (MacWhinney, Bates, & Reinhold, 1984), allows the speaker to choose from among at least a few different forms to express the same essential idea. What is more, sentence structure and syntax influence style through the lengths of thought units and the patterns of grammatical order. (e.g. whether subjects lead to verbs, objects lead to subjects, etc) Shorter sentences, like shorter words, are generally easier to read. Longer sentences tend to occur in more academic literature or that intended for readers with high levels of formal education. It is worth mentioning that while analyzing the sentence structure, it is necessary to identify sentence patterns, in order to point out the reason the author uses certain syntactic patterns in a given passage.

The principle of rhythmic alternation, on the other hand, has a significant influence on syntactic word order. In a study on word order, in English noun phrase coordination, it is found that words are more likely to be ordered in a way that enhances rhythmic alternation between stressed and unstressed syllables. (Mc Donald, Bock and Kelly 1993) This definition of rhythmicity forms one of the fundamental assumptions of metrical theory: because we expect regularity, languages strive towards a perfect state of rhythmicity, where stress is equally distributed and spaced. (Selkirk 1984; Hayes 1995) One of the most desired rhythmic states in language, then, is a “fundamental contrast between stressed and unstressed syllables” (Schlüter 2005), where exactly one unstressed, weak syllable occurs between each stressed syllable. In this way, it can be stated that language tries to avoid deviation from the equal distribution of stress.

While the interaction of rhythm and syntax has long been noted in the generative literature, the early work in this vein focused largely on the influence of syntax on metrical and prosodic structure. (Vogel and Kenesei, 1990) Recent research, however, has suggested and demonstrated the influence that rhythm, rhythmicity, and the Principle of Rhythmic Alternation can have on syntax. (Selkirk 1984; Hayes 1995) From psycholinguistic studies of processing and production to studies in historical change, rhythm's effects on syntax, and in particular, on the syntactic word order choice, are evident. Psycholinguistic experiments have shown that the Principle of Rhythmic Alternation has a significant
influence on syntactic word order. In this context, it is truly impossible to judge the actual effect of rhythm on syntax, if it is examined in isolation without controlling for the effects of other non rhythmic conditioning factors, like the presence of an animacy contrast. (Selkirk 1984; Hayes 1995) According to McDonald’s results, discounting syntactic, semantic, informational, and sociolinguistic factors in a study of syntactic construction choice is dangerous, as is discounting phonological and rhythmic factors. (McDonald, Bock and Kelly 1993)

2. Special features of Swift syntax and rhythm in “A Tale of a Tub”

It is widely agreed that the best way to understand a writer’s thoughts is paying attention to the syntax in his works. Being very sensitive to the effect of the tone of the voice in writing, the style of Jonathan Swift “is the embodiment of a particular way of thinking, which is being set before us for our contemplation”. (Kathleen Williams, 1958) In his writings, the order of the words is to be paid special attention, as in his case, the actual process of thinking is often much more important than the thought itself. Despite representing a completed thought, syntax in Swift’s writings always gives the idea of an open-ended statement. One of the features of the Augustan syntax is the fact that it is based on the stately counter-change of antithesis (Allan Rodway, 1966) and in “A Tale of a Tub”, it is often possible to make out a bold antithesis. Anyway, such symmetry is simultaneously obscured by cumulative organization, unfinished antitheses, and unrelenting qualification. It is worth mentioning the fact that, Jonathan Swift’s sentences are characterized by incomplete antitheses and many of them represent little dramas between right and wrong ways of thinking. (Smith, Frederik N. 1979)

The rhythm, which represents the movement of the thought through the mind, carries a large amount of importance. Swift seems especially attentive to the subtle effects the sound posses. In the “A Tale of a Tub,” he frequently manipulates syntax, along with stress pattern, alliteration, and even meaning, with a view of creating an oratorical cadence and then breaking it later, in order to suggest a more realistic position. In the following example, Swift mixes the formal rhythms of the Latin with the abrupt rhythms of English monosyllables in order to expose the pretentiousness of Peter as well as that of the Modern. “In which Guise, whoever went to take him by the Hand in the way of Salutation, on the Mouth, Peter with much Grace, like a well educated Spaniel, would present them with his Foot, and if they refused his Civility, then he would raise it as high as their Chops, and give them a damn’d Kick on the Mouth, which hath ever since been call’d a Salute.” (Gulliver’s Travels, p. 115) The ironic juxtaposition of vocabularies, (Salutation with “Kick on the Mouth”), is strengthened by the similarly ironic juxtaposition of prose rhythms. Swift devotes his rhetorical energies to creating two styles, credible down to their quite different pacings and stress patterns. In documenting the Peter’s and the Modern’s extreme civility, he employs a higher percentage of polysyllables, uses less emphatic endings, and depends upon a fairly slow, rounded sort of clausal and phrasal rhythm. On the other hand, in pointing up the superficiality of the Peter’s and the Modern’s civility, he favors monosyllables, uses more emphatic endings, and lets the more frequent stresses break the longer rhythmic patterns. Shifting from one rhythm to another effectively goes beyond our expectations and sets up an ironic tension, which allows us to get the impact of the monosyllables he uses in the passage.

2.1 Two different types of syntax

The relationship between one type of syntax or rhythm and another is an important aspect of Swift’s irony. There are instances, in his work, where the formality or informality implied in the syntax clashes with the subject, diction, or tone. (Smith, Frederik N. 1979) In some other cases, there is a sudden drop from a periodic, Ciceronian syntax to a loose, Senecan one. Ciceronian syntax depicts a finished thought, a balanced and periodic prose, while the later, a mind thinking, which is looser, more cumulative and asymmetrical. (Morris W. Croll, 1966) In this context, it is worth mentioning the fact that the writer exploits both of the syntaxes, combining, thus the symmetrical syntax with the asymmetrical one. He uses Ciceronian syntax in Modern’s speech to represent his attempt at arranging his material in neat packages of ancient and modern, right and wrong, reasonable and unreasonable.

But, on the other hand, Swift makes his persona slip continuously from balance and periodicity into a loose, absurdly cumulative rhythm that we ought to understand as his way of registering doubt concerning the Modern’s proud categorizations. In addition, in some instances, a certain prose rhythm is played off against a certain type of syntax. In such a case, the rhythm suggests one attitude toward the subject and the syntax another one. Shifting from a formal, rounded rhythm to a more heavily stressed rhythm is also found in this satire. It is worth mentioning the fact that by making use of all these devices, the writer aims at creating the effect of incongruity.
"A Tale of a Tub" reveals a parallel structure of the Modern's rhetoric, which represents all the techniques of balance, antithesis, and logic, and Swift's own loose, asymmetrical style of actual speech. Swift's juxtaposition of one type of syntax to another implies a clash of two approaches to the world: the real and the artificial one. (Smith, Frederik N. 1979)

2.2 Syntactical incongruities

There are cases when a sentence in "A Tale of a Tub" often begins with a logical comparison but soon becomes cumulative, getting tangled in its own examples and in the end it is difficult to get the right idea of what is the writer's real attitude towards what is expressed. One of such cases is the sentence: "The Conclusion of a Treatise, resembles the Conclusion of Human Life, which hath sometimes been compared to the End of a Feast; where few are satisfied to depart, ut plenus vitae conviva: For Men will sit down after the fullest Meal, tho' it be only to doze, or to sleep out the rest of the Day" ("A Tale of a Tub", p. 208). If we closely observe the sentence, we notice the analogy the writer uses while comparing a 'treatise' with 'human life' and 'the end of a feast' and moreover, he uses a Latin clause which makes it even harder for the reader to get the meaning of what is intended by the author. This incongruity is evident in a lot of other examples, where the writer, aiming at shaping the character of the 'wise' Modern employs several Latin words and phrase, like: 'Arcanum' (p.127), 'in via humida' (p. 121), 'opus magnum' (p. 127, 187), etc.

Another such case is the following one: "I conceive therefore, as to the Business of being profound, that it is with writers as with Wells; A Person with good Eyes may see to the Bottom of the deepest, provided ant Water be there; and, that, often, when there is nothing in the World at the Bottom, besides Dry ness and Dirt, tho' it be but a Yard and half under Ground, it shall pass, however, for wondrous Deep, upon no wiser Reason than because it is wondrous Dark. ("A Tale of a Tub", p. 207) If carefully observed, the logical conjuctions ‘therefore’, ‘however’ and ‘because’ do not relate very much to the cumulative nature of the argument. In this sentence, we note the writer’s attitude towards what he is saying, which asserts that a thing means something, or something, or something else and this multiplicity of interpretation suggests that the author has meant to say whatever we think he has.

"Thus furnisht, and set out with Gods, as well as Devils, was the renowned Sect of Aeolists; which makes at this Day so illustrious a Figure in the World, and whereof, that Polite Nation of Laplanders, are beyond all doubt, a most Authentic Branch; Of whom, I therefore cannot, without Injustice, here omit to make honourable Mention; since they appear to be so closely allied in Point of Interest, as well as Inclinations, with their Brother Aeolists among Us, as not only to buy their Winds by wholesale from the same Merchants, but also to retail them after the same Rate and Method, and to Customers much alike." ("A Tale of a Tub", p.160) The opening clause in this extremely loose sentence, sounds deceptively complete in itself and the term "Thus" makes it appear like a summary. Also, there are numerous pairs of terms here, and although most of the sentence is based, on a comparison, it is in this case difficult to tell what is exactly being compared.

Taking into consideration the word order, it is important to highlight that as previously seen, in the provided examples, the words and clauses in this book are grouped in series of three, four, five or more and no matter how many items in a series, that series remains incomplete and open to at least one more item, for ex: “… these Events, I say, and some Others too long to recite." ("A Tale of a Tub", p. 183)

2.3 Punctuation characteristics in the satire

One of Swift's most prominent abilities is his ability to laugh at himself. Although the Modern repeatedly distinguishes between an idea "wholly neglected or despised in discourse" and "its preferment and sanction in print", Swift refutes this claim in every page of the book. Swift denies the likelihood of fixing ideas into any kind of black-and-white assertiveness. (Smith, Frederik N. 1979) There are cases, in the book, where the author has partly taken out entire clauses so as to show that there was no safety of the written work, for ex: "Of Faction. ** * * ** because Hiatus in * # # # # # * * * Of Poetry, because its ..." ("A Tale of a Tub", p. 62-63) The presence of the blank spaces is partly used to demonstrate that ideas committed to paper are guaranteed no certainty and partly to show “that white paper void all characters”. (Kathleen Williams, 1958)

Another phenomenon is the incongruity among the footnotes and what they point up. In most of the cases, they explain what is mentioned in the article like in the case: "This is an imaginary Island, of Kin to ..." ("A Tale of a Tub", p. 125), while in another case the author, in stead of giving an explanation of what is mentioned in the text, takes himself completely out of his role and shows himself unable to explain it as in: "I cannot conjecture what the Author means here,
or how this Chasm could be fill’d, tho it is capable of more than one interpretation." ("A Tale of a Tub", p. 179) Also, in another case, the author makes fun of what is said in the text, pointing out that the author of the text is mistaken on what he is declaring, for ex: "The Author seems to be mistaken, for I have seen a Latin Edition of Reynard the Fox, above an Hundred years old, which I take to be the Original; for the rest it has been thought by many People to contain some Satyrical Design in it." ("A Tale of a Tub", p. 68) The way the author has named the chapters is another worth mentioning issue. In this way, we see that he includes an “Apology”, a “Dedication”, “Bookseller to the Reader”, “The preface”, “Introduction”, “To his Royal Highness Prince Posterity”, etc, which in deed makes it tiresome for the reader to concentrate and to remember what he has been reading about.


The translation of a book requires not only the conveyance of what is said by the author of the book but also what is meant to, in order to save the tone the author uses and the hidden messages he intends to imply. In addition, a good knowledge of the book’s cultural and historical background is needed, in order to understand the book preserving, likewise, contextual synonymy without which the translated version will not be adequately understood.

With the view of transmitting the exact meaning intended by the author the translator gives the phrase “Powder Pimperlim pimp” ("A Tale of a Tub", p.320) as “pluhurit t’while that ‘a Green one’ as ‘aguridh dhe jeshil’ in “… ai kurr’t’ while that ‘a Green one’ as ‘aguridh dhe jeshil’ in “… ai kurr’ in the sentence “… me spërkaçtë në një periodhë të përshtatshëme të vitit, p.sh. kur hërë ishte pesëmëndhjëtë”. ("Përalla e fuçisë", p. 304) In this case, in order to achieve contextual and cultural equivalence, the translator extends the sentence, providing additional information and translates it with another equivalent one, preserving, likewise, the intended message and adopting it with the rules of Albanian language and figurative usage.

Aiming at transmitting situational equivalence to the reader of the target language, the translator has conveyed the nouns of the sentence: “His epidemical Diseases being Fastidiosity, Amorphy, and Oscitation; whereas in the present universal Empire of Wit and learning, there seems but little Matter left for Instruction”. (“A Tale of a Tub”, p.124) as “Dhe më tej, kam provuar nga leximet e shumta të shpërkaçtë të një kohë të vitit, p.sh. kur hërë ishte pesëmëndhjëtë”. ("Përalla e fuçisë", p. 304) In this case, in order to achieve contextual and cultural equivalence, the translator extends the sentence, providing additional information and translates it with another equivalent one, preserving, likewise, the intended message and adopting it with the rules of Albanian language and figurative usage.

The phrase “… Spargefaction in a proper Time of the Moon.” ("A Tale of a Tub", p.320) has been given as “… me shpërkatë në një periodhë të vitit, p.sh. kur hërë ishte pesëmëndhjëtë”. ("Përalla e fuçisë", p. 304) In this case, in order to achieve contextual and cultural equivalence, the translator extends the sentence, providing additional information and translates it with another equivalent one, preserving, likewise, the intended message and adopting it with the rules of Albanian language and figurative usage.

The translator uses word-for-word translation to give the phrase ‘like Hemp’ in the sentence “... like Hemp, which some naturalists inform us, is bad for ...” ("A Tale of a Tub", 101) into that ‘si puna e kërpl’ in the sentence “... si puna e kërpl për të cilin disa natyralistë na informojnë se është i keq, ...” ("Përalla e fuçisë", p. 298).

There are other cases where the translator has seen it useful to leave out of the translated version entire sentences like: “The first of these ... to Customers much alike.” ("A Tale of a Tub", 159) or “Is it true ...ancestors and Sibyls." ("A Tale of a Tub", 159). This action, in fact has led to a lack of understanding the passages and to a confusion due to his attempt at reshaping the idea in the other paragraphs.

4. Conclusions

Despite the haphazard appearance of this book, the author has carefully calculated its effects. The formlessness of the book is meant to reflect the trouble the Modern encounters in his attempts to make literary sense out of the actual events and personal opinions. Thus, “A Tale of a Tub” is not fiction in the ordinary sense, but a book about the nonsense of
assuming that reality can be frost into fictional form. In addition, Jonathan Swift emphasizes his syntactic parallelism by means of rhythm, alliteration and capital letters.

In Swift’s satire, the complexity of the relationship between form and meaning is connected to his characteristic complexity of the point of view. It is often in contradiction with what is expressed in the sentence and in accordance with what the author intends to imply.

The translator of the book, Halit Selfo, has provided the reader of the target language with an equivalent and culturally understandable translation. In most of the cases, he has managed to imply the same messages the author of the original intended to, but in some other cases, he has not included entire passages in the translated version which normally causes a feeling of confusion and of emptiness among the reader of the target language.

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Mediterraneanisms and Colloquial Maritime Terminology in Croatia

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Abstract

The course and direction of development of maritime terminology on the eastern Adriatic coast followed the rhythm of socio-economic changes and stronger or weaker trade relations with the Mediterranean countries, especially with the Italian maritime republics. Thus, the impact of foreign languages is greater in the maritime terminology than in any other field. Croatia, i.e. its coast, has through centuries been a part of various social and political systems. It was not before the mid 19th century that the national awareness and integrative tendencies became stronger, hence the need for education in the mother tongue. Thus began the systematization of the Croatian maritime terminology. Its development will be accompanied by the coexistence of the two terminology systems, standardized and colloquial terms. Colloquial terms are still widely used in the language of our seafarers and seaside population due to the centuries-long trade relations with the Mediterranean countries. This paper describes the circumstances leading up to the development of the maritime terminology in Croatia, France and Italy, countries that had dynamic trade relations and direct maritime contacts. The similarity among the Croatian maritime idioms, Italian dialects, and French terminology mostly dates back to the time of sailing, whereby the commands and terms for parts of ship, ropes and rigging stand out. For the selected colloquial terms that are still, more or less frequently, used in the eastern Adriatic coast, and that originate from the given time, it will be determined whether there are their equivalents in French and Italian in the 18th and 19th century sources (the period of an intensive contact among these countries).

Keywords: Mediterraneanisms, Croatian maritime terminology, colloquial terminology, maritime dictionaries

1. Introduzione

“La comunicazione continua reciproca delle culture diverse è la caratteristica principale dell’identità del Mediterraneo” (Bertoša, 2002: 47). La mentalità mediterranea croata è il risultato del modo di vivere e lavorare sulla costa adriatica e nel suo entroterra, dei popoli che sono stati per secoli in contatto reciproco continuo, ovvero della compenetrazione di mondi e culture diverse. „In questo modo, la particolare mentalità mediterranea si è adattata al mondo dell'uomo croato, abitante della costa adriatica” (Bertoša, 2002: 44). I marinai croati navigarono per secoli, non solo nel Mediterraneo orientale e nel Levante, ma visitarono anche le sue coste occidentali, i porti della Francia, della Spagna, del Portogallo e anche dell’Inghilterra e dell’Olanda. Con l’andare dei secoli si sono sviluppati collegamenti reciproci, costruite relazioni e conosciute tradizioni, culture e lingue specifiche (Bertoša, 2002: 19-25).

Lo sviluppo di termini marinari sulle sponde orientali dell’Adriatico pulsava al ritmo di cambiamenti socio-economici e del rafforzamento o cessamento degli scambi commerciali con i paesi del Mediterraneo, particolarmente con le repubbliche marinare italiane e con altre regioni della penisola appenninica. Nel lessico marittimo è quindi, più che nelle altre attività, presente l’influsso delle lingue straniere. „I contatti linguistici sono sempre il risultato di un contatto storico e culturale, così gli influssi croato-romani e le loro compenetrazioni, fin dall’inizio della storia croata sulla costa adriatica orientale, aprirono la strada verso la cultura mediterranea, una delle componenti più importanti dell’identità culturale croata” (Socanac, 2002: 127).

cosiddetta lingua „superiore“ diventi fonte di prestito per la lingua la cui posizione sociolinguistica è inferiore. In questo caso si ha il vero e proprio prestigio intimo.

Nella marinera croata dell’Otto cento la lingua ufficiale era l’italiano e le lingue d’ insegnamento nelle scuole, oltre all’italiano, erano il tedesco e l’ungherese.¹ Nella seconda metà dell’Otto cento ci fu una tendenza di rafforzamento della coscienza nazionale e della necessità di standardizzazione della terminologia specialistica croata. Si verificò anche il rifiuto di prestiti linguistici prevalenti e dell’influenza linguistica straniera nella terminologia marina rana. In questo contesto va notata la necessità dell’insegnamento nella lingua materna. Inizia così a sistematisarsi la terminologia marinara croata. Il suo sviluppo sarà accompagnato dalla coesistenza di due sistemi terminologici - terminologia standardizzata e usuale (Stolac, 1998). Termini usuali sono presenti, con maggiore o minore frequenza, anch’oggi nella parlata dei nostri marinai e abitanti delle coste, come conseguenza di scambi commerciali plurisecolari con i paesi del Mediterraneo.

Questo articolo offre una panoramica delle circostanze in cui prosperava il croato, ma anche la terminologia marinara specialistica dei paesi con i quali la costa adriatica orientale per secoli era stata legata, come la Francia e l’Italia. Inoltre, per i termini colloquiali selezionati appartenenti al tempo della navigazione a vela e legati ai comandi e ai nomi delle parti della nave, corda e alberatura, verrà stabilito se ci sono i loro equivalenti in francese e in italiano nelle fonti del Settecento e dell’Ottocento, quindi al momento dei loro contatti molto intensi.


2. Opzioni decisive di sviluppo della terminologia marinara croata

La crescenza di una coscienza nazionale nel corso dell’Otto cento portò, tra le altre cose, alla necessità di creare una nuova terminologia marinara croata. A questo fine con tutto il cuore si dedicò Božo Babić, professore dell’Istituto nautico a Bakar e autore del primo dizionario marittimo stampato in Croazia.³ Dal 1870 al 1901 egli pubblicò cinque dizionari marinari lasciando così un segno estremamente significativo nella lessicografia marittima croata. Questi sono cinque libretti sulla tematica marittima, che sebbene a prima vista non indichino il lavoro lessicografico, sono tuttavia considerati dizionari ⁴ (D. Stolac, 1998: 49., Stepanić, 2006: 70). Durante lo sviluppo della terminologia marittima croata si

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¹ La lingua croata nell’istruzione nautica, anche se brevemente, per la prima volta cominciò ad essere utilizzata a Fiume verso la metà dell’Ottocento. In questo sforzo particolarmente si sono affermati gli insegnanti dell’Istituto nautico a Fiume che cercarono di rimuovere dalla lingua croata non solo i frutti della dominazione straniera, ma anche ciò che per secoli, per via naturale, entrò nella lingua croata dal circolo marittimo del Mediterraneo (Stulli, 1953: 74). Intorno al 1870 tendenze simili sono evidenti, come già menzionato, nell’Istituto nautico a Bakar. Il suo direttore e professore Božo Babić per più di trent’anni cercò di raccogliere e creare la terminologia marinara croata promuovendo nello stesso tempo le tendenze puristiche radicali (Stepanić, 2006: 71).


³ Due di loro, il primo e l’ultimo, sono dizionari universali che incorniciano un periodo di intenso impegno di Babić nella terminologia marinara croata e i suoi sforzi persistenti per introdurre la lingua croata tra le lingue marinare dell’Impero Austro-Ungarico. Il suo primo dizionario è Morski rječnik hrvacko-srbski uspoređen s italijanskijem jezikom od jednoga pomorca, iz 1870. godine (Dizionario di marina croato-serbo paragonato con la lingua italiana da un marinai, del 1870). L’ultimo dizionario di Babić, Pomorski rječnik ili nazivlje za brodarenje po moru (Dizionario di marina o terminologia della navigazione) stampato nel 1901, è il risultato di una lunga ricerca delle migliori soluzioni nella terminologia marinara croata ed è il punto culminante del lavoro lessicografico di Babić (Stepanić, 2006: 71).
intrecciaroni due correnti prevalenti, quella del purista Božo Babić che, dopo aver respinto tutti gli italianismi e forestierismi, ha introdotto una formazione completamente nuova, e quella tradizionale, scettica alle novità, purismo linguistico e neologismi (Vidović, 1982: 796), a cui apparteneva Juraj Carić, collega di Babić dell'Istituto nautico a Bakar.

Carić tendeva al mantenimento degli italianismi radicati credendo che molte espressioni marittime, anche se prima sembravano parole straniere, successivamente avevano preso la forma croata e dopo l'adattamento completo avevano perso le caratteristiche dei prestiti (Stepanić, 2006: 72). L'autore si riferisce ai già nominati nostromismi. Ecco perché non c'è bisogno di ripulire il linguaggio marinaro dagli italianismi, considera Carić, la cui opinione è sostenuta da Pero Budmani che dichiara che è "barbarismo minore ricevere una parola straniera piuttosto adattare la nostra ad un'altra lingua." Però Carić non ritiene opportuno insegnare nelle scuole secondo la terminologia creata, che non viene utilizzata e quindi non si capisce nemmeno nei libri (Carić, 1890: V).

Così anche il famoso linguista Hugo Schuchardt dice che non esiste una lingua che non sia "mescolata". Nella sua opera Slawo.Deutsches und Slawo.Italienisches si occupa della situazione linguistica all'interno dell'impero asburgico, specialmente nelle aree di contatto del mondo slavo, germanico e romano. Il suo atteggiamento verso i contatti linguistiche è positivo ed è contrario al purismo, che allora era caratteristico per alcuni ambienti slavi. Dall'altra parte, Schuchardt critica il "falso senso di orgoglio nazionale per cui dalle lingue slave sono stati eliminati molti prestiti e con loro anche le tracce della storia di queste popolazioni e le loro relazioni con i vicini" (Soćanac, 2002: 129 secondo Gusmani, 1995: 251-263).

Vanno ricordati anche gli sforzi per creare un vocabolario specialistico per mezzo dei decreti dopo la seconda guerra mondiale, ma che non hanno portato ai risultati desiderati. Un esempio è la proposta della Società per la ricerca della storia di queste popolazioni e le loro relazioni con i vicini" (Soćanac, 2002: 129 secondo Gusmani, 1995: 251-263).

3. Romanismi nell'espressione marinara della Dalmazia

La Dalmazia è per secoli stata governata dalla Repubblica di Venezia ed è comprensibile il suo impatto significativo sul campo lessicale e linguistico nelle parlate marinarie locali. Nel corso dei secoli, sulla sponda orientale dell'Adriatico si parla dalmatico, lingua romanza in Dalmazia (Viarello, 1955), come uno stadio intermedio tra il latino e il romanzo. Il dalmatico era in contatto costante con le parlate italiane volgari e perciò il periodo di maggiore influenza del veneziano è registrato sullo strato già romanizzato. Questo processo ha avuto luogo durante la seconda metà del Quattrocento (Viarello, 1955). Del contatto diretto delle parlate locali costiere e della lingua veneta, sulla costa dalmata risulta la formazione della lingua coloniale veneziana. Così la maggior parte della terminologia marinaria croata dialettale deriva direttamente dalla lingua veneta, mentre la parte minore (di origine greca, latina, spagnola, araba) è venuta indirettamente, anche attraverso il veneziano.6 "Dialecti veneziani sulla sponda Adriatica orientale possono essere chiamati coloniali perché non sono lingue romanze autoctone, ma sviluppate sul substrato romano e adstrato slavo" (Stepanić 2011: 165 secondo Soćanac, 2004: 89).

Siccome non si tratta di un'interferenza tra due lingue simili, ma di lingue appartenenti a gruppi geneticamente diversi, romanzo e slavo, il loro intreccio ha generato numerosi prestiti linguistici. Essendo accentuata la diversità tipologica del croato come lingua sintetica con un ordine libero delle parole, e l'italiano, una lingua parzialmente analitica con un ordine definito di parole nella frase, i loro contatti diventano tanto più interessanti ed evidenti, col risultato di veri e propri prestiti linguistici (Lovrić-Jović, 2006). I risultanti prestiti veneziani e italiani nella terminologia marinaria croata sono

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5 La riunione consultiva sulla terminologia marinarìa si è tenuta a Spalato il 22 marzo 1973 per iniziativa della Sezione marinarìa della Società per la promozione della marineria jugoslava. Questo convegno è stato ispirato dal fatto che sulle navi nazionali costantemente, e sembra più che prima, venisse protetta la terminologia straniera. A questa pratica è soggetto, sotto l'influenza degli ufficiali e marinai anziani, anche personale giovane e qualificato che è costretto a dimenticare le espressioni imparate a scuola e ad accettare la distorta terminologia straniera (Pomorstvo, god. XXVIII, broj 5-6, 1973: 185). Dal testo è abbastanza chiaro che sotto le espressioni interne imparate a scuola sia implicata l'appena creata terminologia utilizzata nelle scuole.

6 Žarko Muljačić si è interessato alla ricerca dei romanismi di origine araba che sono arrivati nella nostra lingua attraverso il veneziano coloniale o arabismi italiani del sud Italia. A causa della loro natura indiretta l'autore li denomina pseudoarabismi (Muljačić, 2007).
la conseguenza dei contatti linguistici diretti, cioè il risultato della comunicazione naturale (Jernej, 1956). Ciò è confermato anche nel saggio di Mirko Deanović che cita il Mediterraneo come uno spazio di interazione diretta delle lingue, delle culture e delle civiltà, e la cui particolarità si riflette nella diversità di esistenza e sopravvivenza alla base dell’elemento comune – il mare (Deanović, 1962). Quindi non è sorprendente che proprio la terminologia marinara nella zona adriatica orientale sia basata sull’influenza del dialetto veneziano, ma anche su molti mediterraneismi universali.\(^7\) Non ci si sarebbe potuto aspettare altrimenti lungo la costa croata che apparteneva a diversi sistemi sociali e politici, sempre al servizio degli altri, e fino al tempo della rinascita verso la metà dell’Ottocento senza tendenze nazionali integrative. La mancanza dello stato perciò si riflette sull’inesistenza di un linguaggio e di una terminologia marinara nazionale.

### 4. Il lessico marittimo in Francia e in Italia

I paesi del Mediterraneo che sono stati indissolubilmente legati per secoli, in particolare l’Italia e la Francia, hanno un diverso contesto storico entro il quale si è sviluppata la loro terminologia marinara. Nel corso dei secoli, la terminologia francese ha subito diverse influenze linguistiche da latino, greco, lingue scandinave, olandese, arabo, italiano, fino alla lingua inglese nell’Ottocento. Già dal dodicesimo secolo in testi scritti in francese antico è stato registrato l’uso di termini nautici che fa riferimento ad un vocabolario specifico relativo alla gente del mare. Marc Van Campenhoudt inizia a presentare lo sviluppo della terminologia marinara francese citando Villain-Gandossia (1999: 24): „La terminologia della navigazione, per definizione più internazionale che qualsiasi altro vocabolario tecnico, è cresciuta in base a numerosi fonti.”\(^6\) Van Campenhoudt sostiene che lo sviluppo della terminologia marinara francese risale al nono secolo e si basa sul patrimonio greco, latino, germanico e arabo. Le influenze particolarmente importanti sul suo sviluppo risalgono al periodo delle Crociate e delle grandi scoperte geografiche. E mentre l’evoluzione della lingua francese si stava muovendo verso la sua unificazione, la terminologia marinara progrediva in due direzioni diverse, che hanno portato all’esistenza di due lingue quasi completamente diverse: una in uso nelle galere e l’altra sulle barche a vela. Van Campenhoudt conferma ciò dicendo che in Francia fino al Settecento c’è una differenza marcata tra i due domini linguistici: marinera occidentale (Mare del Nord, Manica, Oceano Atlantico) con l’influenza del gruppo germanico delle lingue, in particolare olandese e le lingue scandinave, e marinera d’Oriente o Levante, dov’è evidente influsso dell’ambiente mediterraneo e i suoi linguaggi, in particolare occitan d’origine italiana. La scomparsa di galere ha portato alla rapida scomparsa della terminologia utilizzata al loro bordo e nel Mediterraneo (poiché le galere erano navi prevalentemente del Mediterraneo). Questa è la causa per la quale suddetta terminologia non ha lasciato un segno particolare nell’ulteriore evoluzione della terminologia marinara francese.

L’istituzione dell’Accademia di Francia nel 1635, il cui obiettivo principale era la salvaguardia e perfezionamento della lingua francese, quindi la fondazione di Imprimerie Royale – Stamperia Reale nel 1640, testimonia la cura e l’importanza attribuita alla lingua. In questo contesto storico in Francia sono stati stampati numerosi dizionari marinari, a partire dal Seicento, o più precisamente dal 1636 quando è stato pubblicato il primo (Cléirac). Nel 1687 Desroches compone *Dictionnaire des termes propres de marine*, dizionario più voluminoso rispetto al precedente con 576 pagine e circa 2500 termini in ordine alfabetico. Fino a metà dell’Ottocento ne è stato pubblicato un gran numero.\(^9\)

Al contrario, in Italia, dopo L’Armata navale di Pantero Pantera, stampato a Roma nel 1614, non ci sono state opere significative alla marinera o qualche vocabolario relativo, fino alla traduzione dal francese del *Dizionario Istorico, Teorico, e Pratico di Marina* del 1769 di Saverien. Questo ampio lavoro permette di comprendere meglio la terminologia relativa alla marinera e si occupa anche della sua storia presentandoci teoria e pratica di quest’arte. Un altro dizionario

\(^7\) Il mondo mediterraneo ha determinato il modo di vita imponendo la propria universalità del mondo marittimo e riflettendosi anche nel linguaggio (Božanić et al., 2011).

\(^8\) „Par définition plus internationale qu’aucun autre vocabulaire technique, la terminologie maritime s’est nourrie à d’innombrables sources.” (dal francese hanno tradotto autrici)

\(^9\) *Dizionario de marine de Nicolas Aubin* (1702)

*Dictionnaire historique, théorique et pratique de Marine de A. Savérien* (1758)

*Dictionnaire des termes de marine de Bourdé de Villehuet* (1773)

*Dictionnaire de la marine française de Charles Romme* (1792-1813)

*Dictionnaire de Marine de Willaumez* (1820-1831)

*Dictionnaire pittoresque de marine de Jules Lecomte* (1835)

*Dictionnaire abrégé de Marine* (1834) di Bonnefoux

*Dictionnaire de la marine à voile de Bonnefoux et Paris* (1848-1859-1885).

*Glossaire nautique de Jal* (1848) (Marine Nationale, 2011)
importante è il Vocabolario di Marina in tre lingue - Italiano, Inglese e Francese del 1813 di Simone Stratico, considerato il migliore del suo tempo. Nell’Ottocento merita di essere menzionato anche Dizionario di marineria militare italiano - francese e francese - italiano del 1866 di Parilli, apprezzato principalmente per la parte tecnica, e il Dizionario di marina: italiano frances e francese italiano del 1870 di Fincati.10

La lingua letteraria italiana è basata sulla parlata toscana. Questa è la lingua standard che non dispone di espressioni specializzate o di un dizionario del linguaggio marinaro perché la situazione è simile a quella dei Croati nell’Ottocento. Espressioni marinare specialistiche sono state create in idiomi locali, da persone che, parlando ognuna il proprio dialetto, commerciavano, navigavano, costruivano le navi. Loro sono ideatori e portatori di termini nautici che perciò riflettono caratteristiche dialettali. Da qui deriva anche la nota di Simone Stratico – ogni termine deve essere descritto precisamente per poter riconoscere come è stato ideato (Stratico, 1813).

5. I termini colloquiali e i loro equivalenti nelle fonti francesi e italiani

Abbiamo scelto la terminologia colloquiale in uso ancora oggi con maggiore o minore frequenza sulla costa adriatica croata (in base alla comunicazione con ufficiali marittimi, studenti di nautica e pescatori). Il corpus contiene 35 lessemi relativi a ordini di bordo, nomi delle parti della nave, corda e velatura. Il primo compito è stato quello di stabilire l'esistenza di termini selezionati nel dizionario marittimo di Radovan Vidović, opera la cui materia comprende il periodo dal Medioevo alla Rivoluzione Industriale, cioè periodo di barche a remi e a vela. Il materiale per il dizionario, includendo localismi registrati, è stato raccolto da circa 60 vilaggi, dall'Istria alla Baia di Kotor e, come dice l'autore, proviene da una varietà di dialetti.11 Il secondo scopo è stato esaminare se ci sono equivalenti di questi termini in alcuni vocabolari francesi del Settecento e Ottocento e in quelli italiani dell’Ottocento e Novecento, ignorando l’eventuale presenza di polisemia, e questo come segue:

- Dictionnaire historique, théorique et pratique de Marine de A. Savérien (1758)
- Dictionnaire abrégé de Marine: contenant la traduction des termes les plus usuels en anglais et en espagnole de Bonnefoux (1834)
- Glossaire nautique de Jal (1848)
- Dizionario del dialetto veneziano, III edizione di Boerio (1867)

Tabella 1. Lessemi colloquiali e i loro equivalenti nei dizionari

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Termine colloquiale</th>
<th>Dizionario marittimo di Vidović 1984</th>
<th>Dictionnaire de Saverien 1758</th>
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<th>Glossaire de Jal 1848 (termine francese)</th>
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<td>bolina, bolina</td>
<td>borina, bolina</td>
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10 Nonostante il gran numero di dizionari ne mancava uno che si adattasse agli specialisti e al pubblico in generale. Dizionario di marina medievale e moderno stampato nel 1937 è il più voluminoso lavoro lessicografico fino ad allora. Oltre alla ricchezza di terminologia marinara corrente con abbondanza di termini dialettali, si presenta anche l’etimologia del termine (Prefazione di Giulio Bertoni, XI-XII).

11 “Nella nomenclatura di questo dizionario italiani sono rappresentati con più del 80 per cento, e, in questo senso, il dizionario rappresenta un saggio di italianismi nella nostra lingua marittima” (Stepanić, 2005: 252, citato da Boris Pritchard, 1993: 484).
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**Comandi dai verbi**

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<td>mainat, majnat</td>
<td>mainar, mainare, venit.</td>
<td>mainar, Maina!</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>molat</td>
<td>molir</td>
<td>mollir, mollir, molar</td>
<td>molare, molar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orcat</td>
<td>orser, terme du</td>
<td>orse, m., mediterran.</td>
<td>orzare, orsare, orzeggiare</td>
<td>Orza!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dopo aver confrontato gli equivalenti abbiamo concluso quanto segue:

- Tutti i lessemi citati sono registrati nel dizionario marittimo di R. Vidović
- nel Dictionnaire historique, théorique et pratique de Marine de A. Savérian sono stati trovati 24 equivalenti; nel Dictionnaire abrégé de marine de Bonnefoux anche; nel Glossaire nautique de Jal 29 equivalenti nella lingua francese e 33 nella versione italiana dello stesso dizionario; nel Dizionario del dialetto veneziano sono stati notati 32 equivalenti dei lessemi marinari colloquiali

Già dal primo sguardo alla tabella 1 diventa chiaro che gli equivalenti citati sono adattati in lingua croata a livello fonologico e sono riconoscibili dagli appartenenti di diverse nazioni. Che si tratta di mediterraneismi è suggerito anche dagli autori dei singoli dizionari come Bonnefoux che per sei lessemi menziona la loro utilizzazione nel Mediterraneo (e offre il suo sinonimo invece della spiegazione, per esempio pastèque = syn. galoche), e per un termine afferma la sua provenienza dal Levante. Saverien tra i lessemi osservati annota cinque provenienti dal Levante e due che sono di origine mediterranea. Intanto, nei dizionari francesi non sono trovati equivalenti per cinque termini: bokaporta, cima, kolumba, štiva e per il comando Maina, mentre nelle fonti italiane sono presenti tutti i lessemi scelti. È importante notare, inoltre, che Jal per alcuni nomi registrati segna la versione italiana e in particolare veneta. Oltre al modello di Boerio questo conferma che la maggior parte delle espressioni colloquiali maritmore sono versioni coloniali del dialetto veneziano. "Il contrasto linguistico tra Venezia e Dalmazia, secondo i filologi americani, è meno importante del fatto che esista lo spazio culturale Adriatico (Adriatic cultural area), che in gran parte ha creato una propria espressione marittima. Questo è il motivo per cui le differenze regionali tra Venezia, l'Istria e la Dalmazia furono irrilevanti ai marinai: alcune parole erano semplicemente parole adriatiche (Adriatic words)" (Stepanić, 2005: 251 secondo H. Kahane, R., Kahane e Koshansky, 1953/54: 160-161 ).

Per tal motivo la maggior parte di questi lessemi troverebbe un posto nell’Atlante linguistico del Mediterraneo (Deanović, 1962), progetto a lungo pianificato ma mai realizzato. Era un’idea di molte popolazioni che, vivendo in tre continenti e condividendo la stessa visione e lo stesso mare, hanno fortemente influenzato la civiltà e la storia europea e mondiale. Perciò la terminologia croata colloquiale appartiene all’espressione mediterranea marittima comune che si è mantenuta, con certe trasformazioni, sulle nostre coste fino ad oggi.14

6. È necessaria la conservazione della terminologia colloquiale?

Con la standardizzazione dei neologismi e l’introduzione di parole coniate in lingua croata, le espressioni colloquiali adriatiche vengono soppressi e si incontrano raramente in dizionari croati o di solito sono indicate come regionalismi. L’eccezione è il già citato dizionario marittimo di Radovan Vidović in cui è stato registrato un gran numero di espressioni colloquiali e dialettali.

12 „Quelle parole spesso sono state caratterizzate come veneziane d’oriente (East Venetian), corrispondenti al dialetto italiano usato dai marinai austriaci. È chiaro il riferimento ai marinai croati della costa orientale dell’Adriatico, che allora faceva parte della monarchia austro-ungarica” (Stepanić, 2005: 252).

13 L’autore presenta un esempio di questionario pubblicato nel 1960, che comprende una serie di domande relative a diversi settori di attività umana - costruzione navale, pesca, navigazione, tipi di navi, ecc.

14 Dagli anni novanta del Novecento, questa espressione spesso viene chiamata lingua franca. Ma, siccome si tratta di una lingua artificiale, morta, e non parlata mediterranea viva, cresciuta al contatto diretto con il dialetto veneto, dovrebbe essere notato che l’espressione dalmata dialettale è la versione della lingua coloniale veneziana che non va confusa con linguaggio artificiale utilizzato per il commercio tra gli Europei, Arabi e Turchi sulle coste africane del Mediterraneo, con il lessico costituito principalmente da elementi italiani e spagnoli (Stepanić, 2011: 164-165). L’attualità della lingua franca negli ultimi cento anni è rafforzata dall’interesse dei linguisti a causa delle diverse interpretazioni del termine franco in questa espressione (Viarelo, 1955: 67).
In tempi recenti, i linguisti croati sottolineano l'importanza di registrazione della terminologia colloquiale viva, che testimonia la ricchezza dell'espressione croata marinara. Così, la Fondazione nazionale per la scienza, l'istruzione superiore e lo sviluppo tecnologico della Repubblica di Croazia ha riconosciuto l'importanza di stabilire la terminologia specialistica e di specificare la terminologia usuale. Essa ha iniziato un progetto per creare una terminologia professionale croata - STRUNA. In STRUNA sono stati notati i seguenti termini presentati nella tabella 1, ma etichettati con lo stato normativo di gergo: ankora, bakaporta, korpomorto, lantina, paštka, škota, štiva e orcat. È registrato anche bumpreš marcato come „termine archaico“. Dato che la maggior parte dei lessemi colloquiali fanno parte del vocabolario attivo, questo numero è relativamente piccolo. Ciò è confermato dai risultati di un sondaggio condotto nella zona di Dubrovnik nel 2009 (Stepečić, Violić-Kopricev e Maslek: 2009). Gli ufficiali marittimi intervistati, per lo più capitani di lungo corso di Dubrovnik, per kolumba, manovra e škota non conoscevano il termine standard. Allo stesso modo, agli studenti del primo anno del Dipartimento marittimo all'Università di Dubrovnik non era noto il termine standardizzato della parola colloquiale štiva. Guardando la frequenza di uso secondo questa indagine, è importante notare che gli ufficiali marittimi usano regolarmente korpomorto e pajol, e molto spesso vengono utilizzati prova, šijat, škota, trcarol, bakaporta, kolumba, manovra, orcat, sartija e virat. Dall'altra parte, gli studenti usano spesso prova, cima e molat. Il fatto è che un certo numero di neologismi non ha preso piede, mentre i loro sinonimi colloquiali non si trovano nei dizionari della lingua croata. Questo è confermato da Božanić, Lozić Knežović, Runjić-Stoilova e Tomelić Curlin (2011: 49): „Certe parole, come kolumba, prova, šesula, škota, timūn, vala, sono marcate come regionalismi, anche se i loro neologismi standardizzati non sono mai stati accettati dal cerchio marittimo culturale croato e non sono arrivati all’esperienza viva. Inoltre, gli autori confermano una mancanza di termini standardizzati adeguati in lingua croata contemporanea, relativi alla terminologia marittima.

Il fallimento che in pratica ha subito il tentativo di nazionalizzare la nostra terminologia marittima purificandola radicalmente, in particolare la nomenclatura tecnica della nave e la velatura delle navi a remi, è stato causato principalmente del fatto che i fautori e gli esecutori di questo atteggiamento non avevano capito che non si trattava solo radicalmente, in particolare la nomenclatura tecnica della nave e la velatura delle navi a remi, è stato causato da un certo numero di neologismi che non ha preso piede, mentre i loro sinonimi colloquiali non si trovano nei dizionari della lingua croata. Questo è confermato da Božanić, Lozić Knežović, Runjić-Stoilova e Tomelić Curlin (2011: 49): „Certe parole, come kolumba, prova, šesula, škota, timūn, vala, sono marcate come regionalismi, anche se i loro neologismi standardizzati non sono mai stati accettati dal cerchio marittimo culturale croato e non sono arrivati all’esperienza viva. Inoltre, gli autori confermano una mancanza di termini standardizzati adeguati in lingua croata contemporanea, relativi alla terminologia marittima.

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7. Conclusione

I lessemi colloquiali selezionati hanno confermato l'esistenza di espressioni costiere marittime in Croazia, costituiti dalla parlata viva che ha avuto origine in contatto con culture vicine e che appartiene al circolo culturale e linguistico del Mediterraneo. Se respingiamo tale idiom d'un vocabolario marittimo ereditando la cultura e la terminologia principalmente dalmatica, poi veneta e mediterranea [...] Considerare quello strato lessicale straniero, per lo più di origine italiana, significa e rinunciare alla propria cultura che si è sviluppata per secoli dal contatto con culture vicine, cioè dal contatto del popolo croato con l'universo culturale e linguistico del Mediterraneo (Božanić et al., 2011: 49).

Fonti

Dictionnaire historique, théorique et pratique de Marine de A. Savérien (1758)
Dictionnaire abrégé de Marine: contenant la traduction des termes les plus usuels en anglais et en espagnole de Bonnefoux (1834)
Glossaire nautique de Jal (1848)
Dizionario del dialetto veneziano, III edizione, Venezia (1867) di G. Boerio.
Vocabolario di marina in tre lingue Ital.-Franc.-Ingl., sv.1. Milano (1813) di S. Stratico
Dizionario del dialetto veneziano, III edizione, Venezia (1867) di G. Boerio.
Pomorsto, godište XXVIII broj 5-6 (1973).

16 STRUNA è la base terminologica della terminologia croata specializzata in cui si raccoglie, produce, elabora e sistematicamente interpreta la terminologia di diverse professioni per riunire e armonizzare la terminologia croata specialistica. In STRUNA finora sono incluse diciannove diverse professioni e al pubblico è accessibile la terminologia di tredici professioni, tra loro anche quella marittima (STRUNA, 2013).
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The Usage of Morbid Themes and Imageries in Contemporary Art:
A Case Study of “12: A Group Exhibition in Anticipation of the 2012 Apocalypse”

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Abstract

Death and mortality have not only become a major trend in various forms of visual communication during contemporary times but almost an obsession. These themes of hopelessness, violent imagery and mortality of life have also been a prominent element of contemporary art scene since the arrival of critical post modernism in the 1980’s but it was not until the arrival of the 21st century that these themes took a strong hold. There are many factors that contributed to the contemporaneity’s fixation with morbidity and mortality. The absence of religious narratives in the modern society left a void in the lives of many creating a sense of despair. The failure of ideologies like socialism and communism which are replaced by consumer capitalism as an undesirable but only viable path ended the idealistic aspirations of turning the world into a better place collectively for all mankind. But the biggest blow on contemporary art came with the horrific incident of September 11 suicide attacks upon the soil of the United States. In the atmosphere of a world obsessed with the transience of life nothing could be more welcome than the Mayan myth, the end of the world on the eve of 21/12/12. In anticipation of the world coming to an end, an exhibition was arranged by 12 local artists from Penang, Malaysia. Using the exhibition as a case study this article examines the obsession of contemporary art with the mortality and transience of life and floats an apprehensive thought, is the sense of hopelessness and apocalypse on individual or collective level the only message contemporary artists have or is it just a commercial hype, in sync with the same capitalist consumer society it criticizes? Selling what sells nothing more nothing less?

1. Introduction

Death and mortality have not only become a trend in various forms of visual communication during contemporary times but almost an obsession. Print media, cinema, television even the cyber games for children contain extremely violent and morbid imageries and suggestions. In an article by Victoria J. Grube, an art teacher in a school:

“As an after-school art teacher and student-teacher supervisor, the contact I have with young artists exposes me to the screenager culture. I observe youth freely telling stories and acting out violent scenarios that appropriate the composition, language, and narrative aspects of video game.” (Grube, 2012, p. 26)

The American television shows like Dexter, The Walking Dead, Hemlock Grove and various movies that romanticize serial killers, assassins and vampires have become major trends in American media culture. These television shows and movies are watched even at the remotest places on earth via satellite channels, internet and cinema. This tickles down to sub trends in local cinemas and local television shows. On the various news channels every day, we are flooded with footages of violence from around the world containing the latest news about genocides, natural disasters, mass killings and terrorists ‘attacks. These violent imageries have almost numbed nations to the level of voyeurs and turned collective or individual miseries on news channels into a mere spectator sport.

The trend of this violent hopelessness and morbid imagery constitutes a prominent element in the contemporary art world as well. The object of this paper is to not only identify the overwhelming trends of morbidity in contemporary art but also to suggest an apprehensive thought, where this is leading the current art world? Is hopelessness and morbid obsession with mortality the only message contemporaneity is all about?

2. What is Contemporary Art?

The word contemporary or a newly coined term “contemporaneity” has probably been the most sought after term in art currently, after “postmodernism”. Although contemporary follows from the premise of critical postmodernism, it is being
considered as a replacement to postmodernity. Contemporaneity is the present; it is the "Now" as has never been before. As Joan Kee explains, "The idea of contemporaneity, a word that has gained increasing currency as a presumptive replacement for post modernity" (Kee, 2011, p. 371). According to Terry Smith, postmodernism is passé' and has served just as a transition between modernism into the contemporary. He explains that we have reached the limits of postmodernist explanation as "the world stands face to face with itself, in all its rich contemporaneity" (Smith, 2009, p. 254). In general, "contemporary" means happening, existing, living, or coming into being during the same period of time. Contemporary art or the term contemporaneity in art falls under the rubric of critical postmodernism. Now, it has become an independent entity that is in sharp contrast to the universalism or formalization mooted by modernism that emphasized the principal of "l'art pour l'art" or "art for art's sake:"

"Modernism settled in painting with impressionism, and with that, art for art's sake. For which same sake the successors in Modernism of the impressionists were forced to forget about truth to nature. They were forced to look even more outrageously new: Cézanne, Gauguin, Seurat, van Gogh, and all the Modernist painters after them -- for the sake of aesthetic value, aesthetic quality, nothing else." (Greenberg, 1980, p. 6).

As opposed to Modernism that aimed at aesthetic universality and "unchanging criteria of quality" that are supposedly valid for all times and places, the contemporary art on the other hand aims at ephemerality. McEvilley explains that modernist art though presented by beautiful objects lacked apparent content. He suggested that it implied that the society which produced such objects also lacked hidden agendas or contents "... after all the social situation producing such art was not pretty, then the art must bear a lie within, as Blake says the rose has a worm in it. Criticism, once enchanted by beauty of the rose, must now also attend to the worm." (McEvilley, 1992, p. 3)

The concept of postmodernism in the 1960's through pop art was more of playing with the mass culture imageries. It was a reaction to high modernism which catered only around the elite and their bourgeois culture. The postmodern artists on the other hand, were not detached from the society like the modernist artist, but rather were part of it. It was not until the arrival of critical postmodernism in the 1980s and 1990s however, that the artists turned to a more critical point of view of the commercialized world around them. The artists did not only engage with the images of mass cultural appeal like pop artists but these artists, "... acted as independent lenses onto the troubled world" (Koscianski, 2003, p. 81) and understood the hazards and dangers of a fast commercializing society where everything was saleable. Critical postmodernism is a nexus of both critical theory and postcoloniality, critical pedagogy and postmodern theory (Boje, 2001). According to Terry Smith, although the contemporary art has its origin firmly rooted in the critical postmodernism it has become an independent art movement almost as big as modernism itself (Smith, 2011, p. 77). Smith asserts that contemporaneity has come a long way in accepting artists as effective conceptual tools to comment and criticize the irritants in their respective societies with a flare of universal taste. Probably the most distinctive and most effective evolution in art was the eradication of the distinction between elite and mass culture with the arrival of pop art. This fact not only aided art in diversifying its audience but also encouraged the artists to deal with many significant subjects that would have been considered kitsch imageries a few decades back. The influence of critical postmodernism on contemporary art also came with an inherent cynicism, hopelessness and challenging as well as "rejection to all meta narratives" (Harrison, 2001, p. 12).

3. Morbidity in Contemporary Art

In many contemporary art approaches, the images of morbidity have become quite significant. There are many factors that have contributed in shaping contemporary art’s fixation with morbid imagery, especially in the Third World. The disintegration of the Soviet Republic after the last phase of Cold War into several independent States sealed the fate for communism as an ideology in Eastern Europe. It also marked the beginning of New World Order and turned the United States into the sole super power in the world and consumer capitalism as an undesirable but only viable path. Along with it many incidents throughout the world shook humanity to its grounds like global warming, climatic changes that caused catastrophic tsunamis and earthquakes, man created disasters like the massacres in Rwanda, the bombing of the federal city in Oklahoma and the race for nuclear arms among nations (Robertson & McDaniel, 2005, p. 11). But the biggest blow to the most positive post modernistic influence on contemporary art, that is globalization, came with the horrific incident of the September 11 suicide attacks upon the United States in New York City and Washington, D.C. The war on terrorism that followed the attacks in Afghanistan and later in Iraq, disrupted the postcolonial ideals of globalization based on equality of the “other.” As Spivak explains, “The war is part of an alibi every imperialism has given itself, a civilizing mission carried to the extreme, as it always must be”. (Spivak, 2004, p. 82) This is further supported by...
Akbar S. Ahmed, “Ideas and practice of multicultural harmony, eclecticism and juxtaposition which were at the heart of what commentators called postmodernism were halted in their tracks on September 11 2001.” (Ahmed, 2004, p. i)

On September 11, no one could miss the symbolism of attack on the heart of the financial center of the western world. Nor could one miss the symbolism of the strike on the Pentagon, the heart of military might of America. But something has also been struck; postmodernism lay buried in the rubble on that fateful day (Ahmed, 2004, p. i).

It seems contemporary art was born out of despair. Postmodernism was failed once by science and its false promises but contemporaneity was failed twice. That gave it more bitter taste of morbidity than any form of art known before. Postcolonial writers like Homi Bhabha described the contemporary art situation as such:

“The 80’s inaugurated a dream of difference which is now being haunted by horror and doubt: abhorrence of the ‘deterritorialized flows’ of global terror networks; doubts about feasibility of global politics with the increase in ‘homeland’ security and international surveillance; doubts about preemptive strikes; doubts about war; doubts about our rights and responsibilities for the world and ourselves. What happened to the dream?” (Bhabha, 2003, p. 76)

If we look at the state of contemporary art, we could easily find works that are obsessed with mortality and despair – the kind of art that these contemporary artists made of human bodies, hair teased into patterns to form Chinese characters, or woven into rug, or plucked from the artist’s body to be inserted into diminutive waxwork rendition of the corpse of the artist’s father; blood let drip from self-inflected wounds onto canvas, or made into self-portraits; or mark making by ejaculating over drawings or even crucifixes and even a baby’s corpse cooked and apparently eaten (Stallabrass, 2004, p. 1).

If we examine the works of contemporary artists we find the repetition of the same morbid themes over and over again with almost an obsession with the transience of human life. The most acclaimed work by Damien Hirst, “For The Love of God” (2007) (Figure 1) was made from a skull studded with diamonds. It is a simple remark over the mortality or ephemerality of life with modern consumerism’s promise of eternity through the well-known advertisement tagline “Diamonds are forever.” (Smith, 2009). The recent winner of Sharjah Biennale 2011, the site specific installation by Imran Qureshi, an important contemporary artist from Pakistan, titled “Blessing Upon the Land of My Love” (2011) (Figure 2) described a scene of suicide bombing in a mosque as witnessed by the artist. It is a classic example of the sublimity of the original trauma. Rizvi explains, “The installation depicts the bloody aftermath of bombing, its eerie quietness evoking a spine chilling scene. The viewer is compelled to re-enact the drama that has just taken place: a crowd of people is milling about, or praying in the courtyard of a mosque, when a suicide bomber strikes, leaving in his or her wake a ground soaked in blood.” (Rizvi, 2011) Another example would be Rashid Rana’s acclaimed digital photomontage “The Red Carpet” (2007) (Figure 3). Rashid Rana produces “Red carpet” rugs that looked first like the familiar icons of Eastern craft and beauty revealed on a closer look the artist’s own photographs of animal blood and gore in a Lahore slaughterhouse” (Lydon, 2011). The same theme also occurs in contemporary art works around the world; take another example of the conceptual art works from Araya Rasdjarnrearnsook an artist from Thailand, whose video installations captured the practice of volunteers reciting scriptures or poetry in morgues over the corpses of random strangers who did not get formal burial rights.

Figure 1. Damien Hirst, “For the Love of God” (2007), Platinum, diamond, human teeth.
Source: http://www.damienhirst.com/for-the-love-of-god
4. The Mayan Myth

In this atmosphere of a world obsessed with highly justifiable but extremely disturbing morbid and apocalyptic imaginaries, nothing could be more welcomed than the hype about the Maya myth predicting an apocalypse on the eve of 21st December 2012 (21/12/2012). This myth has inspired a few books and some Hollywood flicks with an epic amount of box office success such as the film “2012” directed and co-written by Roland Emmerich. Maya is a civilization dating back to 500BC to 325 AD. According to some researchers, it was located to the north of Tabasco and South of Veracruz, present day Mexico. According to some loose interpretations of the cryptic calendar, the world was supposed to end on the eve the 21st day of the 12th month of the year 2012.

5. 12: A Group Exhibition in Anticipation of the 2012 Apocalypse

Though in Malaysian art, the imageries of morbidity are still quite limited in the artistic production of local artists, an interesting exhibition was organized in which the premise of such morbidity became the subject of interest among the participants. In anticipation to the forth coming apocalypse an art exhibition was organized in The Warehouse at 212, Beach Street in Georgetown, Penang. The participants were 12 artists both Malaysians and non-Malaysians. In the exhibition, each artist through his/her work contributed to what the end of the world meant to him/her. In this discussion, we will only examine the works of four artists who have participated in the exhibition that are aligned with the approach of morbid imageries, an overwhelming trend among international contemporary artists.
6. Chee Eng Hong

As one entreated the display area the first art piece that caught the eye was a series of five paintings/installations by the artist, a media art enthusiast, Chee Eng Hong, entitled “Pang Sai Pun Boh Eng” (2012) (Figure 4). One of the works contained two identical paintings -- one monochromatic and the other in blue hues, with the monochromatic crouching figure overlapping the other work in blue hues. The monochromatic work depicted the posterior of a nude crouching male with cell phone in his hand fidgeting with the numbers on his phone. Under him was his excrement made from plastic cast bought from the souvenir shops around Kek Lok Si Temple. On the opposite wall, two paintings were displayed, one of a chicken and another one of a goat, which led the eyes towards a mirror on the floor in the middle. This mirror reflected the words written on the ceiling “AYAM”, meaning “chicken” in Malay language, but when one read the words in the reflection it spelled “MAYA”. The whole concept of the paintings was based solely on the local Chinese culture, illustrating a universal theme of modern day society’s fixation with money. The nude crouching male was depicted entering from one year to another, obsessed with numbers (on his mobile phone) as a metaphor for wealth. According to the artist's own words “Pang Sai Pun Boh Eng” means “too busy to shit” while in Chinese culture human excrement is believed to bring good luck. The two paintings on the opposite wall were a clever twist of the words from Malay language and English pronunciation, ayam (chicken), kambing (goat) which was explained by the artist, that if one writes ayam backwards it spells “maya” and the pronunciation of “kambing” is more like “coming” in English language resulting in the sound of “Maya coming”. So if we were to read this work it basically meant, that the man is too busy finding ways to make his fortune in the capital obsessed society, unaware that his luck actually lays under him and behind him is the apocalypse, which he is also unaware of.

Although very carefully thought out, the art work depended too much on explanatory baggage to be understood. It surely was a clever blend of regional or local imagery and a universal theme. It was classic attack on the shallowness of present times which has reduced human beings to money making obsessive men unaware of their surroundings and their blessings. It also pointed at the apocalypse that we are creating on earth that we are totally unaware of.

Figure 4. Chee Eng Hong, “Pang Sai Pun Boh Eng” (2012), Painting installation, mix medium.

7. Low Chee Peng

Self-taught and one of the most senior artists in the group was the seriously playful sculptor Low Chee Peng with his thought provoking installation series of three sculptures. The sculpture “Rest in Peace” (2012) (Figure 5) depicted a child with physical features that characterized many Asians, chiseled in white marble, lying inside a metal coffin with bronze bullets scattered around him. The metal coffin was raised from the ground by a mound of bricks. The infant carved out of white marble signified life and the bullets death. It was a brilliant commentary on the race of arms in nations on the pretext of saving lives but is actually used for destruction of human race, hence life and death at the same place.
Figure 5. Low Chee Peng, “Rest in Peace” (2012), Sculpture installation, mix medium.

Figure 6. Low Chee Peng, “I Hate Mushrooms” (2012), Sculpture installation, mix medium.

There was a repetition of the infant carved in marble in Low Chee Peng’s “I Hate Mushrooms” (2012) (Figure 6). It was a clever play of words to signify a hair raising phenomena of the nuclear arm race. The marbled infant held a black mushroom with white marble dust scattered around him. The shadow of the child was hand drawn on the marble dust forming the image of the famous art work titled “The Scream” (1893) by Edvard Munch. Many mushroom like growths proliferated around the standing marbled infant. The work infused two phenomena- the black mushroom clouds that are formed by nuclear bombs and children’s inherent dislike for vegetables hence the “I Hate Mushroom”. The repetition of the sculpture of a child, used as a metaphor for life also showed the artist’s concern over the future of the human race being a father of a toddler himself.

The third and last installation titled “The Last tree” (2012) (Figure 7) consisted of the same imagery of a white marble sculpture of an infant placed inverted in between a barren tree trunk with all its leaves shredded to the ground. The sculpture/installation was a profound criticism on the global abuse and rape of the natural resources but by inserting the human form in between the tree trunk, the artist ingeniously unified environment and human life in the same bracket, interdependent on each other, implying that the death of the environment is the death of the human race as well.

Figure 7. Low Chee Peng, “The Last Tree” (2012), Sculpture installation, mix medium
8. Louise Low

There were two art works by the artist Louise Low, a site specific mosaic on the front wall of the 200 year old heritage building entitled “Are You Coming?” (2012) (Figure 8) and an installation sculpture on the right entitled “Coding Soon” (2012) (Figure 9). In her own words the glass mosaic on the wall signified the shattered world, the image of the Christ on the floor symbolized the first coming 20 centuries ago, which was mocked, full of spite and accused. Whereas the second image projected on the glass was resurrected and ruling. Although the site specific painting installation had a Christian theme based on the assumption that Christ would rise again on dooms day, there was an unconscious inherent disbelief in the title which is so becoming of our contemporary times -- “Are you coming?” -- the statement seemed more of an accusation rather than a question.

The second work by the artist commented on the theme of a society obsessed with consumerism. It consisted of 9 rectangular glasses about 6 x 8 inches installed on the wall and if one looked through it from a certain angle one would see a silhouette of a human figure superimposed by bar code commonly used for consumer products, hence the title “Coding Soon” (Figure 9). As every saleable product has a code, this work suggests that it would also happen or has happened to humans as well as we lived in a world where everything is a saleable commodity, explained by Andreas Huyssen as “The invasion of capitalist technological instrumentality in the fabric of everyday life even the human body.” (Huyssen, 1986, p. 11).

![Figure 8. Louise Low, “Are You Coming?” (2012), Mosaics on the wall.](image)

![Figure 9. Louise Low, “Coding Soon” (2012), Stencils on glasses.](image)

9. Tan Kai Sheun

An installation artwork by artist Tan Kai Sheun entitled “The Fragility of the Physical” (2012) (Figure 10) consisted of clusters of human figurines casted in resin suspended in a group from the ceiling. Although the posture of the figurine seemed like a person hanging himself, and the cluster of resin casted figurines seemed at first glance, a mass suicide
scene, the artist denied such intentions. Under the installation of hanging figurines lay shattered pieces of broken glass from a cast. In the words of the artist himself, the use of the delicate and brittle material for the particular art peace was the prime concept behind the sculpture, as the reminder of the fragility of human life. Hence strong messages towards the futility of elaborate lifestyles and our obsession with materialism in the current society.

On the left, after the entrance door, there was another art work by the artist, a site specific painting in ink wash, entitled “Am I Not Invisible?” (2012) (Figure 11). A figure of a boy, painted on the wall with minimal use of color, rendering the painting almost transparent in nature, using the cracks and crevasses to create a three dimensional effect. The feet of the figure protruded out in shoes in a high relief. The image of the boy painted on the wall with a mischievous smile frozen on his face reminded the viewers of animal paintings from caves of Lascaux and Altamira. As if the boy was frozen in time, mummified, or fossilized by a sudden apocalypse. The torn down surface of the wall gave the figure a look of trauma or great agony as if someone was caught in a middle of a catastrophe at an awkward moment, unable to comprehend the situation. The transparency of the image invoked in the audience, the sense of isolation and invisibility that most of us experience in the present society obsessed with profits, where individual casualty is just a collateral damage.

Figure 10. Tan Kai Sheun, “Fragility of Physical” (2012), Resin cast

Figure 11. Tan Kai Sheun, “Am I Not Invisible?” (2012) ink wash, mix medium.

10. Conclusion

The venue of the exhibition, the general theme of the art works displayed and the atmosphere of the exhibition area, a crumbling-down warehouse declared as a heritage building, were in sync with the trend of displaying contemporary art in industrial places and warehouses as opposed to the white cube museum of modern art which promised immortality of art transcending the transience of life. The rain storm added rigor to the whole atmosphere superimposing the apocalyptic theme, with rain water leaking through the ceiling; loud music and free beers created an atmosphere of acceptance and
total submission to the coming apocalypse, as if the images and art work around us were a kind of an account of our actions resulting in the punishment or retribution that was coming. As if the whole Apocalypse was just an extended expression or consequence of our acts displayed around us also known as “Nama-e-amal” in Arabic meaning the record of the deeds of an individual or a collective society according to which they will be judged in the afterlife. The arrival of the apocalypse just seemed a logical result of what humanity is doing to itself, raping of the natural resources resulting in violent climatic changes, wars, genocides, reduction of the human life to just a small piece of machinery in the current capitalist society. The Apocalypse almost seemed like a mutually curated or orchestrated event by humanity collectively, just like a self-inflicted bleeding wound of an artist in a performance.

One could not help but observe the recurrent theme in the artworks displayed, that is critique of the ruthless consumer capitalist society, where everything is for sale and profit is the sole intend. Every artist through an individualistic style of expression depicted through his or her art work how human beings have lost their individuality and visibility in the world to the obsession of accumulating wealth by the corporate world. Human existence seems to be of a minor value and the paramount concern in modern societies remains limited to generating money whether it is through the plunder of natural resources or manufacturing and marketing of lethal weaponry fueling wars and genocides in the world thus creating an inevitable apocalypse on earth. The audience could witness in the art works, the repeated images of isolation, misery, futility and fragility of life of ordinary individuals in the mechanical, capital fundamentalist world.

The exhibition made one speculate if the obsession with mortality of life is a response to the sudden absence of religious narratives in our modern money oriented societies. If the whole hype of the inevitability of death and universal extinction is humanity’s effort of dealing with individual mortality in the absence of religious alternatives based on continuation of life after death through the concepts of heaven and hell. Extinction of an individual is always a death of a whole universe but the particular approach that humanity is in an inevitable apocalypse collectively makes it more bearable on an individual level and allow him/her to deal with the idea of his/her own mortality. Or has the mortality and transience of life become a valuable commodity for consumerism? If the media is capitalizing on the ephemerality and on life’s transience, is art also a tool for the recent media’s hype about selling temporality of life? Has art become another consumer friendly production and the obsession with mortality in contemporary art just a commercial hype, in sync with the same capitalist consumer society it criticizes? Selling what sells: nothing more nothing less. Is contemporaneity yet another hypocritical narrative in making, destined to rejection?

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Fiscal Policies as a Main Pillar of Macroeconomic Policies and Their Impact on Economic Development. Study Model – Tax Administration of Kosovo (TAK)

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Abstract

In economic development of every country, incomes from different taxes play a major role. So, fiscal policies shows that they can support economic development a lot, even in transitions countries. However, the slowdown in economic growth in most countries of the region as well as in the euro area has influenced the economy of Kosovo to slow the pace of growth compared with the previous year. External sector is regarded as the most influential factor in slowing economic growth as a result of the decline in exports, the marked fall of foreign direct investment as well as easy to fall recorded deliveries from immigrants. Experience from past financial crises, suggests that lasting recovery requires a review of the policies and procedures of fiscal policy, also our country in general need to come out with a clear view of what kind of coordination device they want to “invent” in order to increase incomes from different taxes and in particular to find priorities in order to invest on those sectors. On this paper we will focus on the impact that good fiscal policies have on promoting economic development and also on sustainable budget.

Keywords: Fiscal Policy, macroeconomic policies, economic development, Tax Administration of Kosovo, taxes, etc.

1. Abbreviations and Acronyms

- CEFTA: Central European Free Trade Agreement
- CB: Commercial Banks
- EU: European Union
- FE: Fiscal Equipment
- FP: Fiscal Policy
- GDP: Gross Domestic product
- GOVT: Government
2. Introduction

Macroeconomic is a part of economic science that studies global economic phenomenon, aggregation of individual behavior, on an international or national level or a sector of the economy.

It seeks to explain the relationship between various macroeconomic indicators, such as gross national income, balance of payments, growth, investments, consumption, unemployment rate, inflation, etc. Macroeconomic was developed based on the concepts elaborated by J.M.Keynes (1883-1946) through his book “General Theory of Employment, Interest and Currency”

Relying on a complex modeling and very well elaborated, today a lot of states, international institutions and private organization are using macroeconomic so much, to predict evolution of different variables in function of transformations of economic and political environment. On the contrary, microeconomics focuses on the factors that influence decisions of economic agents in individual level (businesses, household).

Macroeconomics is the theoretical approach that studies economy through relations that exist between major economic aggregates, such as incomes, investments, consumption, unemployment rate, inflation, and as it is, it constitutes the main tool of economic policies analysis of the states or international organizations.

So considering the relationship between the major economic aggregates, macroeconomics seeks to explain these reports and predicts their evolutions against changes of conditions, as in case of a shock (i.e. increasing of oil price) or implementation of new economic policy. Contrary to microeconomics, that justifies the partial equilibrium, macroeconomics always justifies the general equilibrium of economy.

Macroeconomists thought that there could never be a great depression before 1930 and they were convinced that a market-driven economy was stable and the Government intervention was unnecessary (Adam Smith 1723 – 1790).

But a market-driven economy is inherently unstable\(^1\) and on this view the inherent instability of the marketplace required Government intervention.

3. Macroeconomic Policy Objectives

Generally, the objectives of macroeconomic policies are to maximize the amount of national income, providing economic growth to increase the benefits and standards of living of businesses and individuals in the economy. There are also many secondary objectives which are held to lead to the maximization of income over the long run. While there are variations between the objectives of different national and international entities, must follow the ones detailed below:

1. **Sustainability** – that means the rate of growth which allows an increase in living standards without excessive structural and environmental difficulties.
2. **Full employment** – means that everyone from those who are able and have a good will to have a job can get one, given that there will be a certain amount of frictional, seasonal and structural unemployment (referred to as the natural rate of unemployment).
3. **Price stability** – this mean that when prices remains stable, and there is not a rapid inflation or deflation. Price stability is not necessarily the same as zero inflation, but instead steady levels of low-moderate inflation is often regarded as ideal. It is worth noting that prices of some goods and services often fall as a result of productivity improvements during periods of inflation. However, inflation is a good measure of 'price stability'. Zero inflation is often undesirable in an economy. ("Internal Balance" is used to describe a level of economic activity that results in full employment without inflation.)

\(^{1}\) John Maynard Keynes 1885 – 1942 developed an alternate view of the macro economy through which means the intervention of Government on the economy.
4. **Payment Balance/External Balance** – means the equilibrium in the balance of payments without the use of artificial constraints. That is, exports roughly equal to imports over the long run.

5. **Equitable distribution of income and wealth** - a fair share of the national incomes, more equitable than would be in the case of an entirely free market.

6. **Increasing Productivity** - more output per unit of labor per hour. Also, it could also be described as output per unit of factor inputs per hour.

### 4. The Role Of State In The Economy

On each modern economy the state has its undisputed role into the economic activity and sometimes those repeated crisis won’t pass without state intervention!

There are different important factors that justifying the participation of the state on economic activity, like:

- Very often market shows no perfection on functioning itself and that brings in a situation that it can not pass out without intervention of the state. Economic crisis dictate clearly the necessary of the state intervention.
- The state also undertakes offering for all citizens with goods and services, which are: education, medicine services, water supply, infrastructure, that private sector can’t offer alone.
- The state intervenes on the market to ensure stable economic growth, price stability and increasing employment. State effects on the way of private sector functioning, through: a) establishment of market regulatory system in order to protect consumers, workers, environment behaviour and also avoids uncompetitive practices, b) taxes, credit system that apply to businesses and households, c) giving the rights of use and development of different national wealth.

From the points above, the role of the states on economic development depends on how those states are able to make good policies and policies through which all possible sectors will functions and also the state itself will function.

So, it is worthy to emphasize that if good macroeconomic policies were created, those will lead to efficient functioning of economy and from this view we can say that basic tasks of each state in relation to the economy is creation of good policies in order to have an effective and prosperity of the economy.

In function of stable economic growth followed by decrease of unemployment, balance of payments, keeping of inflation in normal rates, increasing of investments, are different kind of policies, like: fiscal policies, monetary policies, income policies, policy of foreign economic relations, but on this paper I will focus more on fiscal policies as a main part of macroeconomic policies on economic development and also on elaborating of Tax Administration of Kosovo, which is as a main institution that administer taxes and support Ministry of Finance on realizing of it’s objectives.

### 5. Fiscal Policy

Fiscal policy is one of the macroeconomic policies, that is considered with high importance and that plays a major role in economic development and we can hear very often that fiscal policy is an integral part of modern economic policy.

Fiscal policies includes the concerns in use of Government revenue collection (taxation) and spendings to influence the economic activity\(^2\).

There are two important instruments of FP: changes in Government expenditures (spendings) and also of the taxation system in different sectors and these changes absolutely may have affect/impact on macroeconomic variables, like: Aggregate Demand, distribution of incomes, resource allocation model within Govt. sector, but also in long term period it might affect aggregate supply.

Depends on economic situations, there are different kind of fiscal policies attitude:

- When an economy is in equilibrium, usually the state undertakes **Neutral Fiscal Policy**, that means the total Govt. Spendings are covered from taxes revenue and in general the budget outcome has neutral effect on economic activity.
- When Govt. Spendings exceeds tax revenues then state apply **Expansionary Fiscal Policy** and usually it is undertaken when the economy is in recession and of course on that case the state will face off with budget deficit,

When the Govt. spending is lower than tax revenues, the state applies **Contractionary Fiscal Policy** and usually it is undertaken when the state wants to pay the Government debt and in cases when the Govt. debt are in high level.

Depends on business cycle, Govt should also react through certain active policies. When an economy suffers from recession and when recovery is delayed for a long time and also unemployment is high, the Govt should deficit spending and during the expansion or the economic prosperity times the suppression of inflation, should push the Govt to react through increasing taxes or cutting their expenditures. Such kind of policies that acted against the flow of business cycle, is called Countercyclical Fiscal Policies.

Below, through diagrams are presented the reaction of FP in the short run based on Keynes model.

**Diagram 1. Keynesian Fiscal Policy in the Short Run**

![Diagram A](image1.png)

**Fig. A.** An increase in Government increase in income.

![Diagram B](image2.png)

**Fig. B.** An increase in taxes leads to spending leads to an a decrease in income.

Taxes and spending are both parts of Fiscal Policy, that the Govt. needs to use for reactions:

- Taxes called every payment which are obligatory by law and which are made from either businesses and private individuals in favor of the state. These payments should be done based on their incomes, wealth and also on goods and services that they benefit. So each person is obliged by law to pay taxes and other contributions.

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3 Keynes, John Maynard (1924) -“The Theory of Money and the Foreign Exchanges”, A Tract on Monetary Reform.

4 [http://www.economicsconcepts.com/What_is_fiscal_policy.htm](http://www.economicsconcepts.com/What_is_fiscal_policy.htm)

5 Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo, Article 119
Normally taxes are 90% of all the state revenue, but unfortunately in Kosovo this relation doesn’t exist. The Kosovo Budget, still is filled mainly from custom revenues and incomes from taxes become after.

- Spendings or expenditures are all Govt. investments and consumption but there aren’t included transfer payments, made by the state.

5.1 Tax administration of Kosovo

TAK was established on 17 of January 2000 under the responsibilities and administration of UNMIK and also with foreign general director. Gradually the competences and responsibility has been transferred to the domestics and on 18 of February 2003 TAK all the responsibilities was transferred to the MFE and from that time TAK had a domestic general director.

Tax Administration of Kosovo is the only Authority, under the responsibility of Ministry of Finance and Economy that administers taxes, brings general administrative rules that are obliged to be implemented by either, TAK and Taxpayer.

MFE will have exclusive role in creating of income model and fiscal policy for the state and TAK will continue to support MFE on doing of those job, but administration of taxes on operational view/perspective will be the exclusive responsibility of TAK and out of MFE control, with certain exceptions which are:

- Involvement in the appointment of the General Director of ATK, and
- Approval and publication of the interest rates for arrears of payments and delayed refunds.

TAK will be responsible for implementing of law over the taxes which are applicable in Kosovo, like:

- Person Income Tax,
- Corporate Income Tax,
- Value Added Tax,
- Profit tax,
- Presumptive tax,
- Payments for pensional contributions which administers KSPT, and
- Also for all others taxes and contributions that MFE requires.

5.1.1 Mission of TAK is:

- Increasing in maximum the voluntary compliance, which means declaration and payment of tax liability by the taxpayer, observing the law provision related to the amount of tax payable and respect the deadline of payment of that amount, without intervention of TAK.
- Offering professional, transparent and effective services towards the taxpayer community, making clear for their liabilities about tax payments.
- To ensure and enforcement the implementation of tax laws in order to collect the revenues for Kosovo Budget in an efficient way and reducing costs.

5.1.2 Values and vision of TAK are6:

- Integrity and sincerity is the basic issue of TAK, that ensure equal treatments towards taxpayers and right implementations of laws,
- Professionality is the success key of mission fulfillment, aiming to continuous improvements toward higher standards.
- Transparence will be important in order to build strong relationship of trust between TAK and taxpayers.
- Respect towards taxpayers is showed through the contacts between two parts, when the TAK accept the rights of taxpayers and TAK liabilities.
- Flexibility means the basic issues for new developments in TAK.

State in the implementation of tax policy should be based on certain principles through which should achieve it’s goals:

- Financial and political principles: here are included principles of adequacy and suitability.

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6 http://www.atk-ks.org/per-ne/?lang=en
● Economic and political principles: that has to do with choosing the source of taxes and tax types,
● Social and political principles: that involves meaning that taxes should be generalised and equal for all taxpayers without any distinguish.
● Technical/Administrative principles: that means determination of taxes then suitability of tax payments and collection of taxes with less expenses.

6. Macroeconomic View

Macroeconomic view means and shows all the indicators of the entire economy.

As it is described in other countries, also MFE describes different sectors divided, as a part of macroeconomic view, like below:

6.1 Real Sector

Where is stated the growth of economy, expressed from the annual growth of GDP and also the Consumer Price Index. From the statistics derived from MFE, it is estimated that domestic economy has a rate of growth during 2012 from 2.4%, on contrary with the year 2011 that the economic growth was 4.5%, while MFE has the first prediction for a growth of 3.7% for the year 2013, where the main participant on that growth will be increasing of general consumption, that will contribute with a scale of 2.3%. After that, private investment will contribute with the scale of approximately 1% and public investments with 0.8%. Meanwhile the main concern is that exports won't be the main contributors on that growth, the rate of which is expected to be 0.6%, while imports expected to have a negative impact on economic growth with approximately the scale of 1%.

Meantime, during this quarter (2013) general prices measured by CPI recorded an increase, approximately 2.9% and based on the supplementary data that MFE has, it is expected that prices for the year 2013 will be an increase from 1.7% compared with the year 2012.

6.2 External Sector

When we are talking about the external sector, however we do not enjoy the fact that should mention the data or figures about this.

Because Kosovo have a huge difference between imports and exports and the trade balance is not in equilibrium, because of the high level of imports, these conditions leads to an unstable situation and also it is a crucial issue on dependence of our state to those with which we do business.

Because of the high level of imports of all kind of products, it is understood that Kosovo doesn't control the changes on prices.

Also the slowing of growth on EU countries continues due to the congestion into the foreign environments (downward fluctuations in the demand for export), and the effects of tight fiscal policies undertaken by states which are facing with budget deficits.

Evolutions in EU, influenced also economic situation in Kosovo. The downwards trend in exports has affected the trade balance to continue being deteriorated in line with continuing on increasing of imports, which on the first semester of 2012 recorded growth in order to respond to the demand of domestic consumption.

Imports continue the growth trend, that on first semester of 2012 recorded nominal value from 1.122 bil. Euro, with a growth from 3% compared to previous year 2011, and that increased the trade deficit on amount of 988 mil. Euro from the 928 mil. Euro as it was.

Exports on other hand, have a low contribution to GDP and during the period of 2009-2014 increased on average 41%.

The destination places of exports were mainly EU countries (Italy 70%, following with Germany, etc.) and places which are members of CEFTA.

7 http://esk.rks-Govt.net/ENG/publikimet/cat_view/13-national-account
9 The Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA) is a trade agreement between non-EU countries in Central and South-Eastern Europe.
6.3 Financial Sector

Financial sector of Kosovo continue to maintain stable, sustainable and profitable. Gross loans continue to be the main way of financing to the economy, which recorded growth from 9% on first semester of the year 2012, from 1.624 bil. Euro, on first half of 2011 to 1.776 bil. Euro on first half of 2012. Also deposits recorded growth but with slow rhythm as well as loans, and in first semester of 2012 the growth was from 8%, which means from 1.957 bil. Euro (first sem. 2011) to 2.108 bil. Euro (first sem. 2012)\(^\text{10}\).

6.4 Fiscal Sector

Above we sow different data for the different sectors as a part of macroeconomic view. On this paper the focus of studying is fiscal policies as a special part of macroeconomic policies, and when the word is to Kosovo fiscal policy I should stress more the fact that the fiscal policy is the only instrument/tool through which Kosovo Government use to ensure macroeconomic stability and here also should be mentioned that CBK doesn’t have the right to issue/print money, and because of that it can’t also use monetary policy for intervention on economy and on this point it is so important to have a special attention about fiscal policy and using of it and in the same time it is one of the important priorities for policy makers.

As I mention above, MFE has the right to establish state policies and TAK is the only authorized institution under the responsibilities of the MFE that administers taxes. Considering that the only instrument of economic policies in Kosovo is fiscal policy, on this case MFE tendencies always was on creating a simple tax system with aims of expanding types of taxes, which will support the private sector. Also the biggest challenge of Kosovo Govt. supposed to be the fact that the main participant on budget revenues are taxes from borders or as it is called „custom incomes”.

So, in the end of 2012 incomes from taxes recorded the amount of 283.9 mil. Euro, which means it was a growth from 9% (or 22.8 mil. Euro) compared with the previous year. While the amount of pension contributions for 2012 was 113.1 mil. Euro.

Whereas, the participation of different types of taxes in total incomes wasn’t in the same amounts. Main contribution to the total incomes has given VAT (with 45.78%), followed by Tax on Corporate Income (22.08%), and after were Tax Withheld (21.17%), Tax on Individual Businesses (9.13%), withholdings tax on interest, ownership rights, rent, winnings in the lottery and games of chance and of the non-resident (0.57%), Presumptive Tax (0.14%), Tax on Profit (0.04%), other taxes (1.09%).

\begin{tabular}{|l|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
 \hline
 Tax type & Incomes per year & & & & & & \\
 \hline
 Presumptive tax & 283,649.00 & 886,983.00 & 405,364.00 & 0.14% & 629,154.00 & 64.00% & 47.00% \\
 Tax on profit & 582,999.00 & 1,792,756.00 & 116,197.00 & 0.04% & 662,050.00 & 18.00% & 6.00% \\
 Vat & 95,007,780.00 & 121,437,993.00 & 129,960,077.00 & 45.78% & 131,000,000.00 & 99.00% & 107.00% \\
 Tax on wages withholding & 44,208,930.00 & 55,668,304.00 & 60,089,290.00 & 21.17% & 48,000,000.00 & 125.00% & 108.00% \\
 Tax on individual businesses & 25,466,740.00 & 23,517,097.00 & 25,916,434.00 & 9.13% & 36,000,000.00 & 72.00% & 110.00% \\
 Tax withheld on interest, rent… & 2,932,560.00 & 1,375,507.00 & 1,630,724.00 & 0.57% & 3,500,000.00 & 47.00% & 119.00% \\
 Tax on corporate income & 51,945,800 & 54,564,163 & 62,680,757 & 22.08% & 68,008,796.00 & 92.00% & 115.00% \\
 Other taxes & 732,795 & 1,898,361 & 3,100,088 & 1.09% & 0.00 & 0.00% & 163.00% \\
 \hline
 Total & 221,161,253.00 & 261,123,164.00 & 283,898,932.00 & 100.00% & 287,800,000.00 & 99.00% & 109.00% \\
 \hline
\end{tabular}

\textbf{Source: Tax Administration of Kosovo: Annual Working Report - 2012}

\(^{10}\)http://www.bqk-kos.org/?cid=2,134
As it is mentioned above VAT is the main contributor to the total incomes with 43%.

Because of the sensitivity of fiscal policy, there have been few intervention by the RKS Govt. in changing of tax rates.

During the year 2012 MFE seeks for the possibilities of FP review, in order to offer more favorable environment for businesses and citizens of RKS in general, so MFE proposed amendment of law no. 03-L-146 for:

- VAT: i.e. exempt from VAT paying of hospital care, medical care, private universities, electronic and print media,
- Excise tax rate: for more contribution towards protecting the environment, improving traffic safety and increased efficiency in the use of electricity, MFE has proposed that the excise rate applied in bag (3:00 euro per kg), roasted simple electricity (0.3 euro per piece) and old tires (5:00 euro per piece),
- tax on personal income: In order to encourage small enterprises to shift from presumptive tax at the standard tax system, MFE increased the tax rate from 5% to 9% for business activities with annual gross income up to fifty thousand (50,000 euro) which engages the professional activities, services, crafts, entertainment, etc.
- Custom tax: Through this tends to create a more favorable environment for business development, providing customs exemptions on goods used as raw material,
- Semi products, packaging, machinery which serve for production including here also production lines.
- Also have been other changes in administrative part, as: creating facilities and supporting businesses through simplified procedures in TAK and Custom, that from nine documents that was required for clearance of goods now require only four documents. MFE in order to protect environment put an ecological tax on vehicles and for the vehicles weighed until 3.5t. it cost 10 euro and for those over 3.5t. it cost 30 euro.

Except these changes, RKS also signed agreement with Turkey for avoiding of double taxation and prevention of fiscal evasion, and also signed different other agreement with Macedonia, Albania, Germany, UK, Holland, Austria, France, Belgium.

Through these changes on FP, the Govt. of RKS expects to have a reduction in local production costs, stimulation of private investment both domestic and foreign, as well as to increase competitiveness between them.

Also there has been increasing in performance of TAK in fulfilling the tasks, because of the changes and due to raising awareness of the taxpayers.

- Collection of debts through enforced collection has been increased on 2012 to 37 mil. Euro from the 32.05 mil. Euro as it realized on 2011, expressed on % it was a growth from 15.4%.
- Refunds\textsuperscript{11} and returns are reviewed for 3288 taxpayers, and were approved 32.7 mil. Euro, and compared the reviewing of refunds with annual predicted projection from 32.5 mil. Euro, approved refunds have been realized in amount of 32.7 mil. Euro or 0.6% more.
- Fiscalization process doesn't went so good. Until now 16885 businesses are fiscalized with a number of 20784 fiscal equipments, and 10714 fines are issued by the tax inspectors, which doesn't has any impact to the businesses to get equipped with FE.

\textsuperscript{11}Refund is the return of funds that TAK pays in the name of businesses with the request of businesses when they have done payments before (like VAT, etc.).
7. Conclusions

This paper describes the contribution that macroeconomic policy can give to promote a rebalancing of growth and in particular the contribution of fiscal policies on economic development. As it is mentioned above Kosovo doesn’t find still a solution to make changes in macroeconomic policies in order to increase the incomes from taxes and decrease the those from custom (which are the main incomes of the state).

So, a comprehensive review of the objectives and instruments of macroeconomic policy is needed and in particular of fiscal policies, in order to learn from past experience and reform the policy in a constructive way.

First of all, fiscal policies should be in harmonize with the level of development of the country, it means if the country is in developing stage (like our country) fiscal policies should not be so contractionary but it should be expansive, and also it should be selective depends on the sector with more power to influence the economy.

From these view the main points as conclusions are as below:

- A clearer policy for rural areas is required. Rural areas pose a particular challenge for Kosovo. In one hand it is necessary for increasing the production of goods and on other hand it is also crucial to substitute the domestic product that will be produced with those from imports and that will be the only way for reducing of imports and to put in equilibrium the balance trade, which actualy is in a great disproportion. The Govt can use the fiscal policy by cutting taxes for agricultural machinery, raw materials, over sales of agricultural products, followed by subsidies for farmers in order to encourage agricultural production, doing of direct payments for farmers, protect the prices of agricultural products through increasing the custom taxes for imports.

- The key focus of tax policy reforms is to be growth-friendly, while addressing not only short-term but also longer-term challenges (such as using of working capital that Kosovo has, etc.) to sustainable public finances.

- Even that a consider number of businesses actually bought fiscal equipment’s, it is crucial to continue with faster rhythm equipping also the rest of businesses, because only a business with FE ensure evidence of all transactions and reducing fiscal evasion.

- Also Kosovo Govt can do a lot on improvement of investment environment: In addition, there is significant potential to invest in improving the investment climate to encourage private investment and foreign investments. Although some measures to improve climate do not necessarily require significant expenditure, e.g., improvements in Governance, investor protection, legal rights, taxation and regulation, including improving infrastructure, investment in education and training to raise skill levels, enforcement of legal protections.

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Alternative Dispute Resolution and the Albanian Legal Reality

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Abstract

Desire and ability to mediate and to solve conflicts through conciliation is a national asset for any country. Every human society shows the development stage of its citizenry inter alia through the self-regulatory mechanisms of disputes arising within its members. History has shown that even within Albanian society have been existed such mechanisms which have regulated coexistence for centuries. Further more, the Albanian tradition reminds us that the institution of dispute settlement through conciliation is deeply rooted in our lives and in our good habits. In terms of economic development, it is time that this tradition of extrajudicial settlement of disputes to be provided on professional level, affecting more the legal aspects. The state court, which is traditionally known as the place where all conflicts are resolved, should be seen increasingly as an alternative. Besides its, other important alternatives of conflict resolution should be focused by the law, such as mediation and arbitration. Therefore, this article, through the method of interpretative analysis, aims to present an overview of the Albanian reality of these alternative legal means, trying to highlight the legal framework as well as the judicial practice. It will attempt to clarify the problematic issues, addressed by the domestic law in this area and the necessity for eventual changes. Implementation of contemporary legal instruments in accordance with the international trend, especially focused on the arbitration institute, will certainly offer a good service to the integration process of the Albanian economy.


1.1 The conciliation on disputes resolution.

While the careful drafting of contracts will reduce their frequency, disputes will at times arise. Therefore, it is essential that they be managed and resolved efficiently. In order to do so, parties must be familiar with their dispute resolution options. The emergence of disputes has led naturally to different practices and experiences for their solution. The most common among these alternatives are mediation and conciliation.

Conciliation differs from mediating from the fact that the conciliator is a third person independent from the parties. In a reconciliation process, the conciliator assists the parties to reach a solution to their dispute, so that they both are satisfied by the outcome of the process. A possible definition of conciliation is: the process by which a third party assists the opposing parties to understand their conflict cause and to solve the dispute, resulting from it, on the basis of respect for each other and on the need to focus on opportunities of the future for living and working together. Conciliation means a process, whether referred to by the expression conciliation, mediation or an expression of similar import, whereby parties request a third person or persons ("the conciliator") to assist them in their attempt to reach an amicable settlement of their dispute arising out of or relating to a contractual or other legal relationship. The conciliator does not have the authority to impose upon the parties a solution to the dispute.

The conciliation procedures in Albanian legislation, is regulated by various provision of the Code of Civil Procedure, which recognize the duty of the different instances of judicial system to resolve initially the disputes between the parties through conciliation. For example, the article 25 of the Code of Civil Procedure provides that “it’s the duty of the court to make an effort to reconcile the parties in a dispute”. If the agreement is reached, an official record must be hold by the court, which should be signed by the parties and on this basis the court makes the decision on the issue, which is subject to appeal, in other instances the of the judiciary system.

1 Dispute Resolution for the 21st Century, Wipo Arbitration and Mediation Center; http://www.wipo.int/amc
4 Idem, art.158(b).
What makes the Albanian legal framework special, regarding the conciliation, is that the conciliator role is not exercised by a third party, independent from the public court system, and if this “third party” really exists in practise its role is “invisible”. It is the state court which keeps the record of decision for conciliation and seals the agreement. Meanwhile, referring to the international practices, the dispute resolution through conciliation refers to the intervention of a third person completely independent of the parties and public courts.

It is evident that Albanian law recognizes to the conciliation process a material jurisdiction broader than that of arbitration. Specifically, the conciliation can be used for resolving marital disputes while the arbitration cannot be used in these cases. Due to the extensive use of this instrument, some important international trade organisations have made efforts to harmonize legislation in the field of dispute resolution, in accordance with international trade. It is worth mentioning as illustration, the UNCITRAL Model Law on International Commercial Conciliation, published in 2002.

1.2 The legal reform on disputes resolution by mediation.

In different historical periods in Albania, the mediation of disputes is conducted by various institutions and mainly by: assemblies, elders, the village leader, courts of villages and neighborhoods, religious institutions, social organizations, committees for reconciliation of blood feuds, offices for reconciliation in the field of labor disputes, etc. Institutionalization by law of the mediation process in Albania, after 1997, shows not only the objectives and goals of civil society, but also of the lawmaking political groups in order to identify mediation as an alternative dispute resolution. The law no.10385, dated 24.2.2011 “On mediation in resolving disputes” constitutes a significant step towards a more advanced stage.

Mediation is the attempt to resolve a legal dispute through active participation of a third party (mediator) who wants to find points of contact between the parties in conflict, so they can agree on a fair result. Albanian legislation defines mediation as an “out-of-court” and “independent” activity, exercised in accordance with the law and under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice. This definition coincides with the one presented today at the European Union area.

Mediation is a process of social nature as well as a process of legal nature. This is because any conflict and disagreement carries both social and legal elements. The following analysis will stop at the provisions of the Albanian law on mediation, explaining concepts and expressions used by it.

a. Mediation is an out-of-court activity. This expression means the two legal situations: (1) when mediation is directly chosen by the parties as an alternative, without using any other alternative (litigation, arbitration, etc.), and (2) the situation when the dispute has begun to be resolved by a judicial, administrative or arbitral tribunal and the parties consider to leave it, in order to use the mediation alternative. In this case, the process is suspended until the estimation whether the parties will reach a conciliation agreement or not. This means that, in terms of law, the mediation service is realized with the help of subjects with no judicial authority, which are simply middlemen meeting the requirements of this law.

b. Mediation is an independent activity. The independence of this process implies that mediation is exercised by private entities as natural persons as well as legal person, organized in the form of non-profit or for-profit organizations such as associations, centers, foundations, associations, and others. This alternative process is not carried out by public entities or by the public administration institutions, such as the courts, prosecutors, or...
police authorities. It is part of private initiatives of natural and legal entities to provide mediation services to resolve the dispute with the help of a third person - the mediator.

c. Mediation is exercised under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice. Mediation is a process that after the 90th has found its legal regulation in Albania by special laws, but it's the first time that this activity rises to a higher level regarding its professionalism. This is demonstrated by the fact that this extra activity is already performed under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice. Putting this mechanism in the care of such an authority is due to the law provision that mediation, to some disputes categories, becomes mandatory. This process of ministry control implies the licensing process, the creation of the National Chamber of Mediators, creating a special register of licensed entities, adoption and promulgation of regulations to enable implementation of the law of mediation, etc. This marks an institutional backing and does not constrain the independence of performing mediation service by private entities.

d. The mediator should be a “third person”. So the mediator is someone “outside” parties and the dispute. As such there can be no family ties or familiarity with the parties and any direct or indirect interest on the issue or the result of its solution.

e. The mediator is a “neutral” person. For this the mediator must truly be and also seem to be neutral, fair, equitable and non-biased, impartial, in some respects as towards the parties on the dispute, their interests and the options that the parties submit as alternative resolution of their dispute.

f. Mediation seeks a solution that “does not conflict with the law”. Such a solution will be considered:
- First, a solution which may not be explicitly regulated by any law. So any solution for which the legislation remains silent, but the parties agree, will be considered in accordance with the law and not contrary to it.
- Second, a solution that is regulated by legal permitting provisions, namely the rules that leave parties free to decide by mutual agreement, contrary to what is stipulated in content provision and to arrange according to their will a legal relationship.

The main law principles on the mediation implementation are:
- Mediation takes place “at any time” required by the parties. The term “at any time” means that the conflict can be resolved through mediation even after it is filed in the court, prosecutor, police or in any other decision-maker. Parties may address their dispute to the mediation, regardless of whether the case is being tried in the first instance, courts of appeal or the Supreme Court. “At any time” goes even further, mediation can be applied even after the court decision has become final and it's currently in executing stage.
- Mediation takes place only when the parties with their free will seek and accept the mediation process. The law obligates the judiciary system only to notify the parties for this alternative method and to orient them to mediation.
- Mediation in the civil, commercial, labor and family cases is comprehensive. This means that the parties are open to embrace the mediation alternative, generally in any case, excluding only those disputes, which are on mandatory jurisdiction of another body, as in the case of divorce, which can only be settled through a court decision.

1.2.1 The scope of mediation alternative.

Regarding the scope, the law defines the principles as well as the areas where mediation can be applied. Mediation covers a comprehensive field of conflicts of civil, family, labor and commercial nature as well as some disputes of criminal nature. The only limitation regards the fact that the mediation process is not applicable in the case when at least one of the parties is a public legal person. In cases when the conflict has a contractual or property nature, but derives from an administrative contract, it is not part of the dispute which can be resolved through mediation. Also, in cases of conflict related to labor relations, when the employ is a public entity, the mediation process can not be applied to resolve the cause. In case that conflict arises from non contractual damage and the person who has caused the damage is a public entity, there is no place for mediation application despite the good will of the parties.

Mediation of disputes of property nature. The article 2 of the law on mediation uses the term "property conflict", which implies conflicts on "civil" and "commercial" matters. Under the law, in cases of property conflicts of all kinds, worth over 500 thousand LEK (ALL), the judge or the representative of the institution, that is examining the case, is obliged to

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12 Law no.10385 "On mediation in resolving disputes", art.2(2),(3)
invite the parties to pass to the mediation process, even if their judicial treatment has been commenced\(^{13}\). The term "property conflict" includes:

i. Conflicts of ownership: Disputes arising from the denial or infringement of the right of ownership to the owner; Disputes arising from the denial or infringement of the right of the lawful non-owner possessor.

ii. Contractual civil conflicts (conflicts arising from a breach of contract) and non contractual civil conflicts (conflicts of non-contractual caused damage).

iii. Commercial civil conflicts: Trade nature conflicts; Conflicts of failure of commercial contracts; Conflicts arising from the operation and management of companies.

Conflicts arising from labor relations. Disputes between employers and employees as social partners are integral in labor relations. The labor Code and other laws related to the employment field, provide mediation as an alternative dispute resolution. Referring to the provisions of the Labour Code, mediation is respectively regulated by the provisions of Chapter XVII (Articles 188-198) titled “mediation, conciliation, arbitration”\(^{14}\). However, between mediation based on the Labour Code and mediation process provided by the Law no.10385 "On mediation on resolving disputes", there are some significant changes.

Starting with the field of mediation, according to the Labor Code, mediation can only be applied on "collective conflicts"\(^{15}\). Consequently, the entities which are able to mediate are narrowly designated by the Labour Code. In contrast to the appointment of the mediator by law nr.10385 "On mediation in resolving disputes" (article 16), the Labor Code (article 188a/a) provides that the mediator is appointed by the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs, or the administrative body within the public administration of that Ministry (State Labour Inspectorate). In addition to the above, the mediation pursuant to Labor Code is necessarily conducted on those disputes which are strictly set by the Labour Code\(^{16}\) and by a mandatory procedure within a period of 10 days, specified in the Code. In conclusion, the two alternatives of mediation process, regulated by different laws do not overlap or repeat each other but remain completely different.

Mediation on family disputes. In the albanian legal framework that has regulated the mediation institute from 1999 onwards, the field of family relationships did not miss from being part of the mediation option. In the law of 2011, the “care” towards family disputes is repeated. Further more, given the importance of the juvenile issues and marriage consequences, the law provides the context of a “obligatory” invitation\(^{17}\). This should not be understood as an imposition for the parties to obligatorily reach a settlement through mediation, but as an obligation of the court or other authority to inform via "invitation" the existence of this alternative and its advantages.

This does not mean that in other cases the court must not make such an invitation. Even in other cases the court has discretion to make such an invitation. But in the cases where the minors interests are included (or in other cases provided for in article 2/4) this “invitation” is not at the discretion of the court or state authority, but it's legally binding to be made. However, as mentioned above, this obligation of the court or another state body to invite the parties to mediation, should not be confused with the fact that mediation is a voluntary process. The incentive for settlement by mediation of family disputes is also an obligation deriving from international instruments ratified by Albania and does not affect at all the essence of mediation as a voluntary activity. Let's mention here the European Convention “On relations with children" (article 7/b) or the Hague Convention on parental responsibility (article 32).

In the law "On mediation in resolving disputes", the legislator has synthesized the base general principles\(^{18}\) upon which the mediation service is established, based on the most advanced contemporary standards. These principles,

\(^{13}\) Law no.10385 "On mediation in resolving disputes", art.2(4): When put into motion for the resolution of a dispute in the civil, commercial, labor or family field, the court or the relevant state body, within the powers provided by law, obligatorily invite the parties to resolve through mediation, particularly, but not limited to, the dispute…c) of property character, on the claims up to 500 thousand,.....

\(^{14}\) see also articles 165, 168 of Labor Code.

\(^{15}\) see article 188 of Labor Code on the meaning of “collective conflicts”: conflicts between some employees, one or more organizations of employees, on the one hand, and one or more employers or one or more employers' organizations on the other side.

\(^{16}\) Conflicts regarding the conclusion of collective labor agreements or disputes arising from the application or the breach of these contracts ("collective conflicts").

\(^{17}\) Law no.10385 "On mediation in resolving disputes", art.2(4): When put into motion for the resolution of a dispute in the civil, commercial, labor or family field, the court or the relevant state body, within the powers provided by law, obligatorily invite the parties to resolve through mediation, particularly, but not limited to, the dispute a) on civil and family matters, when minors interests are included; b) on conciliation issues in divorce cases, provided for by Article 134 of Family Code; c) of property character, on the claims up to 500 thousand,.....

\(^{18}\) Law no.10385 "On mediation in resolving disputes", art.3: The main principles provided by the law are: the necessity to respect the equality of the parties in the mediation; principle of confidentiality; flexibility in many aspects of the process; transparency in terms of the
expressed in the albanian legislation, are important in practice, because they enable qualitative difference between mediation services with other dispute resolution forms, such as the judicial resolution of dispute, resolution by arbitration, administrative resolution, etc.


2.1 Legal features of the state arbitration in Albania until the early 90s.

After the second world war, Albania as most of the countries of Eastern Europe, implemented the socialist economic system, based on Marxist theory and Soviet example of construction and operation of the economy. In this regard, in all these countries including Albania, a characteristic feature of the economic system was the creation of the institution of the State Arbitration.

In Albania, the state arbitration was established for the first time by decree-law no.443 dated July 2, 1947 "On resolving property disputes by state arbitration", which can be considered as the first organic law of this institution. During the 50 years of communist centralized economy, the state arbitration suffered some significant organizational and procedural changes. The latest legislative development was the law nr.7424, dated 14.11.1990 "On state arbitration" and its implementing regulations.

Under this legal framework, the state arbitration was created as a permanent structure near the popular councils of sub-prefectures (later, popular councils of district), near the ministries and near the government. The disputes had to be examined by a council, composed of one arbitrator and two assistants.

The jurisdiction of state arbitration had a “double character”: State arbitration had mandatory jurisdiction on reviewing of property disputes, contractual or pre-contractual, between institutions and state enterprises (“state vs. state conflicts”). It also had voluntary jurisdiction on reviewing of property conflicts between the institutions or state enterprises on the one hand and cooperatives, private enterprises, legal or natural persons on the other hand (“state vs. private conflicts”), as well as between private entities themselves (“private vs. private conflicts”). In these cases (voluntary jurisdiction) conflicts could be examined by state arbitration only if the parties had specified it in a contract, or if they had reached a special agreement in writing for arbitration.

Regarding the manner of operation, the legal framework established that disputes were submitted to arbitration on request filed by the both parties. At this point, the state arbitration presents similar features with classic institution of arbitration, the jurisdiction of which, as explained by the doctrine has contractual origin. The contractual theory explains why the essence of arbitration is contractual. First of all arbitration is based on the agreement of the parties. Where there is no arbitration agreement, no party can force another to arbitrate, except in the rare instances of compulsory arbitration.

In state arbitration, the disputes could also be judged by the arbitration on its own motion (ex officio), or at the request of the entity where the arbitration structure was established (council of Ministers, ministries, central institutions, etc.), even at the request of the prosecutor. Such a provision is a convincing proof of an obvious superiority of this institution compared with other mechanisms of resolving property disputes, even with the state courts.

The role of the State Arbitration was very active. Besides the fact of reviewing the issue on its own initiative, this institution had the power to exceed the limit of initial parties claims. So the final arbitral award may dispose on more issues than the claims addressed by the parties. Meanwhile if we refer to international law, even to the actual albanian

right of parties to control and know all the elements of the mediation process; The right of the parties to engage in a mediation process and to offer and accept voluntarily, without imposition from the outside or from the mediator of the mode of dispute resolution in which they are involved; the impartiality of mediator, etc.

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23 C.M. Decision no.26, dated 01.04.1991 “On approval of “Regulation of issues to be considered by the state arbitration”, art.4: “The claims to the arbitration, should be examined with the necessary documents, ......The claims of ministers and other central institutions, the prosecutor and the executive committee of the district are accepted without these documents. In such cases, the arbitration determines what documents should be administered”.
domestic law on arbitration, such a provision does not exist. Under the actual domestic regulation, an arbitral award may be appealed to the court of appeal when ... the arbitral tribunal in its award has exceeded the claims for which it has been invested or has not stated on one of the main lawsuit claims.24

Regarding the competence, state arbitration imposed its jurisdiction as the only jurisdiction to resolve property contractual or non-contractual disputes between institutions, social organizations and state enterprises. So on the "state versus state" disputes, this type of arbitration was the only option and not an alternative solutions, as this mechanism is considered nowadays25. While the modern regulation of the arbitration institute, regarding the arbitration jurisdiction to resolve the dispute, provides an indispensable condition which is the will of the parties, expressed on arbitration agreement. Under the provisions of the albanian Code of Civil Procedure, an arbitration forum may have the jurisdiction to resolve the dispute only if it is met the necessary condition of the expression of the will of the parties through an arbitration agreement.26

Avoiding the confidentiality: An interesting fact regarding the trial proceedings in state arbitration was that the trial was provided to be performed, not only at the headquarters of the arbitration, but also as a popular show, for example in the presence of the technical council of the enterprise, in front of cooperative presidency, in the presence of other employees, etc.27 While one of the main principles of resolving disputes through arbitration, widely affirmed today by national and international legislations28, is the principle of confidentiality of the process, which describes the process as a private procedure.29

The arbitral award and its enforcement: The arbitral award was final and it was binding for the state Bank, financial bodies, as well as for bailiff offices. The enforcement of an arbitral award has been voluntarily performed by the parties within the appointed term, otherwise, the award has been compulsorily executed, based on the order of the execution issued from the arbitrator himself.30

2.2 Arbitration and its current legal regulation in Albania.

Albanian legislation recognizes and regulates the arbitration institute. The provisions relevant to arbitration are found in a special title of the Code of Civil Procedure31 (CCP) of the Republic of Albania. For the purposes of this law, arbitration is a special institute of civil procedural law for settling property disputes outside of judicial activity. It represents the will of the parties to a rapid and fair solution of these disputes, by entrusting the mission to one or more persons who organize and develop judgment adhering to the limits of the charged mission. The settling of the property disputes through arbitration enables the avoidance of a significant part of the judicial proceedings.

The arbitration chapter of the CCP focuses on the procedures for domestic arbitration and fails to provide rules of arbitral proceedings and court proceedings related to international arbitration. The CCP states that rules on international arbitration shall be established by a separate law (art.439), a law which still has to be adopted in Albania. This obligation is not fulfilled since no special law on international arbitration has been approved. But the effect of this provision (article 439) is to issue the international arbitration outside influence of the regulation provided by articles 400-438 of the Code. These articles regulate all concepts pertaining to arbitration, for example the matters relating to the arbitration

24 Albanian Code of Civil Procedure, article 434.
25 The case "Marini vs. Albania", Appeal no.3738/02, Decision 18 December 2007, Strasbourg, par.10: "On an unspecified date, to obtain compensation, the applicant complained to the State Arbitration, which at the time was the competent body for disputes involving state-owned enterprises. On 7 May 1993, the State Arbitration recognised the validity of the 'Marin-Albplastik' company statute. Moreover, he ordered the state to pay the applicant ...”.
26 Albanian CCP, article 403 "Arbitration agreement": Can be judged by arbitration procedure only if there is an agreement between the parties, by which they agree to submit to arbitration disputes which have arisen or may arise out of a contract between them.
28 UNCITRAL Model Law on International Commercial Arbitration; art.20(1) “Place of arbitration”; The parties are free to agree on the place of arbitration. Failing such agreement, the place of arbitration shall be determined by the arbitral tribunal having regard to the circumstances of the case, including the convenience of the parties.
29 Its principal characteristics are: - arbitration is a mechanism for the settlement of disputes; - arbitration is consensual; - arbitration is a private procedure; - arbitration leads to a final and binding determination of the rights and obligations of the parties; United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, Dispute Settlement, International Commercial Arbitration; UNCTAD/EDM/Misc.232/Add.38.
agreement, the arbitral forum choice, the law applicable to the arbitration agreement, the arbitration procedures, the civil court interventions in an arbitral process, the granting and enforcement of the arbitration awards, etc.

Other important provisions in the field of international arbitration are contained in Title III, Chapter IX of CCP, governing recognition and enforcement of foreign arbitral awards in Albania. Part of the Albanian legal framework governing the arbitration are also the Convention “On the recognition and enforcement of foreign arbitral awards”\textsuperscript{32}, otherwise known as the New York Convention, the most important multilateral treaty on international arbitration and the European Convention on Arbitration, also known as the Geneva Convention\textsuperscript{33}.

However, despite the fact that current Albanian legal framework enables the creation of a permanent or “ad hoc” arbitration court and provides a fair process, we can say that Albania has not yet a consolidated practice on alternative dispute resolution through arbitration mechanism. A part of this legal framework needs to be improved in the future. In this point we can mention the provision for the judgment on the merits by the Court of Appeal on the appealed arbitration awards, a fact which diminishes the importance of selecting a private arbitration court for trade disputes. The domestic law does not provide the autonomy of the arbitration clause from other terms of the main contract, not recognizing at all the principle of “Separability”\textsuperscript{34}. It’s also rather important for the domestic law to include the basic principle of confidentiality and privacy of the arbitration process, which will be a further guarantee for the parties in dispute.

In December 2002, in Albania was created a permanent arbitral forum at the Chamber of Commerce in Tirana, the Albanian Center of Commercial Mediation and Arbitration “MEDART”, which was active until 2009 as a private and independent institution, established with the World Bank support. This center, throughout its modest activity, managed only a small number of cases and, regardless of its purpose, it failed to promote the arbitration service of dispute resolution in the private sector of the Albanian economy.

One of the main reasons was the fact that companies and businesses in Albania, in 2002 onwards, were generally characterized by a clear lack of confidence in the justice system and in particular in the justice of the Albanian state courts. Consequently, it was almost impossible for these businesses to believe that a private judge or court could secure justice, which, as they believe, can be barely provided by the state.

Another factor ranked by lawyers, is the level of economic development. Arbitration is a very expensive process and Albanian businesses have considered this investment for a private court as a luxury solution.

The lack of entities, which can promote the dispute resolution by arbitration, is another factor that has contributed to the delay in recognizing and development of this institution in Albania. Likewise, the lack of institutions which train professional arbitrators and the lack of permanent arbitration forums at the chambers of commerce, is another reason added to the argument that the Albanian arbitration reflects today an almost undeveloped stage.

3. Conclusions

It is time that the well-known tradition of extrajudicial settlement of disputes to be provided on professional level, in the Albanian internal legal framework. In this context, it is the drafting and adoption of the mediation legal framework by the Albanian Parliament. According to the Albanian law, mediation is an “out-of-court” and “independent” activity, which covers a comprehensive field of conflicts of civil, family, labor and commercial nature as well as some disputes of criminal nature. The general principles of equality, confidentiality, flexibility, transparency, impartiality, etc. synthesized by the Albanian law on mediation, are based on the most advanced contemporary standards.

In cases of labor disputes, the two alternatives of mediation process, regulated by two different laws (Labour Code and Law on Mediation) do not overlap or repeat each other but remain completely different. In some conflicts, specially those of family nature, given the importance of the juvenile issues and marriage consequences, the law provides the context of a “obligatory” invitation.

\textsuperscript{32} Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards was prepared and opened for signature on 10 June 1958 by the United Nations Conference on International Commercial Arbitration and entered into force on 7 June 1959. This convention has been effective in Albania since its ratification by the Albanian Parliament by law No.8688, dated 9.11.2000.

\textsuperscript{33} The Geneva Convention was drafted by the UN Economic Commission for Europe, was signed in Geneva on 21 April 1961 and was entered into force on 7 January 1964. This convention has been effective in Albania since its ratification by the Albanian Parliament by law No.8687, dated 9.11.2000.

\textsuperscript{34} “Separability means that an arbitration clause shall be treated as an agreement independent of the other terms of the contract. As a consequence, a decision by the arbitral tribunal that the contract is null and void shall not entail ipso jure the invalidity of the arbitration clause”; Explanatory Note by the UNCITRAL Secretariat on the 1985 Model Law on International Commercial Arbitration as amended in 2006; Part II, par.25.
While the mediation alternative has gained its contemporary contours, not enough has been done to promote another alternative mechanism of dispute resolution: the arbitration. In fact, before the 90s the role of the State Arbitration was very active. The state arbitration in Albania was an resolving disputes institution engaged with much larger attributes than state courts exercise today. Its “double character” jurisdiction was expressed in its mandatory jurisdiction when reviewing "state versus state" conflicts. In these cases, the disputes could be judged by the state arbitration on its own motion. That's why the arbitration was characterized as the only option and not an alternative solution. This institution had also the power to exceed the limit of initial parties claims and the arbitration proceedings was often performed avoiding the confidentiality and consequently transforming the arbitration in a “public” procedure.

Whereas the current Albanian legal framework enables the creation of a permanent or ad hoc arbitration court and also provides a fair process. Despite this, Albania has not yet a consolidated practice on alternative dispute resolution through arbitration. A part of this legal framework needs to be improved in the future. For example, the law provision that the Court of Appeal decides on the merits of the dispute is considered an obstacle to the parties orientation toward arbitration, because in any case they should bear in mind the possibility that, despite their will, at the end the dispute will be adjudicated in a state court.

The economic development in Albania, the frequency of trade relations between local traders and foreign ones, but also the Albania’s accession in important international organizations will lead to the creation of permanent arbitration forums and the Albanian business will be guided inevitably towards arbitration mechanism for settling commercial disputes. In order to make this happen, there is a necessity to harmonize and approach the domestic legal framework with international contemporary regime in the arbitration field. Such improvement would serve better on business relations and, as consequence, to the economic integration of Albania.

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The Extent of the Application of Community Service Order as an Alternative Punishment in Malaysia

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Abstract

The criminal justice system provides a range of punishment to be meted out to criminal offenders. The types of punishment include custodial and non-custodial sentences. Custodial sentence refers mainly to imprisonment of the offenders. On the other hand, there are several types of noncustodial sentence such as fine, probation and bond of good behaviour. Recently it can be seen that a new kind of non-custodial sentence, that is community service order has gained acceptance by the courts of law in several criminal jurisdictions in the world such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America. As a developing country, Malaysia must be proactive in keeping abreast of this legal development. Therefore it is important to identify whether in Malaysia there exists provisions of law that allow for the application of community service order as an alternative punishment. This paper aims at discussing the provisions of law pertaining to community service order and the extent of its applicability in criminal cases in Malaysia. For the purpose of this paper, the writers adopted a qualitative method, focusing on statutory analysis in order to reach the desired objective.

Keywords: Community service – alternative punishment – crimes – offenders

1. Introduction

It is an undeniable fact that prison has an important role to play in protecting the community against the most dangerous offenders and in punishing the most serious crimes. On the other hand, imprisonment as a type of custodial sentence can also harm the chances of the offenders’ opportunities to amend and fulfil their potential as citizens and to contribute to civil society and democratic life. In this context, it is also important to find effective alternatives to prison for offenders who can be safely punished in the community. This is considered a current development in most of the criminal justice systems, including Malaysia. In Malaysia, community service is not always used by the judges as alternatives to imprisonment. This type of sentence was first introduced in the Malaysian Criminal Procedure Code, under section 293, a provision pertaining to juvenile offenders.

According to Martin Wasik (2001), community sentence is one of the available sentencing options, appropriate in cases where the offender has committed an offence of an intermediate degree of seriousness. The judges impose the order in a view that the nature of the offence is not such as to require custody, but it does require something more than the mild penalty of a bind over or a discharge.

Under the English law, not all sentences that are by nature non-custodial are ‘community service sentence’. ‘Community sentence’ under the English law is defined in Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing) Act 2000 under section 33(1) so as to encompass the community rehabilitation order (formerly probation order), the community punishment order (formerly community service order), the community punishment and rehabilitation order (formerly combination order), the curfew order, the attendance centre order, the supervision order, the exclusion order, the drug treatment and testing order, the drug abstinence order and the action plan order.

As for the Malaysian law, we do not have a specific act pertaining to community service order as a sentence. However, there are few provisions in the Malaysian legislations that give inference as to the application of this type of
sentence. Those provisions of law are highlighted in this paper to identify the extent of its application under the Malaysian criminal jurisdiction.

2. What is for community service order?

Community service order is an order meted out by the court that requires an offender to perform services or duties for a specified period of time without any wages for the welfare agency and society. There are usually five aspects to this order: the court giving the order, the type of the order, the period of service, consideration from the services rendered, and the party served (Claster, 1992). This order is also defined as a non-custodial punishment as it will not involve imprisonment or considered as an alternative to imprisonment. (McLaughlin & Munchie, 2006). Some refer community service as community corrections which is defined as a nonincarcерative sanction in which offenders serve all or a portion of their sentence in the community. (Leanne Fiftal Alarid, 2013)

As a whole community service order provides opportunities for offenders to learn job skills, get vocational training and other important life skills. At the same time, it repairs the harm caused by their actions while making contributions to the communities in which they live. Thus it is submitted that community service order is a two way street; that is the active involvement of both offenders and the community.

3. How community service addresses sentencing goals?

Community service addresses the traditional sentencing goals of punishment, reparation, restitution and rehabilitation. By serving the community, community service order adds a punitive measure to probation because it is a special condition of probation or supervised release. It restricts offender’s personal liberty and requires them to forfeit their leisure time. In achieving reparation, community service allows offenders atone or ‘make the victim whole’ in a constructive way. Besides, community service may be regarded as a substitute for financial compensation to individual victims or a form of symbolic restitution when the community is the victim. This will achieve the aim of restitution. And the most important characteristics of community service is rehabilitation whereby this kind of order fosters a sense of social responsibility in offenders and allows them to improve their self-image through serving the community. It also instils a work ethic and helps offenders develop interest and skills.

Community service is premised upon the belief that offenders and also victims of crime have rights deserving of protection. Apart from that, human beings are capable of change, that is one of the reasons why a commitment to the reintegration of the offender into the community is very essential. (Leanne Fiftal Alarid, 2013)

4. The Malaysian legal basis for community service: An Overview

It is to be noted that the legal basis for community service order is provided by the legal and institutional framework. Nevertheless for the sake of this paper, only the legal framework is analysed to look at the extent of its application in Malaysia The implementation of community service order in Malaysia is provided in a number of laws; which set up the mechanism and the operative facilities that cater for the implementation of the order. The relevant statutes are Criminal Procedure Code, Child Act 2001, Offenders Compulsory Attendance Act 1954 and Drug Dependants (Treatment and Rehabilitation) Act 1983 (Act 283).

4.1 Criminal Procedure Code (Act 593)

This act is a criminal procedural act in Malaysia. Community service order is defined in section 293 regarding the application of punishment for young offenders. Young offender is defined in section 2 of the Criminal Procedure Code as a person of 18 years and above but below the age of 21. The order has been incorporated in the provision through Criminal Procedure Code Act (Amendment) 2006 (Act 1274) to replace para (d) with the following paragraph:

(e) to make an order requiring the offender to perform community service, not exceeding 240 hours in aggregate of such nature and at such time and place and subject to such conditions as may be specified by the court;
(ii) in this paragraph “community service” means any work, service or course of instruction for the betterment of the public at large and includes, any work performed which involves payment to the prison or local authority; and

(iii) the community service under this paragraph shall be under the Minister charged with the responsibility for women, family and community. (The Ministry of Development of Women, Family and Society has been given the responsibility to promulgate and implement the community service programmes.)

It should be observed that community service order can only be imposed on a child offender between the ages of 18 to 21. Therefore a child aged below 18 will not be entitled to this type of punishment. In line with this provision, the Malaysian Ministry of Women, Family and Society Ministry has established a special unit for the order of community service with three objectives, namely;

i. punishment; by giving the child offender a responsibility to be discharged based on their needs.

ii. rehabilitation; by stimulating a social responsibility and making community service programmes as useful experience to the child offenders

iii. reparation; by giving rooms or opportunities to child offenders to be reformed and rehabilitated and offering benefits to the society.

4.2 Child Act 2001 (Act 611)

This act is only applicable for those below the age of 18 years. The 611 Act defines child as a person under the age of eighteen years and in relation to criminal proceedings, child means a person who has attained the age of criminal responsibility as prescribed in section 82 of the Penal Code.

As to date there is no specific provision on community service order in the Child Act 2001. Nevertheless if sections 83 and 91 on the types of punishment are read together, the application of community service order can be inferred.

Section 91 of the Child Act 2001 reads:

Powers of Court For Children on proof of offence

(1) If a Court for Children is satisfied that an offence has been proved the court shall, in addition to any other powers exercisable by virtue of this act, have power to-

(a) admonish and discharge the child

(b) discharge the child upon his executing a bond to be of good behaviour and to comply with such conditions as may be imposed by the court;

(c) order the child to be placed in the care of a relative or other fit and proper person –

i. for such period to be specified by the court and

ii. with such conditions as may be imposed by the court;

(d) order the child to pay a fine, compensation or costs;

(e) make a probation order under section 98;

(f) order the child to be sent to an approved school or a Henry Gurney School

(g) order the child if a male, to be whipped with not more than ten strokes of a light cane –

i. within the court premises

ii. in the presence, if he desires to be present, of the parent or guardian of the child.

(h) impose on a child, if he is aged fourteen years and above and the offence is punishable with imprisonment and subject to subsection 96(2) any term of imprisonment which could be awarded by a Session Court.

The relevant paragraphs concerning on community service are Para (a), (b), (c), and (e) where, when one of these types of punishments is imposed on the child offender, the elements of community service concept might be applied. For example, when offenders are put under probation, they are released into the community with the proviso that they must meet certain conditions or risk further punishment. The conditions imposed generally require that offenders are under the supervision of a probation officer with whom he is expected to meet regularly. Nevertheless, since this provision of law is silent as to the additional punishment of community service, the extent of its application is very vague and unclear for those offenders below the age of 18 under this act.

Section 83(3) also provides:-

When an offence is committed by a child but a charge in respect of that offence is made against the child after he has attained the age of eighteen years, the charge shall be heard by a court other than a Court For Children and that other Court may exercise the power mentioned in paragraph (2)(a), (b) or (c).
Section 83(2) provides:-
When a child is charged with an offence before a Court For Children and during the pendency of the case he
attains the age of eighteen years the Court For Children shall, notwithstanding any provisions of this Act, continue to hear
the charge against the child and may –
(a) exercise the power under section 76
(b) exercise the power under paragraph 91(1) (a), (b), (c), (d) or (g); or
(c) if the offence is punishable with imprisonment, impose any term of imprisonment which could be awarded by a
Sessions Court.

For cases where a child has attained the age of 18 at the time the charge is made, based on this section, it can be
inferred that an order for community service can be made by the court by virtue of sub section 2(b). The court still retains
the power to make such order even in cases where the child offender has attained the age of eighteen.

As a conclusion, eventhough it can be inferred that an order of community service can be made based on the
above mentioned provisions in the Child Act 2001, however it is suggested that to give clarity to this area, a specific
provision giving the court power to order community service must be incorporated.

4.3 Offenders Compulsory Attendance Act 1954 (Act 461)
This legal statute has long been in existence in Malaysia. The preamble of this act states:
An Act to provide for the performance in certain circumstances, of compulsory work by offenders convicted of
certain offences and liable to be sentenced to imprisonment or by persons liable to be committed to prison for failure to
pay a fine or debt, in lieu of being so sentenced or committed; and for purposes connected therewith.
“Compulsory work” has been defined in this Act as any labour, task, work or course of instruction ordered by the
Compulsory Attendance Centre Officer to be undertaken by the offender. (Locations or centres gazetted for offenders to
report attendance were as directed by the Home Minister on 4th July 2010 through the gazette [KDN PDP (S): 03/223(2)]

With this order, the offender has to attend daily at a centre to be specified in the order and to undertake
compulsory work for a period not exceeding 3 months and for such hours, not exceeding 4 hours as may be specified in
such order.

Where a person has been convicted of an offence for which he is liable to be sentenced to imprisonment or is
liable to committed to prison for failure to pay a fine or debt, and the court is of the opinion that such person would have
been adequately punished by a sentence of imprisonment for a period not exceeding 3 months, and having regard to the
character of such person, the nature and seriousness of the offence or the circumstances of such person’s failure to pay
and all the other circumstances of the case, it is inexpedient to commit him, the court may in lieu of such sentence or
committal make a compulsory attendance order. This has been provided in section 5.

The obligations of offenders under a compulsory attendance order have been set out in section 6 of the act. It
reads:-

(1) Subject to the provisions of any rules made under this act and to the terms of the compulsory attendance
order, an offender shall during the continuance in force of such order report daily at such time and place as,
having regard to the offender’s circumstances, the compulsory attendance officer may specify.

(2) An offender shall each day undertake such compulsory work as may be ordered by the compulsory
attendance centre officer which shall be such work as can, in the opinion of that officer, be completed by the
offender having regard to his physical capacity during the number of hours specified in the compulsory
attendance order.

(3) If an offender is gainfully occupied in employment, the time at which he is ordered to report daily under sub
section (1) shall be such as not to interfere with such employment.

The accused is required to secure bond either with or without guarantor. This is to ensure that the accused will
obey the compulsory attendance order. Before an order is imposed, the court must explain in a language understood by
the accused the percussions of not obeying the order and the court cannot make any compulsory attendance order if the
accused refuses to obey the order that is going to be imposed.

By virtue of Act 461, compulsory attendance order is one of the additional punishments to imprisonment imposed
by the court without affecting the life of the offender in society. The order is under the management and administration of
Malaysian Prison Department. By this order, the court will direct the offender to report himself every day at the
compulsory attendance centre. This is in order for the offender to carry out duties or services for the benefit of the society
and also to undergo rehabilitative programme not more than four hours per day. The offender will be supervised by an
officer at the compulsory attendance centre as specified in the whole country.

Minor offences offenders are given an option to perform community service duties which will not affect their
existing jobs. Examples of duties or services under the compulsory attendance order in Act 461 which are presumed to
be similar to community service order are as follows:
1. to work with workers from local government or local councils to clean the town surroundings etc
2. to work at hospitals or public health centres in order to assist the elderly sick patients
3. to work at recreational parks, playgrounds and clean public facilities
4. to work at places of worship, welfare houses and orphanage
5. to attend motivational classes, lectures and career talk
6. to attend short term courses at training centres and other sponsored courses at government training centers
7. other works or services considered appropriate by the compulsory attendance officer in the respective
districts.

4.4 Drug Dependents (Treatment and Rehabilitation) Act 1983 (Act 283)

This is another non-custodial sentencing options in Malaysia. It is not directly considered as a community service order,
but the programmes established by the rehabilitation centres may indirectly involve the community. Under this particular
act, the government has established rehabilitation centres for the residence, treatment and rehabilitation of drug
dependants. Instead of being processed through the criminal justice system, a magistrate may order a proven drug
dependant to undergo treatment and rehabilitation at a specified rehabilitation centre for a period of two years and
thereafter to undergo supervision by a Rehabilitation Officer or any police officer at the place specified in the order for a
further period of two years.

Section 6(1) of the Act states:-
Where a person who has undergone the tests referred to in section 3 or 4, in consequence of such tests, is
certified by a government medical officer or a registered medical practitioner to be a drug dependant, the officer shall
produce him, or cause him to appear before a Magistrate, and the Magistrate shall upon the recommendation of a
Rehabilitation Officer and after giving such person an opportunity to make representations –
(a) order such person to undergo treatment and rehabilitation at a Rehabilitation Centre specified in the order for
a period of two years and thereafter to undergo supervision by an officer at the place specified in the order for
a period of two years, or
(b) order such person to undergo supervision by an officer at the place specified in the order for a period of not
less than two and not more than three years.

The act also provides the conditions for an order of supervision that shall be imposed on a person in Section 6(2).
The conditions are:-
1. The person must reside in a state or Federal Territory or any area as specified in the order.
2. The person must not leave the area where he resides without the written permission of the Director General
3. At the time specified in the order, the person shall report at the nearest police station or for a member of the
armed forces at the place specified by an officer
4. The person shall not consume, use or possess any dangerous drugs
5. The person shall undergo such tests at such time and place as may be ordered by an officer
6. The person shall undergo any programme for the rehabilitation of drug dependants held by the government.

Therefore it can be concluded that community service as a non-custodial punishment is not totally alien to the
Malaysian criminal justice system. What is needed is only a nudge to the right direction so as to enable this type of
order to play its appropriate role.

5. Conclusion

It is submitted that community service is a fairly new concept in the Malaysian criminal justice system in Malaysia. However with the incorporation of community service order for juvenile offenders under section 293 of the Malaysian Criminal Procedure Code, it shows that our jurisdiction begins to recognise the need of a new approach of sentencing offenders. The authors agree with suggestions proposed by Mark S Umbreit (1981) that community service must be
viewed as a criminal punishment. Unless it is viewed as a legitimate criminal punishment in and of itself, it will not be taken seriously by judges as a replacement for other forms of punishment.

Thus, in order to ensure the success and effectiveness of the community service order, the government should provide clearer and specific law pertaining to this type of sentence, therefore it will give clarity of its implementation, especially to what types of offences and offenders it shall be imposed. Besides, the offenders must be made aware of the purpose and intended outcomes of their community service activities. The court staff and judges also, at the same time must understand what is at stake and understand the reasoning behind the idea of imposing community service. If the aim is really to give the offenders help and support in order to facilitate his adjustment to society, their real needs should be determined. In achieving this, a research should be undertaken or conducted to investigate the needs of the offenders who fall within the ambit of the community service order.

References

Study of the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight and Emperor Friedrich II by the European House of Andechs Meranien. From the Viewpoint Their Aim for Ending of International Religious War ”the Crusades” in 12-13th Century

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Abstract

In 12-13th Century, the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight in Europe such as Perceval in France and Parzival in Holy Roman Empire were appeared and spread. Since then they were known only the Chivalry story in Europe, not so related in international situation at the time like “the Crusades”. However, my viewpoint stands that those stories of Legend were very close and strong influenced by Crusader Battle Situation and Movement on Knights of Crusade from Europe to Middle East, Africa, Asia as real history. In the same Century, one of the famous European House of Andechs Meranien ruled important Crusader’s routes and key-areas having root of the Grail Knight’s story in Europe. Finally, I wish to point out that House of Andechs Meranien conducted and supported Holy Roman Emperor Friedrich II as the ideal “Holy Grail’s King” whose ability and spirit was very multicultural and global under mutual prosperity and peace beyond the dogma of Crusades as antagonism toward religion. Therefore, he could enter peacefully in Jerusalem as King like Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight.

Keywords: Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight, Crusader, House of Andechs Meranien, Emperor Friedrich II, Holy Roman Empire

1. Introduction

In 12-13th Century, the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight in Europe such as Perceval ou le Conte du Graal of C.Troyes(1140-end of 12c.) in France and Parzival of W.Eschenbach(1160or80-approx.1220) in Germany (Holy Roman Empire) were appeared and spread. Since then they were known only the Chivalry story with adventure and love in Europe, not so related in international situation at the time like “the Crusades”.

However, my viewpoint stands that those stories of Legend were very close and strong influenced by Crusader Battle Situation and Movement on Knights of Crusade from Europe to Middle East, Africa and Asia as real history. Moreover, in the same Century, one of the famous European House of Andechs Meranien ruled important Crusader’s routes and key-areas having root of the Grail Knight’s story in Europe, such as Franken in Germany including Bayreuth, Bamberg, and Ansbach near birth and vital place of W.Eschenbach, and Adriatic Seacoast including Dalmatia (around Slovenia and Croatia), and road to Verona in Italy across the Brenner Pass in Austria, and Bourgogne (Brugund) in France near the place of C.Troyes and so on. Then, the House managed access-routes from Bishopric Bamberg to Jerusalem and another Middle East’s cities, and to Italy, France, Hungary, etc. This House is not known nowadays for extinction. But my view is that House of Andechs Meranien had new ideal beyond religious intolerance such as Crusade War.

In addition, this House had strong tie of the Staufer, and deeply understanding of the the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight. It means that this House connected between the Holy Roman Emperor of Staufer like Friedrich II (1194-1250) and the Legend.

As far as prior research about relationship between these works(Perceval, Parzival) and Holy Roman Emperor Friedrich II, it remain a few view point of literature, thus, historical and geographical or cultural-exchange approach is nothing. About Friedrich II, by earlier literatures such as historian E.H. Kantorowicz(1895–1963) and J. Burckhardt(1818-97), They watched Friedrich II’s talent and new idea depend on only himself like genius. In addition, his idea and characteristic was like Caesar of the Roman Emperor as great dictator with powerful army from Europe to Mediterranean area.

However, I wish to point out that House of Andechs Meranien conducted and supported Emperor Friedrich II as the ideal “Holy Grail’s King” whose ability and spirit was very multicultural and global under mutual prosperity and peace beyond the dogma of Crusades as antagonism toward religion. Therefore, he could enter peacefully in Jerusalem as King like Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight. So, at first, we go back to the time of 12th century as the Birth time of Legend of
Holy Grail’s Knight stories.

2. Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight stories of 12th Century and its alteration

2.1 “Incomplete” Perceval and its background on historical approach

The origin and root of Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight is various view, the present, it also try to seek another European country. So, in this chapter, it has researched about “incomplete” Perceval (ca.1181-91) by C.Troyes in France and Parzival (until ca.1204) by W.Eschenbach Germany (the Holy Roman Empire).

First written story about Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight appeared as this Perceval by C.Troyes using partially another European Legends such as the following.

Perceval was influenced “Legend of King Authur” that finally completed story in 15th century. This Author’s Legend had a root of “Historia Regum Britanniae”(1135) by G. Monmouth with Latin in England, about 20 years after, this was published and went to France, Historia Regum Britanniae was translated in old French language.

On the other hand, about story of Holy Grail’s Legend used in the time of “the last supper” and received Christ blood in his crucified time, C.Troyes was influenced in “Joseph d’Arimathe” (end of 12c.) by Robert de Boron(-1212). He who was famous as most great Trouvère in the middle age of France was supported by Philip(1143– 1191)Count of Flanders as patron. C.Troyes started to write Perceval under Philip’s support.

It was said the reason Perceval was not complete was for C.Troyes’s death, but his death year was not clear. In addition, his “Lancelot, the Knight of the Cart”(1170s) before Perceval was also incomplete why C.Troyes did not want to look down on Lancelot as knight of hero with loyalty and love in the end of story.

In this point of view, it can point out C.Troyes who highly believed chivalry and Christianity stopped and abandoned to complete Perceval by something reason before his death.

It was imagined that C.Troyes faced the historical situation abandoned to complete Perceval as Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight admiring chivalry in Christianity of Europe.

About relationship between Perceval as Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight and Crusader, from view point of difference fiction (Legend) and non-fiction (history), it was seemed that they were not related directly, or had indirectly a few relationships. However, I want to point out that Perceval and Parzival are directly related with Crusader history. I conclude that Crusader’s movement and Battle situation is closely influenced to these stories of Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight as following.

Philip of Flanders who was C.Troyes’s patron participated in Crusader at Palestaine. C.Troyes who was fascinated Philip’s activity and personality praised highly to him that he exceled King Alexsandor and Original of Perceval was given by him.

Philip of Flanders met King Jerusalem Baldwin IV(1161-85) in Jerusalem as Holy land. And the two tried together to battle of Montgisard(1177).

In this battle, Knights Templar(Templerorden) was one of Crusader Knights greatly contributed to the victory of Christian-side. By this win, prestige of Knights Templar was reached the peak in Christian-side of Europe because several hundred knights defeated miraculously more than ten thousands Islamic knights (army).

At that time, Knights Templar became their existence compared with European King’s Army because the Knights fought for Crusader Battle with the Army such as Philip II of France (1165-1223) and Richard I as known Lion Heart King of England (1157-99). In this glorious time of Knights Templar, Perceval as Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight began to be written by C.Troyes.

Also, Troyes at Champagne in France as known C.Troyes was closely related (born or active) place where was also important place of Hugues de Payens(1070-1136) who founded Knights Templar. Moreover, in 1129, Troyes at Champagne it was held historical congress admitted officially Knights Templar as Catholic monastic order. These facts strongly point out the possibility that Knights Templar was real model of Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight.

On the other hand, Thierry of Alsace (1099-1168) was father of Philip of Flanders also participated in the second Crusader. When he went back from palestine to Bruges brought the sacred blood of Christ collected by the above mentioned Joseph d’Arimathe.

After that, Thierry of Alsace built Basilica style church that dedicated the sacred blood of Christ in this church. Thus, in order to write the great works of his father, it seem that Philipe demanded C.Troyes to write about Thierry’s sacred blood of Christ as Holy Gral in Perceval’s story.

Moreover, C.Troyes said about Philip of Flanders who was honest and pure man when he heard slander of
another man became so sad, and he loved justice, loyalty and holy church, and first of all Troyes said he was given original story of Perceval by Philip himself. Thus, these mean that real model of Perceval was Philip of Flanders.

Above mentioned, Perceval was influenced not only Legend of King Arthur but also personality of Philip of Flanders who participated with Crusader that he went to Holy land of Jerusalem and another Arabic land, in addition, experience of Thierry of Alsace as Philip’s father equal to find Holy Grail as blood of Christ.

Moreover, it existed that model of wounded King called Fisher King who hardly waited for Holy Grail’s Knight. The Fischer King was exactly Baldwin IV, King of Jerusalem at that time.

He who had both excellent of talents and perfect looks was enthroned King of Jerusalem only 13 years old. However, he who got incurable disease became weak gradually, died at the early age of 24 years old for total paralysis.

In spite of this tragedy of younger King, his noble personality and decision making of politics shown in Jerusalem on holy land praised by historian in future years.

This meeting with King Baldwin IV seriously impacted to “Pure” Philip. The scene was reproduced as scene of Perceval “asking” to fisher King.

When Philip first entered to Jerusalem as “Holy Grail castle” met Baldwin IV, Philip could not say anything (asking) by heavy surprise to see miserable this King, and it can read from Perceval story that Philip deeply regretted that he could not cure and heal the King by his asking.

After King Baldwin IV’s death, situations of Jerusalem and cities occupied Crusader in the Middle East changed completely by offensive movement of Islam.

In 1187 Crusader was completely defeated in historical battle of Hattin by Islam Army leading Saladin (1137-93). Caused lose of this battle, not only Kingdom of Jerusalem but also most of cities occupied Crusader had fallen after prosperity of one century.

Moreover, by this battle it fell completely prestige of Crusader justified as God’s will before by those reasons that it was captured not only Crusader Knights commanders include Templer close relation to place of C.Troyes, and European feudal lords participated in Crusader, but also Jerusalem King Guy Lusignan(1159-94). Moreover, when it was exposed atrocities by Crusader that executed in their occupied land, the prestige of Crusader justified as God’s Will was completely broken and fallen.

Because such dishonorable und misery situation was spread around Europe, C.Troyes no longer could write story of Ideal world of Knights of Christianity as Holy Grail’s Knight, He gave up writing after his distress at the same situation of "Lancelot, the Knight of the Cart".

Also, Philip of Flanders who was patron of C.Troyes and model of Perceval had been death in battle of the third Crusader in 1191. It brought serious doubt and despair for C.Troyes to Ideal world of Jerusalem as Holy and God land of Crusader by these reasons of historical crushing defeat of battle of Hattin, inhuman massacre and plunder by Crusader, tragedy of Baldwin IV, and death of Philip of Flanders.

This “incomplete” story of Perceval ou le Conte du Graal by C.Troyes in France took over and completed as Parzival by W.Eschenbach in Germany with new vision and expansion.

2.2 Completion of Parzival and its historical point of view

W.Eschenbach known as the author of Parzival was said that he was born in area of Ansbach in middle of Franken in Germany, lived in the same time with C.Troyes, understood old French language, was Minnesänger admired chivalry as well as C.Troyes as Trouvère.

W.Eschenbach who was also known great poet in the middle age of Germany, served count of Thüringen, participated in “Sängerkrieg auf Wartburg” (Sing-fight at Wartburg” (1207) was active in Franken area locating Bayreuth.

He pointed out in his Parzival’s final chapter that Troyes did not convey correctly Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight. Moreover, W.Eschenbach wrote in Parzival that he was completed the correct story and its conclusion under his land. In other words, he insisted that “incomplete Perceval” was completed by his Parzival in Germany.

Thus, Parzival revises Perceval and adds it to new expansion. But, Parzival first and last chapter are original of W.Eschenbach. Both chapters are appeared remarkably his ideal world.

At first, in the chapter 1 as Parzival opening that this place became in Islam area at that time such as Middle East, Africa, Spain etc. The Christianity of Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight became light and weak. So, Parzival strengthen color of Islam in contrast to Perceval.

This introduction appears father of Parzival named Gahmuret who longed for East world, went to Baghdad in Iraq, served to calif as Islamic king who ruled two-thirds in the world.
So, Gahmuret went to land of Africa, married with Black colored Queen, and ruled her country. About this Queen, W. Eschenbach admired highly her Minne that she was a heathen and different race for him, and that she had so sincere and womanly mind that he never heard before. He continues that her purity of heart and fallen tear looks like sacred baptism.

Moreover, the active location of Parzival spread mainly in Islam area such as Cairo, Alexandria, Morocco, Damascus and Persia etc. W. Eschenbach got information about Crusader and Islam world in that time by Guiot de Provins (-1208) from Champagne. Guiot participated in the 3rd and 4th Crusader because he went to trip around Europe and the East.

Next point, Holy Grail (grâl) itself was changed holy “stone” from grail of Christianity to new interpretation, for example to Black stone Kaaba of Holy place in Islam or wiseman’s stone in Solomon of Judaism.

Moreover, in Parzival it was clearly divided roles between “a fool” as the first concern and “a wise” as supporting and advising. Therefore, it became more closely Parsifal as “Pure fool” that Richard Wagner (1813-83) changed the name from Parzival to Parsifal in his Opera.

In the last chapter, Parzival as a fool was spiritually awaken and attained enlightenment through various experience and ordeal as Holy Grail’s Knight. Finally, Parzival was invited Holy Grail’s Castle and succeeded to the King of Holy Grail. In the story of Parzival, succession of throne by Parzival meant as Savior not only world of Christianity but also other religious world.

Such as Parzival by W. Eschenbach had also same viewpoint of Perceval by C. Troyes between fall of Crusader from European side and raise of Islam from Middle Eastern and Asian side.

The remarkable activity and personality of Gahmuret in Parzival was very close to Islamic Hero of Saladin who had superior battle plan and was praised from Crusader Knights as enemy to release most of Crusader’s captive with his merci. Moreover, the active place of Gahmuret is same of Saladin’s its place. Thus, it must be noteworthy that W. Eschenbach used image of Saladin as Islamic Hero to the father of Parzival.

As for W. Eschenbach, center of the world is not Europe of Christianity but the East world having various ideas, religions, and wealthy and fascinating culture. In Parzival, castle of Holy Grail was in Monsalvat where showed religious color between Christianity and Islam.

After that, Wagner in Parsifal who set Monsalvat for Montserrat, where was holy place of Catalonia in Spain had religious diversity, and appeared in Legend of Arthur. It can say that the 3 authors, C. Troyes, W. Eschenbach, and Wagner have same viewpoint and mind over centuries.

On the other hand, above mentioned, W. Eschenbach also has a viewpoint of “12th Century Renaissance” such as European society influenced by Islamic and Eastern culture, and compassion (Mitleid) of same value of the world such as Global view called “Cosmopolitanism”.

So, the next chapter studies relation of Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight and House of Andechs Meranien in the Holy Roman Empire.

3. House of Andechs Meranien and Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight

3.1 Relation among Andechs Meranien and Crusader Knights, and Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight

This House of Andechs Meranien was famous nobles (Adelsgeschlecht) around Europe (the Holy Roman Empire) appeared in 11th Century, prospered in 12th until the first half of 13th century. It was formed alliance that Count of Andechs (Grafen von Andechs) and Duke of Meranien (Herzogtum Meranien) was unified by marriage each other.

House of Andechs originated around lake Ammer and Stumburg in south of Bayern near the Alps, had Castle in Innsburk, and spread ruling area by marriage with influential House of feudal lord called marriage-politics (Heiratspolitik).

Thus, House of Andechs Meranien ruled most of Bayern including Bishopric Bamberg, Bayreuth, Bourgogne (Brugund at that time) in France, road to Verona in Italy across the Brenner Pass in Austria. Moreover, ruled sea routes on Adriatic Seacoast including Dalmatia (around Slovenia and Croatia) this House kept trade routes from Kingdom of Jerusalem and Palestine City that Crusader kept, until Bishopric Bamberg that was core in the Holy Roman Empire at the time.

This route of House of Andechs Meranien that connected both Holy places became place of important connecting Crusader’s cities in Middle East and main cities in Europe by keeping in close contact with Crusader Knights following.

Moreover, the routes of House of Andechs Meranien that spread in the center of Europe were deeply related with Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight. This reason of relation ruling place of this House was influenced around Champagne of
C. Troyes and Ansbach of W. Eschenbach. Through trading of both place, for example books of Perceval by C. Troyes entered to Ansbach in House of Andechs Mermanien's territory. In addition, this House made for them about one of the Legend of Holy Grail's Knight named Wigalois by Wirint von Gafenberg, and that this Wigalois story was influenced in Parzival of W. Eschenbach.

Moreover, through trading territory and route of House of Andechs Mermanien, such as treasures and necessities, and culture was brought to around Bishopric Bamberg, near side was from France and Italy, far place was from Jerusalem, Byzantine and Asia and Africa. For example, treasures of House of Andechs Mermanien had Golden dress for Mass made by Islam worker from the East, the Weil of St. Maria as sacred relic and the Wittener Kelch like the Grail's treasure engraved about Christianity in 12th century "the Crusades" by Andechs Mermanien from the East to Tirol region in Austria of their one of mainlands, etc.

This House, as showed queen of Poland Jadwiga Śląska, Hedwig von Andechs (1174-1243) sent to be married their daughters to another European Noble House. The queen sent to marry her daughters to Philip II (1165-1223) King of France, and Andrew II (1177-1235) King of Hungary. House of Andechs Mermanien by means of this marriage-politics tied alliance with European countries. Moreover, using power of these countries deeply connected with Bishopric and Crusader Knights, and that this House related closely trading with area of Kingdom of Jerusalem, Arabia, and Mediterranean Sea.

This Queen Jadwiga root of House of Andechs Mermanien who rendered service to poor and week person was raised as Holy woman. She was adored by land-people and Crusader Knights who supported this service. On the other hand, she made closely cooperation with these Knights.

Also, this queen’s daughter married in Count of Thüringen as patron of W. Eschenbach, after that, she was known as Saint Elisabeth (1207-31). For that reason she endeavored to help and protect poor person, she was expelled from Thüringen, and moved to Bamberg. W. Eschenbach also dedicated Song of Minne praised her.

After that, this Saint Elisabeth appeared as Hero in the stage of Wagner’s Opera named Tannhäuser und der Sängerkrieg auf Wartburg. On the other hand, She also made closely relationship with Crusader Knights who who supported this help through her leadership in church and hospital. For example, her brother-in-law named Konrad von Thüringen was the fifth Grand Master of the Teutonic Knights (Deutscher Orden). The Knights build Saint Elisabeth Church in Marburg where she was very active place.

On the other hand, House of Andechs Mermanien gave their routes not only Teutonic Knights but also Knights Templar, for example, that sea routes from Jerusalem to Dalmatia via Adriatic Seacoast, and land routes from Dalmatia to Germany via Brenner Pass, or from Byzantine to Germany via Hungary etc.

This House brought relic and merchandise from Arabic, Asia, and Africa to around Bishopric Bamberg, it is said Oberfranken region ruled by House of Andechs Mermanien. One of the cities Coburg has wappen of Moore in nowadays meaning existence of Islamic cultue under the tolerance of this House. Also Bayreuth following became basement and staying place of this House and Crusader Knights. Also Crusader Knights after 13th century turned the direction from Jerusalem of Middle East to Poland of east border of the Holy Roman Empire to protect against invasion of Mongolian Army. In Bayreuth, Crusader Knights movement increased the position as cross point of these Knights movement, trade to East-side and strategic base of military.

3.2 Reconstruction of Bishopric Bamberg and House of Andechs Mermanien – to the New Millennium Kingdom-

On the one hand, House of Andechs Mermanien spread territory and trading routes by marriage-politics, on the other this House tried to go into Bishopric Bamberg as Holy world, namely, “new Rome in above Alps”. This Bishopric Bamberg that was founded Bishopric at Bamberg in Millennium by Holy Roman Emperor Heinrich II (973-1024) aiming New Rome that Bamberg had 7 hills like Rome became center of the Holy Roman Empire at that time.

This Heinrich was canonized with his spouse Cunigunde (975-1040) deeply believed in God and Christianity, and the pair buried together inside Bamberg Dom (Cathedral).

After their death, Bishopric Bamberg produced Roman Catholic Pope Clement II (1005-47, as Pope 1046-47) who was first time “Pope of above Alps”. After that, House of Andechs Mermanien also drew following their ideal of “the New Millennium Kingdom under Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight”.

House of Andecs Mermanien donated hugely to this Bishopric and reconstructed Bamberg Dom that built four large steeples at the corner in 1211-37.

Also, In the inner sanctuary of this Dom with two Patron saints of this Dom who were St. Petros and St. Georg (Georgius) was put on new statue named Rider of Bamberg (Bamberger Reiter). This statue was deeply related
with Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight and Knights Templer that cooperated with House of Andechs Meranien at that time.

4. Emperor Friedrich II and Andechs Meranien- seeking of New Idea of the World-

4.1 Andechs Meranien seeking new world system of the Holy Roman Empire

These Andechs Meranien also supported the Stauffer and the Holy Roman Empire. Stauffer Heinrich VI. (1165–1197, King of Germany 1169–, Holy Roman Emperor 1191–, King of Sicily 1194–) was crowned King of Germany at Bamberg in 1169, at the age of four.

On the other hand, Berthold (- 1204) became the Count (Graf) of Andechs (as Berthold IV, 1172-) and first Duke (Herzog) of Merania (1183–), thus he was called Berthold IV of Andechs Meranien (Graf von Andechs and Herzog von Meranien).

In 1186, Berthold IV accompanied the Emperor Heinrich VI to the Kingdom of Sicily. In 1189, Berthold IV led the third division of the imperial army and was its standard-bearer on the Third Crusade.

Berthold IV had to undergo the great Saladin and his Islamic Army, in addition, above mentioned, this House of Andechs Meranien was very close to the ideal world of Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight like Parzival. So, After Heinrich VI’s death in 1197, Berthold IV and this House continued to support Stauffer emperor to introduce the new world system in the Holy Roman Empire from center of the Mediterranean in Sicily to their Bamberg as place of the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight. And finally, Andechs Meranien and Stauffer had and formed on the new ideal and generational man, he was Friedrich II.

4.2 Emperor Friedrich II as Holy Grail’s Knight

Because Heinrich VI of the Stauffer and Berthold IV of the Andechs Meranien sought to the new ideal successor of the Holy Roman Empire, it can say that the Heinrich VI’s son Friedrich II needed the mysterious Legend from his birth until his end of life time as the new ideal man like new or reborn Christ and Parzival as the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight. And because Heinrich VI was dead when Friedrich II was 3 years old, Berthold IV of the Andechs Meranien supported to crown him as German King.

Moreover, Friedrich II himself had various talents and possibility called “stupor mundi” (the wonder of the world). Also he was called “the first modern man on the throne” by Burchhardt.

Friedrich II lived in Palelmo in Sicily using seven language such as Latin, Greek and Arabic etc. His ability got so many culture and religion, science not only from Europe but also Arabia, Africa, Asia in the world, moreover from this earth to universe reach to God as All Creator.

On the other hand, at this Palelmo in 19th century, Parsifal of Wagner’s Opera above mentioned finally completed. This meaning is that Wagner knew very well about Friedrich II by reading books, and that I intend Wagner thought one of Parsifal model was this Friedrich II of the Holy Roman Emperor in Palelmo.

4.3 Entering to Jerusalem as the King like Parzival

In addition, He tried to make new world system as the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight. It is like Parzival story at the Church of the Holy Sepulchre in Jerusalem. This church place was said that Christ had been crucified, and he was pierced by spear (Holy Spear) and shed their blood (Holy Blood), finally, his blood was kept in the Holy Grail in the legend of Christianity.

In 1229, Friedrich II as Parzival and his Teutonic Knights as Grail’s Knights entered in Jerusalem very peacefully not to use his forces, and He crowned as Jerusalem King like Holy Grail’s King at the Church of the Holy Sepulchre. At that time, it can say that he completely imaged final story of Parzival in the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight.

And in this moment, Friedrich II as the wonder of the world realized in peace of Jerusalem beyond more than one hundred Chirsitian and Islam world war situation Crusades. And this Friedrich II’s work is not only world historical meaning of ending the War but also possibility of mutual understanding on human-being around the world to the future in nowadays. At the same time, the idea and dream of Andechs Meranien and the Stafer came true.
4.4 End of the Era - Staufen and Andechs Meranien -

In spite of this Friedrich II and Andechs Meranien with the new idea to the world was not understood at that time, it is for several reasons following.

1) Friedrich II and this idea was strong against Catholic Authority and European Catholic such as Guelphs and Haus Welfen.

2) And at that time by Crusades, in Europe and Middle East, Asia, African region had serious religious-cultural misunderstanding and prejudice each other.

3) The Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight like Parzival as the new peace theory in the world is not so spread to all Asian-area’s civilian because of using European Language and the hostility in the long war situation above mentioned.

4) About the reason 1) or 2), the House of Andechs Meranien was attacked by the Authorities like Welfen and become weak and finally extincted. For example, at Bamberg in 1208 for Murder of Philipp von Schwaben (1178-1208), the House in Germany was attacked by this responsibility in their territory. At last this House was end in the middle of 13th century, in the same time, Friedrich II and Stafer Dynasty in the Holy Roman Empire had finished.

However, in spite of persecution of them, the spirits and idea of Andechs Meranien and Friedrich II remained their land from Europe to the East, and succeeded to the House of Hapsburg, and that revived as Protestantism and Mysticism of Europe like the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight or Cosmopolitanism like Freemasonry until now.

5. Conclusion - Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight and Emperor Friedrich II in nowadays

5.1 Mind of House of Andechs Meranien and “Rider of Bamberg”

In this thesis, from historical viewpoint about Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight succeeding at Bayreuth in Germany, it considered about its succession and metamorphose of posterity.

In this paragraph at conclusion, it considers again about statue Rider of Bamberg (Bamberger Reiter) newly build House of Andechs Meranien when this House reconstructed Bamberg Dom putting whole their heart and soul.

This statue is said typical works in Bamberg Dom as landmark of the old city registered as World legacy by UNESCO nowadays. However, this rider’s model is not clear, thus until now, it is not concerned about historical meaning of its making background and spirituality of Rider of Bamberg. The opinion about model of Bamberger Reiter exists the Holy Roman Emperor Philip(1178-1208) who was died in Bamberg, or St.Stephan I (969-1038) who was King of Hungary roots of Andechs Maranien. However, it is not clear reasons why this sculpture is innocent young man without arms until now.

However, I consider that this statue exactly expressed “Holy Grail’s Knight” as Ideal sprit of House of Andechs Meranien. Though this statue is rider meaning of knight, do not have any arms such as sword and shield, moreover this knight have image of pastoral scenery such as youth of Franken countryside. I want to point out this statue man is Parsifal (Parzival at that time) as Holy Grail’s Knight. And it suggests the Knight is Friedrich II in youth above mentioned.

Parsifal who do not know existence of Knight by his Mother hated War and Battle lived in countryside having nothing to do with Battle fields. Moreover, recently this status was restored to original using current science technology, as a result, it was cleared that this status was put on red clothes. In short, this red clothes means that Parsifal who saw Knight at first time and admired world of Knight and chivalry won the first duel with Knight and got his red clothes.

On the other hand, above mentioned, the face and expression of statue Rider of Bamberg (Bamberger Reiter) has not dignity to be such as completed Knight, but image of “Pure fool” like Parsifal becoming Holy Grail’s Knight drawing by C.Troyes, W.Eschenbach, and Wagner. Moreover, head of this status put on crown, above the status decorated by king castle of Heaven such as Castle of Holy Grail, thus this can say exactly Parsifal becoming King of Holy Grail.

House of Andechs Meranien that has their dream such as New Millennium Kingdom in Bishopric Bamberg wanted real holy Kingdom as Heaven under good relationship by international exchange of culture and trading from diplomatic (nation) until personal (individual) aiming mutual understanding and cooperation from their tradition of peace diplomatic policy such as marriage politics and welfare works for poor and week people above mentioned than tyranny such as colonialism by military power called armed hegemonic diplomacy.

Above such ideal of House of Andechs Meranien was greatly influenced to Parzival of W.Eschenbach who was active in this House ruling area. And the symbolic ideal was remained as Bamberger Reiter meaning Holy Grail’s Knight.
by this House for the future generations.

In Bamberg Dom the tomb of Kaiser Heinrich II and Cunigunde existed above mentioned. The pair do not have successor, but they had profound believing were raised both as Saint, and above at their tomb in Dom put on the Bamberger Reiter.

It exactly consist composition that the pair was given Parsifal as their son by the grace of God. In its behind, the altar of bishop is shined by dazzling stained glass. It can say that the inside of cathedral was reproduced miracle of Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight by Andechs Meranien.

Moreover it expressed scene of great blessing coming New millennium Kingdom by the descent of God drawn in the ceiling. So, the next last chapter, I intend about possibility this Rider of Bamberg is Friedrich II as the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight.

5.2 Emperor Friedrich II as Holy Grail’s King in the World –Dream of Andechs Meranien for the ending of International religious Battle Situation-

The new idea of the world of Friedrich II was finished with extinction of Andechs Meranien and fall of Staufer above mentioned. Moveover, by revive of the Catholic and Pope’s supporters had been erased completely about the great Idea of Both Friedrich II and Andechs Meranien.

But in nowadays, we can trace it using academical approaches from the memento of Andechs Meranien like Bamberg Dom and the Rider.

In this last sentence, I want to mention one more memento of Freidlich II. It is his mysterious Castle named “Castel del Monte” in the Apulia region of southeast Italy. Untill now, it is said Castel del Monte is basement of his hunting or fortress of the Crusadus against heathen or enemy countries. However, it can not explain why he made this by unique geometric octagonal design. About this, it was said this octagonal Castle is similar to Dome of the Rock in Jerusalem.

I see it is important from viewpoint of the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight. Because this Dome of the Rock was not only religious holy place in Islamic and Jewish but also headquarter of Knights Templer related with the Legend of Holy Grail’s Knight. At that time, the Templer used this Dome as Holy Grail Castle. But the Knights lost graduately their power since Hattin Battle above mentioned. So, instead of the Templer, Teutonic Knights of the Holy Roman Empire increased the power by Fiedrich II. So, I wish to point out Castel del Monte was made by him as the New Holy Grail Castle in his era.

And I see that Fiedrich II wants to use this Holy Grail castle(Castel del Monte) with his supporters like Andechs Meranien and this Teutonic Knights as center of the new ideal world to go to another region with sprit of peace and cooperation like Middle-East, Africa and Asia by sea-road.

This Castle locate center of Mediterranean and the Globe at that time. And the new Grail Knights like Wigalois as a model of Berthold IV for leading and protecting around Friedrich II as Parzival go to search the new value and truth like Holy Grail around the world.

In addition, this unique geometric octagon was imaged not only Islamic or Jewish background but also Asian Buddhism like Dharmacakra (Dharma wheel, Japanese: Hou-rin) or fortune-telling like Feng shui(Wind-water) using Chinese astronomy. Thus, this stupor mundi(Friedrich II) might get and use profound knowledges all over the world for the new generation.

In this mysterious Castle, using such the world thoughts and Science of Astronomy, Astrology or Fantasy, Friedrich II felt deeply meditation and inspiration from global thinking to universal idea such as Creatur of the Universe beyond his body. And in this New Holy Grail Castle, he imaged the new idea of the world like peace and tolerance of cross-culture as a human-being of the Universe and Parzival as world-Legend of Holy Grail’s King in new generation said the first-person of Renaissance through nowadays on 21st century.

References

Albanian Parliament and Economic Concessions to Italy (1925-1928)

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Abstract

This work will address the following issues: 1-Discussions in Albanian Parliament about the economic situation in the country. Stand of Albanian Parliament on political-economic orientation of Albanian Government regarding Italy. Views of Albanian Parliament on Italian political system and experience of Italian administration in relation to further organization of Albanian state and economy. 2- Views and different groupings at Albanian Parliament and their stances regarding Italian-Albanian agreements for establishment of National Bank of Albania, loan from Italian company S.V.E.A and other economic concessions. 3- Stand of Albanian Parliament about level of practical efficiency of Italian-Albanian agreements and other economic concessions, problems occurred during their implementation and Parliament's approach about these problems.


La questione più importante che impegnò l’attenzione del governo di Zogu durante l’anno 1925 era la fondazione di una Banca Nazionale e l’assicurazione di un mutuo per lo sviluppo del paese. (Swire, 2005 p.360) Pretendente per la banca era il gruppo inglese Midland Bank. Però il governo italiano non poteva permettere questa cosa, poiché non raggiungerebbe lo scopo per intervenire in Albania. In queste circostanze cominciò la corrispondenza diplomatica tra Roma e Londra, per la questione della precedenza italiana nell’economia albanese. “Londra, la quale subito dopo la Prima Guerra Mondiale aveva dato il consenso al capitale italiano per avere una posizione speciale in Albania, rinunciò al proprio piano ed ha aperto la strada all’Italia in Albania.” (La Storia della Banca Centrale in Albania. 2003, p.18). La convenzione per la fondazione della Banca di Albania fu sottoscritta il 15 marzo 1925 a Tirana tra Myfit Libohova, Ministro delle Finanze e viceministro degli Affari Esteri albanesi e Mario Alberti, rappresentante del Gruppo Finanziario Italiano e Presidente della Banca Credito Italiano. Il capitale nominale sarebbe 12.5 milioni di franchi d’oro. Secondo l’accordo, gli albanesi avrebbero in possesso 49% del capitale azionario. Nel Gruppo Finanziario italiano presieduto da...
Mario Alberti, partecipavano le tre banche più potenti d’Italia: Credito Italiano, Banca Commerciale Italiana, Banca Nazionale di Credito, Banca di Roma insieme a quattro piccole banche italiane (Frasheri, 2011, p.97).

Oltre agli italiani possedevano azioni anche alcune banche europee da Svizzera, Belgio e Jugoslavia. Secondo l’accordo, la direzione della Banca sarebbe composta da due albanesi e due italiani. Il presidente sarebbe italiano e goderebbe il voto definitivo. Presidente fu eletto M.Alberto, mentre consigliere delegato Andrea Gambino. La Banca godeva il diritto di emissione delle banconote e il conio delle monete metalliche e divisionali. Il 15 marzo ancora fu fondata la Società per lo Sviluppo Economico dell’Albania, altrimenti nota come S.V.E.A. C’io’ assicurerebbe all’Albania un mutuo su 50 milioni di franchi d’oro con un interesse annuale di 7.5 % e ad un termine di estinzione per un periodo di 40 anni. “in base all’accordo il mutuo sarebbe usato per eseguire i lavori pubblici in Albania, per la costruzione dei canali, dei ponti, delle strade ed il miglioramento delle terre agricole e lo sviluppo dell’agricoltura, per la costruzione delle ferrovie (Fishta, 1971, p.43).

Al Parlamento albanese la questione della Banca e della S.V.E.A fu discussa largamente. Durante le discussioni al Parlamento riguardo la banca e il mutuo della S.V.E.A d’Italia si discusse e approvato un accordo per la costruzione di 40 anni. “in base all’accordo il mutuo sarebbe usato per eseguire i lavori pubblici in Albania, per la costruzione dei canali, dei ponti, delle strade ed il miglioramento delle terre agricole e lo sviluppo dell’agricoltura, per la costruzione delle ferrovie (Fishta, 1971, p.43).

Il deputato albanese Hiqmet Delvina, dove si dà la conclusione delle commissioni che: “Le condizioni dell’accordo rispetto alla Banca ed al mutuo sono ragionevoli ed utili per lo Stato albanese, perciò devono essere acetate.” (Discorsi della Camera dei Deputati, 1925, pp.101 102). Durante la presente riunione furono approvate anche le garanzie che il Governo albanese avrebbe detenute per il mutuo, le quali erano: il gettito delle tasse dalle dogane di 6 milioni di franchi d’oro, i monopoli dello Stato sul sale, le carte da sigaretta e i fiammiferi di un valore di 2,5 milioni di franchi d’oro. Nelle diseguisi dei deputati furono messe in rilievo anche i vantaggi che approfittava l’Albania da quest’accordo. Il deputato Xhaferr Yp’i all’inizio critica la borghesia albanese, i governi precedenti, che secondo lui, non hanno avuto il coraggio per fondare una banca e poi elencare i vantaggi della Banca e del mutuo, i quali erano: un mutuo di 50.000.000 franchi d’oro, in modo che con questo denaro potremmo affrontare la costruzione delle strade, dei ponti, con questo denaro potremmo stampare le banconote dell’Albania, le quali circolano pure all’estero con l’immagine del Capo della Repubblica e menzionando anche il nome dell’Albania ci farà conoscere al mondo. L’agricoltore, presentando la propria merce come garanzia, potrà avere del denaro dalla Banca di un interesse molto basso da quel che c’è nella piazza di oggi. “Quindi, tenendo presente tutti questi vantaggi che avremmo mi sacrifico ogni danno che ci puo’ correrre, il quale sara’ minimo e con gioia l’accetto e do il mio voto.” (Discorsi della Camera dei Deputati, 1925, p.166).

I deputati albanesi non solo che evidenziarono i lati positivi e i vantaggi che avrebbe l’Albania dalla convenzione con l’Italia, ma hanno cercato di giustificare anche le ragioni del mantenimento della maggioranza delle azioni dalla parte dei dirigenti italiani. Così, il relatore della commissione parlamentare che aveva esaminato la convenzione con l’Italia il sig. Vasil Bamiha si è espresso: “Le azioni fondamentali saranno tenute dai fondatori della Banca, ma, non pensate signori che questi (i fondatori) avranno un privilegio speciale; perché anche la legge commerciale italiana non gli dà nessun privilegio economico, solo che avranno la maggioranza nell’amministrazione della Banca, cioè per questo scopo sono create queste azioni. Ed è giusto siccome possiedono la maggioranza del capitale. 51% l’avranno i fondatori della banca (gli azionisti) e 49% il popolo albanese. La presente Banca sarà gestita da un consiglio di sei persone: tre italiani e tre albanesi.” (Discorsi della Camera dei Deputati, 1925, p.167).

Benché avesse grande consenso per gli accordi con l’Italia, ci furono anche delle voci particolari dei deputati, i quali cercarono un controllo sul governo per il modo in cui si gestirebbero i soldi offerti dal mutuo dell’Italia. Così, il sig. Milto Tutulani insieme ad altri deputati hanno cercato la creazione di una commissione parlamentare permanente allo scopo di controllare il lavoro del governo. Lui dichiarò: “Noi proponiamo che si formi dalla Camera una commissione per un controllo parlamentare permanente, il quale sarà incaricato a controllare ogni attività del governo sulla buona applicazione delle condizioni di queste convinzioni e dello spendere del muto, soltanto per i lavori che vengono assegnati in quella convenzione.” (Discorsi della Camera dei Deputati, 1925, p.97).

Ciò ha incontrato l’opposizione dei rappresentanti del governo di M.Libohova, il quale accusò M.Tutulani che voleva mettere sotto controllo la Banca e il Gruppo Finanziario Italiano. Dopo la proposta di M. Tutulani fu messa in processo di voto e non ha vinto. Il tempo ha dimostrato che M.Tutulani aveva avuto retta, perché più tardi sono venuti fuori gli abusi di M.Libohova. La legge organica della Banca Albanese fu approvata dal Parlamento albanese il 23 giugno 1925. Il 5 luglio 1925 invece, fu approvata al Senato la legge, che permetteva alla Banca Nazionale Albanese il diritto esclusivo per l’emissione delle banconote, e per il conio delle monete d’oro e di argento.

Con l’accordo raggiunto sulle azioni della banca, sebbene gli azionisti stranieri avessero avuto il 51% delle azioni, il Gruppo Italiano rieschierrebbe la maggioranza, perché c’erano anche delle banche azioniste straniere, e gli albanesi, secondo la convenzione avrebbero 49% delle azioni. Allora il Gruppo Finanziario Italiano ha agito. Alessandro Roselli nel

La situazione dei rapporti tra la Banca e il Parlamento Albanese non fu sempre di pieno consenso. Così a maggio dell’anno 1927 al Parlamento ebbero luogo aspre discussioni tra i deputati, dove la banca si accusava che non concedeva crediti agli albanesi, emetteva l’oro all’estero e coniava delle monete metaliche, che non era il diritto della banca, ma dello Stato Albanese. Quindi, nel suo discorso Xh.Ypi diceva che la nostra Banca Nazionale, anche quando concede a qualche commerciante qualche soldo glieli concede con molti ostacoli e difficoltà. La Banca non sta cambiando la valuta con l’oro, e in questo modo, ha tolto il valore alla valuta. Quando si rivolge il mondo per il cambio monetale prese sottomano. La banca fu protteta dal Ministro dell’annullamento della convenzione del 15 marzo.

Per indagare questo problema, il 24 ottobre 1925, fu creata una commissione d’inchiesta parlamentare, la quale ha evidenziato tutte le infranzioni commesse da lui. Secondo le inchieste fatte dalla commissione risultò che M. Libohova aveva commesso gravi infraazioni. Lui fu accusato per il deposito del mutuo di 1.000.000 franchi d’oro in lire italiane ricevuti dal Gruppo italiano causando alla cassa dello stato un danno di 60.744,09 franchi d’oro. Aveva comprato due vapori all’insaputa del governo, mentre le finanze erano in difficoltà ecc. L’accusa più grave che la commissione fece a M. Libohova fu che aveva tenuto nascosto per gli albanesi il termine della sottoscrizione delle azioni della Banca che scadeva il 5 maggio 1925. Di conseguenza gli albanesi persero l’opportunità della sottoscrizione delle azioni a loro appartenenti in base all’articolo 4 della convenzione della Banca Nazionale Albanese. Con questi atti M. Libohova aveva offerto i diritti dell’Albania agli stranieri” si concludeva il rapporto della commissione. (Rapporto della commissione d’inchiesta parlamentare, novembre 1925, p 30-32) M. Libohova si era allontanato dal Presidente della Repubblica sin dal settembre dalle funzioni governali, scappando pure dal processo giudiziario visto che esisteva la possibilità dell’annullamento della convenzione del 15 marzo.

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dalla maggioranza dei deputati fu sostenuto e si considerò utile per l’Albania. Alcuni deputati nelle loro discussioni se ne accorsero che il trattato era contrario al Decreto Legge presentato dal governo sul divieto del transito. In questo punto ci furono scontri in discussioni tra deputati e il rappresentante del governo sig. M. Libohova, il quale insistette di abrogare la legge che non consentiva il transito. Oltre a questi, ci furono dei deputati che contestarono il Trattato, perché lo ritenevano dannoso dal punto di vista economico per lo Stato Albanese. Qui si distinse il sig. Ferid Vokopola, il quale nel suo discorso disse: “Come sapete Vostri Signori, dal punto di vista economico vince sempre la nazione che è più prosperosa e non noi che non abbiamo un bilancio equilibrato, che non possediamo una tariffa doganale studiata sulle basi tecniche e con questo trattato legghiamo il paese mani e piedi e non potremo prendere i dovuti provvedimenti che ci servono per migliorare la nostra situazione. Io, dal punto di vista economico lo ritengo dannoso questo trattato senza essere studiati in modo approfondito i punti che ho elencato di sopra. E non credo che quei due annessi rispondono ai bisogni vitali dello Stato”. (Discorsi della Camera dei deputati, 1925, p.407.) Tuttavia ciò non fu preso in considerazione dalla maggioranza dei deputati e fu deciso di modificare la legge sul transito in funzione al trattato con l’Italia.

L’interesse per il petrolio albano si rese vivamente dopo la Prima Guerra Mondiale. Mostrammo interesse gli stati come Inghilterra, gli Stati Uniti d’America, l’Italia e la Francia. Gli scontri maggiori furono tra l’Italia e l’Inghilterra perché la società britannica anglo-persiana aveva preso concessioni di petrolio in Albania sin dal 1921 ed inoltre questa società aveva avuto la promessa di A. Zogu che avrebbe avuto campo libero nella sua attività. Così dal piano di nove punti che Contarini, il Segretario Generale del Ministero degli Esteri dell’Italia presentò ad A. Zogu, questo l’ultimo non accettò solo la richiesta per dare in concessione per la ricerca e lo sfruttamento dei campi di petrolio in Albania perché il Zogu si era impegnato con priorità alla società anglo-persiana, la quale finanziando con 25.000 sterline per il rovescio del Governo di Fan S., Noli, aveva assicurato prima la promessa per la concessione del petrolio in Albania. (Fishta, L’intervento del capitale straniero e le sue conseguenze schiaviste per l’Albania, 1979, p.53) La diplomazia inglese e quella italiana dopo alcune trattative, raggiunsero il consenso e così fu aperta la strada all’Italia per chiedere le concessioni del petrolio in Albania.

Al Parlamento Albanese, il trattamento delle concessioni del petrolio con l’Italia prese un posto rilevante. La prima concessione discussa ed approvata fu quello tra il Governo Albanese e le Ferrovie dello Stato Italiano con rappresentante Ugo Piloti. Per questa convenzione al parlamento ci furono pochi dibattiti e quelli casomai la concessione avesse qualche differenza con quella della società anglo-persiana e pure la soluzione del problema da parte del governo con una società francese, la quale aveva presentato domanda per lo stesso territorio. Dalle discussioni risulta che la convenzione è la stessa con quella della società anglo-persiana, soltanto con una differenza che la società italiana costruirebbe in Albania una raffineria di petrolio. Il sig. Rauf Fico chiede chiarimenti rispetto all’articolo 19 della convenzione dove la società per i suoi mezzi si diceva che era libera da ogni tassa doganale e lui chiede se tutto ciò vale anche per le tasse del municipio. Per questo, la risposta di Kostaq Kote, Ministro dei Lavori Pubblici è che sarà risoluto dall’arbitraggio. La discussione fu chiusa da Selaudin Bloshmi, il quale dice: “Siccome il governo questo punto l’ha incluso in arbitraggio, ogni soluzione o interpretazione che noi diamo sembra che sia inutile, poiché la decisione data dall’arbitraggio per gli anglo-persiani varrà anche per le altre società.” (Discorsi della Camera dei deputati, 1925, p.296). Poi viene messo in votazione ed il contratto si approva in modo unanime il 10 luglio 1925. Secondo il contratto la concessione durerebbe fino al 1985, poi l’investimento passerebbe allo Stato Albanese.

All’inizio del marzo 1926 la Società italiana presentò una richiesta per altri 25 mila ettari da sfruttare, la quale fu approvata e il governo prendeva la responsabilità dell’applicazione della legge di espropriazione, casomai i proprietari dei terreni non fossero d’accordo. Durante questa riunione ci furono delle discussioni sugli specialisti che doveva portare la società italiana in Albania e si stabilì, anche se ci furono delle contestazioni, che la società portasse in Albania soltanto specialisti per quanto riguarda al petrolio. Il Senato intervenne per la modificazione fatta dalla Camera dei deputati al termine linguistico “per quanto riguarda al petrolio”. Secondo il Senato se venisse aggiunta una tale condizione solo per una concessione in specifica, si danneggerebbe il morale, la dignità e la credibilità della società concessionaria. Le modifiche fatte dal Senato erano: La concessionaria gode il diritto di mettere in uso I terreni privati necessari, in caso di necessità gli stati come Inghilterra, gli Stati Uniti d’America, l’Italia e la Francia. Gli scontri maggiori furono tra l’Italia e la Francia dopo alcune trattative, raggiunsero il consenso e così fu aperta la strada all’Italia per chiedere le concessioni del petrolio in Albania.

La concessione successiva che fu discussta al Parlamento fu quella con la società Sindicato Italiano Giacimenti Minerari Albanesi sullo sfruttamento del carbone di Memaliaj. L’unica discussione fu dal sig. R. Fico, il quale dichiarò: “Io vorrei per prima sapere il potenziale del carbone, quanto si trova e dove si trova. Senza avere spiegazioni e senza sapere quanto carbone si trova in Albania, che cosa stiamo votando?” (Discorsi della Camera dei deputati, 1925, p. 848.) Questo contratto fu accettato in principio il 2 novembre 1925. Anche in questo punto intervenne ancora il Senato, il quale modificò la concessione del carbone di Memaliaj. Nell’Articolo nr. 6, punto c, si diceva che la società deve pagare, secondo gli articoli della legge vigente delle miniere, una tassa proporzionata sul prodotto. Il Senato ha considerato piacevole che la tassa menzionata di sopra cambiassi in 4% sulla produzione del carbone brutto. Questa tassa verrà pagata ogni tre mesi in base al prezzo medio togliendo le spese necessarie dello trasporto del carbone dal porto albanese al porto di vendita. (Discorsi della Camera dei deputati, 1926, p.197-198). Dopo questa modificazione i deputati lodano il lavoro del Senato. Il rappresentante del governo il sig. Musa Juka dichiarò che sia il Governo Albanese, sia la società italiana sono d’accordo con le modificazioni fatte e così loro si accettano e si approvano.

Nel Parlamento Albanese, nella maggior parte dei casi, alcuni deputati albanesi sono stati grati nei confronti d’Italia e hanno lodato il Governo italiano e il regime fascista. Ci sono stati dei casi in cui nelle loro discussioni alcuni deputati accusavano gli imprenditori albanesi e lodavano quelli italiani. Nel 1926 quando si discuteva per la sistemazione di due caserme militari a Tirana e a Durrazzo si è dubitato per corruzione dei fondi ma sono esclusi gli italiani. Così, Bahri Begolli dichiarava: “Io ho diritto e giustificazione degli imprenditori italiani non ho nessun dubbio e ho rispetto per loro e tutto il mondo lo sa che io ho rispetto gli italiani e li rispetto sempre, però, io sul Comandante Generale non ho fiducia. (Discorsi della Camera dei deputati, 1926, p.568) In questo caso il comandante era albanese. Anche nei momenti quando fu critica la Banca oppure quando ci furono problemi con S.V.E.A non fu mai attaccato lo Stato italiano. Alcuni deputati nelle loro discussioni lodaron il regime fascista. Così Javer Hurshid, durante un discorso tenuto in Parlamento dichiarava: “Io sarei molto felice se l’Albania potesse avere un’organizzazione politica come il fascismo, visto che soffre per la mancanza dell’ordine, per il potere legale e leggitima del popolo. (Discorsi della Camera dei deputati, 1925, pp.1157-1158).

Le convenzioni economiche tra l’Italia e l’Albania e l’atteggiamento che ebbe il parlamento verso loro, sono rassegnate anche nella stampa albanese. Così, ci furono dei giorni che sin dall’inizio erano contro gli accordi economico con l’Italia. Esse, nei loro scritti, mostravano i lati negativi degli accordi per il popolo albanese. Così, il Giornale Repubblica nel suo dodicesimo numero, il 21 aprile 1925, scriveva: “Si danno concessioni, trattati e differenti convenzioni, dalle quali alcune non sono solo dannose, ma anche pericolose per la nostra nazione e per il nostro Stato. Soprattutto la concessione del mutuo dello Stato con la Banca di emissione è un impiego tanto brutto e da piangere, quanto da non credere, se non si vede e non si legge il contratto concessionario”. (Repubblica, 1925, p.1). Aspre critiche contro gli accordi fecero i giornali pubblicati fuori dall’Albania che erano in opposizione al regime di A. Zogu, come: L’Albania Nuova, La Libertà Nazionale, ecc.) Una parte della stampa albanese che all’inizio erano pro gli accordi, però dagli anni 1926 ed in poi, quando cominciarono ad apparire i primi problemi con la Banca e la S.V.E.A per varie questioni iniziarono anche le critiche per loro. Così il Giornale Telegraf, in uno scritto di Koste Çekrezi, nel suo numero 80, il 16 novembre 1926 scriveva: “Così come stanno gli affari in Europa e nei Balcani la nostra relazione con l’Italia ci da la piena sicurezza per il nostro essere nazionale. Purtroppo, io mi accorgo che nello sviluppo dei rapporti italo-albanesi si notano...
due correnti. Il corrente politico rappresentato dal Governo italiano e il secondo dalla Banca e la S.V.E.A. Da questi gruppi, quello più forte e più dannoso per l’amicizia e il legame tra i due stati e quello, i cui interessi si rappresentano insieme dalla S.V.E.A e la Banca Nazionale dell’Albania. S.V.E.A ci ha dato e non ci ha dato un prestito di 50 milioni di franchi d’oro verso il quale il popolo albanese si obbliga a restituire 70.500.000 franchi d’oro oltre all’interesse che verrà pagato annualmente. Dalla sua parte “la Banca Nazionale di Albania” sta raccogliendo l’oro del popolo albanese e lo sta portando a Roma, lasciandoci in mano delle banconote prive di date, nprive della firma di qualche ufficiale albanese, e prive di qualche garanzia che più tardi potrebbero essere scambiate con l’oro qui in Albania (Telegraf, 1926, p.2).

Dall’altra parte ci furono dei giornali pro agli accordi con l’Italia e sostenevano in continuazione il lavoro della Banca e la S.V.E.A in Albania. Qui si distingue il Giornale Albanese e tutti gli altri giornali pro il governo. Così, il Giornale Albanese nel suo numero 7, il 17 luglio 1927 scriveva: “Accanto alla regolamentazione finanziaria tra i problemi più gravi senza dubbio veniva di seguito la regolamentazione economica, e il presente compito fu preso dalla società S.V.E.A, la quale è completamente libera nelle sue azioni dalla Banca Nazionale. La società, dopo un appoggio benevole del Governo Italiano e del Governo Albanese, nel marzo del 1925 diede un mutuo di 50 milioni di franchi d’oro per fini economici e amministrativi. La società ha solo l’incarico per finanziare i lavori pubblici fatti in Albania, senza chiedere nessuna delle garanzie pesanti, le quali possono essere scambiate con l’oro qui in Albania (Giornale Albanese, 1927, p.1).

In conclusione si può dire: In primo luogo, il Parlamento albanese negli anni 1925 -1928, partendo anche dalla difficile situazione economica del paese, ha dato un ampio spazio alla discussione e all’approbazione delle convenzioni economiche con l’Italia. Le presenti convenzioni erano numerose e comprendevano quasi tutti i campi dell’economia. In secondo luogo, il Parlamento albanese con l’approvazione di presenti convenzioni contribuì allo sviluppo economico dell’Albania, visto che fu fondata la Banca Nazionale, anche se con il capitale straniero, entrò in circolazione la moneta nazionale, sono fatte delle strade, costruzioni ecc. Con la convenzione per il petrolio, per il carbone, abbiamo gli esordi dello sviluppo industriale del paese. In terzo luogo, il Parlamento albanese, esclude voci particolari e in casi molto rari, non volle oppure non riuscì a capire che le presenti convenzioni anche se aiutarono l’economia albanese, erano in funzione della politica del governo fascista italiano, la quale mirava all’espansione dei suoi territori, il dominio e l’invasione dell’Albania, e di altri territori. Il tempo ha mostrato che questa era la verità.

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Status of North Kosovo from a Legal and Economic Perspective

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Abstract

In this Interdisciplinary work we will deal with the Legal and Economic status of the North Kosovo region which has a very unique status and since recently its gaining more attention. It is even more interesting if we know that this small region has a very important role in European Union (hereinafter EU) politics as well. We will focus on the long debated questions for which not just the two countries Serbia and Kosovo, can’t reach an agreement, but the EU and other International actors also have unclear and different opinions. For this region it is very hard to find relevant and applicable rules, since rules which could be applied have either no real power or could not be enforced. Applicable laws are the ones of Serbia and Kosovo but enforcement power is in the hands of European Union made body, EULEX (European Union Rule of Law Mission) (Eulex-Kosovo), so how it is possible that such a strong political body like the EU can’t enforce them? From an Economic and Finance perspective we will deal with the questions which are of tremendous importance not just for the people from the region but as well for Serbia, Kosovo, EU and the International Community. It has to be outlined that even after reaching some Agreements between the Serbian and Kosovo governments, like the one from 19th April 2013 (1) (2) many important questions still lay unanswered and untouched. The most important questions are the ones related to enforcement, rule of law, social welfare, taxes and security. The pressure is now with the Agreement transferred from EULEX (Mission) to the Governments of Serbia and Kosovo. As professionals we have to approach these issues with no biases and as reasonably as possible also we have to focus on the on field situation and facts which are of crucial importance for anything what is happening and can happen.

1. Prologue

Before we approach such a complex problem which was and still is a widely debated problem in local and international community, it is necessary to say and also approach it from an unbiased and neutral position. The author of this work has no connections neither has been instructed by any of the parties involved, the author is absolutely independent and applies laws, regulations and other relevant documents to the problems present on the field. The author has lived in the divided city of Kosovska Mitrovica/Mitrovica and has a broad understanding and experience about the issues and factual situations happening in the City of Mitrovica, Kosovo and Serbia.

2. Introduction

As of April 2013 with the new Agreement (1) (2) between Serbia and Kosovo the status of the so called North Kosovo region became very specific in the sense of its legal status. In this work we are not discussing the previous legal statuses of Kosovo which were also specific in the legal sense but we are trying to define North Kosovo future status and that way predict and advice for the future and also encourage economic activities. From the date when the Agreement will be implemented the four North Kosovo municipalities which all have a Serbian majority will be affected by it. Namely these municipalities are Leposavic, Zvecan, Zubin Potok and the North part of the divided city of the once well known Kosovska Mitrovica (Tito Mitrovica). These Municipalities live under Serbian law and behave as they are part of Serbia. Both the Serbian and Kosovo sides claim that the region would develop under their rule, but how to trust them when their governments don’t have so shiny examples. The International Community is also implementing and presenting some very successful economic success as examples, but they are usually short living and last as long as the big funds and donations don’t get depleted. People need real development and work places where from they can plan their future. But it is not easy to do business without having an environment for that. Economic development is not possible if we have a very unclear legal background, unfortunately the de facto situation which is right now present on North Kosovo does not encourage economic activities. The most problematic field is rule of law and also serious improvements are needed to battle the following problems: corruption, nepotism, property rights, human and minority rights, safety and many other problems which are connected to the lack of state authority. But which state will guarantee basic rights to the citizens
when we know that Serbia is not allowed to do so and Kosovo is not allowed to do so as North Kosovo citizens boycott its institutions.

3. The effects of justice and law on life and economy

As of the times when the first states were established the humans were trying and struggling to establish and organize them in a way which fits them the best. As they were experimenting in one moment they have found that some order, rules and law have to be accepted and respected. In order to guarantee a certain level of order and also guarantee justice and the same outcome in same situations. But since ancient times until today it was hard to apply law to each complicated factual situation of everyday life. That is why we have judges, arbitrators and other professionals who are able to apply law to the problems people have in everyday life. Once we have a decision we have to enforce it, but who is going to enforce a decision made by a judge. How can one person rule and then make two confronted parties accept its ruling. How to make divided people learn the lesson from their dispute. Even more what if a party thinks that the solution reached is unjust and not fair at all. As an example we can take the case which happened in an ancient state which was at that time ruled by a powerful and just king named Solomon. When two women came to him and asked to make justice in their dispute, which was about who is the mother of a recently born baby. The king made justice by telling them that since there can be only one mother to a baby and since they both claim them it would be just to split the baby into two parts so each of them will get an equal part of the baby. In that moment one of the ladies blessed the king and his wisdom and just decision where the other woman begged him not to do so. She asked him to change his just decision and just give the baby to the other woman. When King Solomon heard this he knew that this lady is the true mother of the child, since only mother would give up everything in order to know that her offspring will live and be safe (Bible). But what to do and how to survive the terrible moments of injustice when we know that something bad is happening or could happen to us. There is no unique formula or advice. Since as people say: “Little knows the fat man what the lean man thinks”. How injustice feels and how hard it is to understand it and measure it. The same problem applies when we try to compensate for losses. How can a loss of a certain thing and feeling be compensated today. Usually loss is compensated by a sum of money. In law we can find criteria to determine the value of certain things and harms, but are they just and able to compensate. We can use a case which has happened many centuries ago where a Caliph met an Imam mending his shoes. When the Caliph asked him how much are they worth he said “Nothing”. Caliph was surprised but the Imam explained, the same shoe has no value for the authority but it does have a value to its owner (Islam). It is clear from this case how people value things differently and how hard it is to value a loss which someone can encounter. From this introduction and cases we see how the decisions made by the authority influence the life and everyday activities of people. Since the well being of people is the most important and ultimate task of every state, which is achieved by applying Democratic principles, we need to see where democracy fails in a certain state or wider and how it influences the life of people and their economic activities.

4. The actual situation of Law and Politics in North Kosovo

As of 2013 the situation is rapidly changing in the city of North Mitrovica. As the unofficial capital the changes, losses and gains in this city are immediately reflected to other areas and citizens on North Kosovo.
North Mitrovica has a completely different and separate municipality run by Serbs as opposed to the South Mitrovica municipality. Since the new Kosovo Government run North Mitrovica municipal building started to operate successfully the employees of Serbian nationality in this institution were marketed by some people as traitors and were targeted. During a certain period of time they were attacked by many means usually by dropping a hand grenade into their yards. This was made according to the same unwritten rules which prohibit cars with Kosovo plates on the North Kosovo and bans all Kosovo state insignia. A noticeable exception is Kosovo Police which is bearing Kosovo insignia. They are tolerated but only because they are of Serbian nationality and have in fact no real power to prosecute or punish. Unfortunately because of this reason no one is protected by them and no one is expecting any help from them. Since the EULEX and Kosovo state have no other solutions to solve this long lasting status quo they started to put pressure on the Serbian Government to apply certain norms and achieve certain outcomes on the field and guarantee for them via International Agreements. Serbia is the only power which can change this situation since Serbia is financing all North Kosovo institutions and supports it by many means. It is easy to conclude that no state, city or individual can exist if it has no revenue and financing. We have to note that on North no taxes are paid or any kind of contribution to any state. Even electricity and water bills are not being paid and these resources are provided for free which is a very big cost for the provider. There is no executive power which could be able to proceed and ensure payments, as we noted police is just formally present. Courts are using Serbian law and apart from making decisions have no executive power on the North which would assist them since Kosovo police would not comply with Serbian court orders. On the other hand Kosovo courts even by having a mandate are prevented to do so since the citizens do not recognize them and massively boycott. Now since all of these issues are important for every state they were covered during the talks between Serbia and Kosovo and some solutions we can find in the April 19th 2013 Agreement (1) (2)

5. Today, tomorrow and into the unknown future

In this moment EULEX has a mandate until 14th June 2014 (Council). It is present in Kosovo since 2008 (Action) and has inherited this responsible work from the UNMIK. The basic legal document upon which the International Administration acquired its mandate is The UN Security Council Resolution 1244 (1999) (NATO) (Resolution). The main tasks these International organizations have on Kosovo are Rule of law tasks and enforcement duties. By now they have worked for almost 14 years and achieved different stages and levels of successes and improvements in Kosovo. Unfortunately there is very little they can be proud of in North Kosovo. Recently EULEX started do spread leaflets stating how hard it is to work in such an environment. It is very disappointing for citizens and people who have trust in the rule of law if a body or organization is trying to find excuses instead of improving its work by using its mandate. The most visible fail is for sure North Kosovo and with the April Agreement EULEX will be relieved from its mistakes by blaming someone else. Now we
will focus and discuss what improvements and solutions are possible as per the Agreement. One of the main obstacles during negotiations and the biggest success of the Serbian side is that there will be a Regional Police Commander for the North who will be of Serbian nationality. Also the Serbian side agreed that they will not influence, what means pay, individuals on the North for performing Security tasks. Police on the North will be paid by Kosovo and that way their compliance with Kosovo laws will be ensured. By the specific Police and enforcement structure North is recognized as a separate political structure by stating that it is an Association/Community of Serb majority municipalities in Kosovo. This unclear definition is still to be explained since contracting parties understand it and explain it in different ways. In this work we will not deal with this problem since we don’t have enough valuable data and the importance of this definition is very big and important in the international and domestic law. Courts will be also integrated into the Kosovo system, apply Kosovo law and issue documents according to it. A specific appellate division will be established for the North which will deal with the cases from the northern Serbian Municipalities. In this solution there is one very important outstanding problem, namely who will deal with the problems between Kosovo Albanians and Kosovo Serbs which have caused the biggest problems earlier. When we discuss the Mandatory elections to be held in 2013 for Northern Municipalities we have to come to a conclusion that pretty much the same parties and persons will be represented as now. The success of the elections and the number of voters will be influenced by the political situation prior to election days. Energy and Telecommunication issues had to be agreed within a very short time period, until 15th of June. Since there are many problems in this regard it is visible how the EU does not understand the real life problems which go back to the Socialist times some 20 years ago. Serbia itself has not solved such problems and accordingly has no applicable solutions for the territory of North Kosovo.

6. Conclusion

The International presence in Kosovo is not that important anymore but its presence on North Kosovo is still vital. The only neutral power which is able to balance between the North and South prevent revenge and conflicts are the International Peacekeepers. The outcome of the April Agreement is somewhat influenced by the fear from the EU that if Serbs start leaving North Kosovo it will be a final knock down to International efforts of peacekeeping. Still the major role in achieving this Agreement was the promise made by EU to Serbia that after signing, agreeing and implementing this agreement they will be given the date to start Accession negotiations to join EU. The exact date is still pending, we are of the opinion that the key is still hidden somewhere on North Kosovo. More clearly on the main bridge in Kosovska Mitrovica which is blocked by a huge barricade which symbolizes the border and protects the citizens of the North from Kosovo institutions. The removal of this barricade will in turn open the gates of EU to Serbia but at what cost for North Kosovo. The future will show the value of this bridge barricade which is a state, nation and cultural border.
Exploring the Interaction of Self Narratives with Other Perception - Relevance for Managerial Anthropology and Business Ethics

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Abstract

Narrative self understanding is becoming more prominent as a field of research in human behaviour, and is particularly interesting for business ethicists who wish to look into behavioural ethics. The way a person possesses his own story can affect his perception of others and his understanding of what is due to them from him. It can therefore affect his capacity to treat them with justice and fairness. This paper looks at the self narratives of twenty subjects vis-à-vis their perceptions of a common event (as a proxy of their judgements of others which therefore would influence their relations with others). It thus uses a qualitative method of textual analysis to examine the relationship between the way a person perceives and describes himself or herself and the way he or she perceives others. The study throws light on an important aspect that needs to be included in curricula of managerial anthropology and of business ethics.

Keywords: Self narratives, self understanding, other-perception, business ethics, managerial anthropology

1. Introduction

Many current philosophical trends state that a human being’s actions may be evaluated within the perspective of his narrative; looking at the type of autobiography he is trying to build up. Narrative self understanding is becoming more prominent as a field of research in human behaviour, and is particularly interesting for business ethicists who wish to look into behavioural ethics. The way a person views and directs his own story can affect his perception of others and his understanding of what is due to them from him. It can therefore affect his capacity to treat them with justice and fairness.

The philosophical concept of the self narrative understanding and the construction of a personal narrative identity with the actions and choices made are applicable to actions performed within organisations and in business organisations. This is possible when one considers that a global development of the person seeking happiness involves all his free actions and how he lets his actions be orientated by his overall goals forming a coherent purposeful narrative of his life. A narrative vision of life integrates into a single unit the past, the present and the future of the human being. 1 With narrative self-understanding, one can avoid compartmentalisation of ambits of life which could lead to a loss of the benefits which a global vision of each action situated within the autobiography could give. One would be able to evaluate the morality of individual actions within the true context of a whole life. After all, a business leader is primarily a human person is writing his personal narrative and seeks happiness2 with his individual actions.

Another interesting point which explains why ethical conduct is inseparable from others in society is that the human person is naturally a social being. Aristotle already spoke of this in the 3rd century B.C. and this fact still stands today as is discoverable in contemporary writers in many fields both in philosophy and psychology and others. The fact of being situated among others and being constantly involved in interactions with the surrounding realities means that the

1 For more detailed explanation on the unified vision of life in narratives see Robert A. Gahl Jr., God in Dramatic Narrative, the article is published in Italian as “Etica Narrativa e Conoscenza di Dio” in Dio e il Senso dell’Esistenza Umana, Armando Editore, Roma, 1999, 189-202.

2 According to Aristotle, above all things all humans seek happiness. Aristotle already spoke of this in the 3rd century B.C. and this fact still stands today as is discoverable in contemporary writers in many fields both in philosophy and psychology and others. The fact of being situated among others and being constantly involved in interactions with the surrounding realities means that the
human’s actions affect other beings, both human and non-human realities that occupy the same space with him. This implies that ethical conduct affects other members of society and it is up to the individual to decide if such effects will be positive or otherwise.

This paper seeks to provide a theoretical background which demonstrates the importance of a narrative self understanding to perception of one’s actions and how such awareness could affect the way one regards and treats others. The paper also presents empirical evidence to support these reflections.

To achieve this aim, the paper looks at the self narratives of twenty subjects vis-à-vis their perceptions of a common event (as a proxy of their judgements of others which therefore would influence their relations with others). It thus uses a qualitative method of textual analysis to examine the relationship between the way a person perceives and describes himself or herself and the way he or she perceives others. We expect that our study will throw some light into aspects that need to be included in curricula of managerial anthropology and of business ethics.

2. Literature review and theoretical framework

Both philosophers and psychologists have described the human life as a narrative. From the ethical point of view, human actions are also best understood when viewed within narratives. For Paul Ricoeur, a well know philosopher whose anthropology is imbued with ideas of narratives and temporality, narratives are the starting point for moral evaluations of human actions.3 The awareness of being the protagonist of building one’s autobiography affects one’s choices and actions. MacIntyre’s thought coincides with Ricoeur’s own. MacIntyre is perhaps the most important contemporary figure in narrative and philosophy. His works present an intersection of narratology, based on Aristotle, and Aquinas’s thought. He states that “I can only answer the question ‘What am I to do?’ if I can answer the prior question ‘Of what story or stories do I find myself a part?’” (MacIntyre, 1985, at 216) An agent’s decision is made based on the general vision of the narrative he is constructing and what actions best suit him with regards to the construction of the type and genre of the narrative which he desires.

Another important aspect of the narrative self is that humans learn within their community. We humans learn from others around us, from their narratives and from interactions with them. MacIntyre (1985, at 134) affirms that within Aristotelian and ancient Greek thought, virtues have their place within a social context of the city-state and being a good person was considered to be allied to being a good citizen. The relationship between a person’s autobiography and societal influence from another perspective has also been affirmed by Gahl (1999). He states that “the self awareness required for moral action involves three roles: that of the agent, that of the narrator and that of the audience.” This implies that the self, even though he is author of his narrative, needs to observe others whose stories are intertwined with his. He learns from others and the stories of others, editing and reediting his own narrative based on things learnt from observing his audience and from being an audience for the narratives of other people.

In the same line, MacIntyre (1985, at 213) explains, “someone may discover (or not discover) that he or she is a character in a number of narratives at the same time, some of them embedded in others.” MacIntyre (1985, at 218) also affirms that “the narrative of any one life is part of an interlocking set of narratives.” I am part of the stories of others and they are part of mine. According to MacIntyre (1985, at 126), “identity in the heroic society involves particularity and accountability. I am answerable for doing or for failing to do what anyone who occupies my role owes to others and this accountability terminates only at death.” Thus he also affirms that the society plays an essential role in the development of a person’s narrative and that the person needs to be aware of his responsibility towards the other characters in the broader narrative pertaining to the historical society.

Another dimension associated to an autobiographical vision of the self includes that of wanting to leave an impact on the world; the construction of an autobiography that lasts beyond one’s lifetime. Studies in psychology reveal that in mid-life, there is a tendency for a person to be concerned with the anticipated ending of the life story and such people may be moved to seek to give creative contributions to society. This concern for leaving a long-lasting legacy for future generations is described as generativity (McAdams and de St. Aubin, 1998) in contemporary psychology. “Generativity script (of personal myths) links the individual personal myths to the collective stories and myths of society as a whole and to the enterprise of promoting and improving human life and the welfare from one generation to the next” (McAdams, 1993, at 14).

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3 See Cervantes Barragán, Carácter y Promesa en la Forja de la Identidad, 32. Cervantes Barragán cites Paul Ricoeur’s writings as basis for the analysis which she presents.
These perspectives of the narrative self have been confirmed by much psychology research. Psychologists, Dan P. McAdams, Emma Mansour, Jonathan Adler, and many more have described the narrative structure of human life. There are also ongoing studies on the structure of human life.

Psychologist Csikszentmihalyi points out that, in order to reach flow, we need the help of others. Flow as a concept, is often referred to as “the Psychology of Optimal Experience” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Optimal experiences are situations in which attention can be freely invested to achieve a person’s goals. Flow is described as a state of consciousness in which a person’s state of concentration so focused that it amounts to absolute absorption in an activity. It is often described as a phase in the human being’s quest for happiness and fulfillment. Learning from the experiences or from stories of others is important to flow. Csikszentmihalyi citing Viktor Frankl’s book: Man’s Search for Meaning says that success, like happiness, cannot be pursued. It must ensue as the unintended side-effect of one’s personal dedication to a course greater than oneself. The human being should be aware that he is not alone in his search for happiness. He should take the people around him into account in his quest, learning from them and also helping them in their own quest for happiness. If he does this, he is very likely to heighten his personal ethical sensitivity and this will enhance his capacity to be ethical in his choices.

3. Methodology

We are using a qualitative method akin to the case study approach. Thus we have collected twenty narratives of self and relating self to others. Thus each narrative could be considered as a case study. The subjects are young professionals interested in careers in management and therefore on the path to leadership positions. They are between the ages of 23 to 30 years old and have approximately 2 years of working experience on the average. The subjects were asked three questions designed to elicit self narratives with regard to self and with regard to others. The questions were:

1. Have you ever felt unable to understand someone? What happened?
2. Have you ever felt unable to understand yourself? What happened?
3. Can you describe your strengths and weaknesses?

The questions were deliberately designed to be only open-ended if the respondent was interested in narrating self. For each one, the respondent could simply answer ‘no’ and stop there. Or he or she could answer yes and go on to narrate a personal story. The freedom to tell or not tell a story helped to reduce the possibility of desirability bias. The event common to all is the experience of their inability to understand.

In analysing the content of the narratives, we ask ourselves four questions:

Who is speaking – trying to understand the self narrated individual characteristics of young people of a homogenous group with regard to nationality, age range, work experience and aspirations.

What is he or she saying – we attempt to identify commonalities and significant relationships in the communication content of the diverse persons,

Why is he or she saying this – we try to understand the narrators’ understanding of others within the context of their self narratives.

How can these individual narratives affect the narrators’ ethical sensitivity – we link the narratives with the degree of ease of ethical behaviour that a person will have in relation to his or her perception of self and others. We do this by comparing the results to the observations earlier made in the theoretical framework of the paper.

4. Summary of Results

Similarities

- 19 respondents felt there were times when they did not understand their own self.
- All 20 have found it difficult to understand others at some point in time.
- All respondents tell stories to respond to questions: including setting, time and then the major events that occurred.
- All respondents identify facts about others they would like to understand better.
- The respondents all placed importance to communication and interpersonal relation especially citing it either as a personal strength or weakness or in narrating events in which they did not understand.

A sample of summaries of the actual narratives is included as an appendix. Striking observations made while studying the narratives given by the respondents include the fact that the self narratives often made reference to other people with whom the respondents interact. It was also observed that the respondents tend to get along with people who
have qualities which they have, admire or wish to have. One can infer that the perception they have of their selves or desires affect their assessment of people they interact with.

5. Discussion

It was interesting to see the respondents were able and willing to describe themselves with narratives. Each of them answered the questions with narratives of events and their experiences. The use of narratives to describe the self and also to describe others, as seen in the literature reviewed above was also noticeable in the responses received. In fact, one of the respondents expressed the need to understand why one tells “long stories” in order to express one’s ideas. Such a respondent sees the self as a narrator but limits his narratives to specific episodes in life. A global vision of human life as a narrative would help such a person to have a better understanding of the self. One can infer that an inclusion of narratology in the curriculum of young professionals who have just begun to build their life stories could help their formation in anthropology and lay strong foundations for appreciating the principles of justice and fairness required to practice ethical behaviour. The philosophical notion that human beings are natural story tellers, supported by results of psychology research could be included in their curriculum. Thus, their attention could be drawn to the possibility of making a coherent meaningful life story with their actions and not only with their words, and in explaining events and their significance.

Another idea that is strongly present in the responses is that of the importance of understanding others. Respondent 3 affirmed that “being unable to understand someone can lead to wrong judgements and conflicts.” Other respondents also identified the need to understand others. The responses all placed importance on the understanding others and having good interpersonal relations. The emphasis on good interpersonal relations was also seen in that when making the descriptions of personal strengths and weaknesses, the respondents made references to interpersonal relations and to interpersonal justice. For example, the responses all featured attitudes to team work and communication skills as part of the respondent’s strength or weaknesses. These responses manifest the fact that life stories are intertwined. Life stories involve not only the protagonist but also other people who affect his stories. Also, having an understanding of a person’s story can help understand his individual actions and this is important for interpersonal relationships.

It is also interesting to note that some of the respondents directly specified that self-understanding is needed in order to understand others. One could say that understanding one’s life story, or personal (self) narrative, will help one understand the narratives of the others who’s stories are intertwined with one’s own.

Considering the fact that the respondents showed interest in improving their self-understanding, an introduction of narratology could help guide their personal development while including the concern for development of others and of the improvement of interpersonal relations.

Additionally, the awareness of each person’s dependence on others was seen in the responses. For example one of the respondents used the famous quote “no man is an island” while explaining in the responding to the questions. This is definitely a useful viewpoint that would easily enrich discussions of concepts within the fields of ethics, leadership, social responsibility and sustainability.

6. Conclusions

Narrative self understanding is helpful for a proper evaluation of one’s actions and relations with others. Also important for the narrative self is the need to develop society. All these topics as explained earlier are important to human fulfilment and are therefore important topics which could be included in the formation or education of managers and indeed every person.

The narratives analysed in this paper show the use of narratives in some way comparable to observations made in the theoretical framework given. Respondents identified the need to understand the self in order to be able to understand others. They also noted that they are narrators and that they learnt from the biographies of others and draw inspirations from them. Better understanding of these observed elements, which form part of a narrative self understanding, could help such managers get the best of themselves and of the totality of their life stories.

The findings reflect the need to draw people’s attention to the fact that each person is creating his own narrative and can choose to direct it towards happiness. One sees that such awareness helps to foster consciousness of and development of responsibility to others for one’s actions. Responsibility towards the development of other people could also be awoken in those people who are shown the perspectives of narrative self.
A future study of the levels of self understanding and the understanding of others after attending courses on anthropology and or business ethics by the people who wrote the narratives used in this paper would be helpful for determining other elements which could be included in their curriculum.

References


Appendix: Sample of Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN</th>
<th>Self perception</th>
<th>Perception of others</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sees self as a storyteller, uses long narratives to answer questions and want to know why Strengths includes patience, communication, supportive Discussed strengths and weaknesses in relational terms i.e. he basically gives answers which are an analysis of interactions with others</td>
<td>Wants to know why others can have profound effects on self Likes people who give to others and are willing to make sacrifices for them, dislikes selfish people</td>
<td>Identifies link between self understanding and understanding other</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Wants to understand “why my desires are infinite” and why he’s unsatisfied with victories, always wanting more Is an energetic “goal getter” Describes strengths and weaknesses with reference to his goals and abilities in quests for seeking fulfillment and also those related to interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>Puzzled about betrayals and People who don’t admit comradeship or who are not happy about the good fortune of others finds interpersonal relationships very important. Likes people with good communication skills and interpersonal relationships, and loyalty Dislikes people who have poor interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>Identifies a link between his self perception and how he treats others</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Feels the need to love the self in order to love others He is Concerned about being understood by others and wants to understand others</td>
<td>Identifies the need to understand others in order to have good interpersonal relationships Identifies that human desires and wants are unlimited and is puzzled by this Likes hardworking people who also know how and when to play dislikes opposite</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Prides self achievements and cites example of how he helps others Respondent is self motivated and determined.</td>
<td>Describes self as “blunt” with management skills but would like to change that Likes people who have contributed to his life and</td>
<td>Identifies the need for the help of others in order to succeed but</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Does not recall any significant lack of self-understanding</td>
<td>lays emphasis on the need for self motivation self confidence</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Expresses some of her strength and weaknesses in terms of relation with others</td>
<td>likes people who care about and support others</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Dislikes people with poor interpersonal relationships (e.g. who are proud, snobbish or unforgiving)</td>
<td>Puzzled about people’s lack of concern for others</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Accepts that, even though such occasions are rare, there are times he doesn’t understand himself. Does not understand why he is naturally concerned about others especially when such people do not show equal zeal for shared projects</td>
<td>Puzzled about why human beings long for change but finds it difficult to undergo changes.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Likes people who can focus on the future and bring about change</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Dislikes people who are unconcerned about others or who do not value others.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Self confidence built with self knowledge. A person should learn to make the most of himself and to do this he needs self knowledge.</td>
<td>Puzzled about human being’s insatiable desires</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dislikes people with good interpersonal relationships</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Likes people with good interpersonal relationships</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Dislikes dishonest people and those with bad interpersonal relations</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Interested in choosing a suitable career which provides a goal towards which he can direct his life</td>
<td>Has dynamism inspired by the biographies of successful business men</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sees self as a good team worker and a leader</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Expresses interest in helping others</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Describes self as confident friendly and describes personal strengths mostly with reference to relating with others</td>
<td>Identifies link between self development and relations with others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Puzzled about human affectivity, love and why people stick to things that make them suffer</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Discovers motivation from other people</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Finds it difficult to get along with some people who have ideas which are significantly different from hers</td>
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Gender and Age Group Differences in Stereotypes about Mental Health Care Providers

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Abstract

Mental health care providers play a significant role in the prevention of mental health problems and promotion of well-being. The aim of the study was to explore gender and age group differences in stereotypes about helping professionals in the mental health care field. The data were derived from 338 Latvian-speaking adults aged 18 to 87. They rated stereotypic characteristics of five typical helping professionals (a family doctor, a psychologist, a psychiatrist, a clergyman, and an astrologer) on a seven-point Likert-type scale. The stereotype content model was used to measure warmth and competence stereotypes (Fiske, Xu, Cuddy, & Glick, 1999). Gender differences show that women rate a typical psychiatrist higher on warmth and four of five helping professionals higher on competence; the family doctor is an exception. Age group differences show that the older age group (aged 50 to 87) compared to the younger age group (aged 18 to 49) rate a psychiatrist and a psychologist lower on warmth and competence, but a family doctor – higher on competence. The findings are discussed in the terms of attitudes toward mental health care providers.

Keywords: stereotypes, mental health care providers.

1. Introduction

For nearly a century stereotypes have been a significant topic in social psychology. Many studies have been published in this field (e.g., Fiske, 2012; Plous, 2003; Sherman, 1996). Social stereotypes are defined as simplified and generalised beliefs about individuals or groups (Cox, Abramson, Devine, & Hollon, 2012). Researchers have found that stereotypes affect attitudes, emotions, and behaviours (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2007). For example, groups stereotyped as high on warmth elicit active facilitation – helping and protecting, but groups stereotyped as low on warmth elicit anger, fear and active harm; therefore, stereotypes about mental health providers are the theme of great importance. Mental health care providers are professionals who offer services to treat mental disorders and illnesses, to cope with problems and for improving mental health and well-being. They play a critical role in the protection and improvement of mental health. The aim of this research was to explore gender and age group differences in stereotypes about helping professionals in the mental health care field.

Researchers who studied profession stereotypes have concluded that even neutral job titles are related to stereotypes (Lipton, O’Connor, Terry, & Bellamy, 1991). For example, certain occupations are associated with one or the other gender and/or certain ethnic group. These stereotypes usually are rooted in society beliefs, and are difficult to change. Generally, helping professions are related to warmth stereotype (see, Asuncion & Mackie, 1996; Brambilla, Sacchi, Castellini, & Riva, 2010; Sherman, 1996). For example, psychologists are perceived as warmer than engineers (Brambilla et al., 2010).

Research shows that the public attitude toward psychologists has improved over the years (von Sydow & Reimer, 1998). In general, the profession is viewed positively, and psychologists are often described as caring, friendly, helpful, and good listeners (e.g., Farberman, 1997; Firmin et al., 2012; Wollersheim & Walsh, 1993). Despite this tendency, there are still certain problems concerning public perceptions, that is, the lack of understanding about the profession and the confusion between psychologists and psychiatrists (Farberman, 1997; Firmin et al., 2012; von Sydow & Reimer, 1998). This confusion often leads to negative stereotyping and prejudice about psychologists.

In general, the public image of psychiatrists is negative (Sartorious et al., 2010). The perception of stigma, negative stereotypes, and prejudice is a major problem that requires implementation of relevant projects, as well as detailed exploration of the topic in order to find more effective solutions. Largely responsible for creation and maintenance of the
negative public image of mental health professionals is media (Gharaibeh, 2005). For most people psychiatrists are not the profession with whom they often come in contact. Therefore, the media, for example, movies, play a critical role in developing public perceptions (e.g., Gharaibeh, 2005).

There is a lack of research focusing on gender and age group differences in stereotypes about mental health professionals. Previous findings show that men and women rate characteristics of psychiatrists, psychologists, and counsellors similarly (Bremer et al., 2001). But other scientists have found that women perceive health professionals as more supportive than men perceive (Ostlund, Borg, Wide, Hensing, & Alexanderson, 2003). In general, women, compared to men, have a more positive attitudes toward seeking professional help (Chang, 2007; Mackenzie, Gekoski, & Knox 2006; ten Have et al., 2010; Nam et al., 2010). The negative attitudes toward seeking professional help that men hold, were found to be associated with masculinity norms (Levant, Wimer, Williams, Smalley, & Noronha, 2009). Endorsement of traditional gender role stereotypes decreases men’s help-seeking intentions. Interestingly, in France women prefer to seek help from psychologists, whereas men prefer to seek help from psychiatrists (Kovess-Másféty et al., 2007). The authors concluded that perhaps women might prefer to talk about their problems, while men choose a medical approach. However, this topic is still unclear and thus, more research is required.

Some studies have shown that people are more likely to seek psychological help from general practitioners (GPs) over mental health professionals (Dupree, Herrera, Tyson, Jang, & King-Kallimanis, 2010; Kovess-Másféty et al., 2007; Rickwood, Deane, Wilson, & Ciarrochi, 2005); this is especially true for older adults (Dupree, et al., 2010; Kovess-Másféty et al., 2007; Mackenzie, et al., 2006). One duty of GPs is to refer patients to other specialists. Based on that, GPs are the gatekeepers to mental health care. People may seek help from GPs because they are associated with fewer stigmas compared to mental health professionals. Despite that, there is little research regarding public attitudes toward GPs/primary care physicians/family doctors; therefore new research is needed. Previous studies have outlined both positive and negative aspects of public stereotypes; generally, positive views were found more than negative (Conroy et al., 2002; Marcinowicz, Chlabicz, & Grebowski, 2009).

An alternative mental health care provider is a member of the clergy. Religious individuals have more positive attitudes and intention to seek help from members of the faith community more so than do non-religious individuals (Smith & Simmonds, 2006). There are a few empirical studies regarding stereotypes towards religious professions. These findings show that in general Christian clergy are perceived positively, and described as friendly, helpful, and compassionate (Asuncion & Mackie, 1996; Johnstone, 1972). It should also be noted that clergy represent a number of different religions therefore warmth stereotypes cannot be straightforwardly applied for all types of clergy.

As mentioned before, people may prefer different professions in the case of mental health problems. One popular profession is astrologers (e.g., Furnham, 2000; Moodley & Sutherland, 2010). Despite the fact that astrology is not a science, many people count it as a science (Kallery, 2001; De Robertis & Delaney, 1993). The confusion between astrology and astronomy helps maintains these false beliefs. Individuals, who accept supernatural beliefs, are more willing to seek help from professionals of these beliefs (Smith & Simmonds, 2006). Because much of the public believe in some kind of astrological principles (Kallery, 2001; Rice, 2003; De Robertis & Delaney, 1993), there is a need to explore attitudes toward this profession. For example, the results from a national survey in the USA show that 33.3% of the respondents believe in astrology (Rice, 2003). Torgler (2007) has found a high degree of superstition in formerly Communist countries, including Latvia. Many researchers point out that women are more likely than men to believe in supernatural beliefs (Baker & Draper, 2010; Rice, 2003; Torgler, 2007), among them astrology (Rice, 2003). Moreover, younger people are more superstitious compared to older people (Torgler, 2007). Based on previous research, women and younger adults may have more positive stereotypes about astrologers.

Comparing stereotypes about mental health care providers, previous studies show that psychologists (including counsellors) and clergy are described more often with warmth related characteristics, whereas psychiatrists are perceived more often as cold, but competent (Schindler, Berren, Hannah, Beigel, & Santiago, 1987; von Sydow & Reimer, 1998; Wollersheim & Walsh, 1993). Higher status and prestige is attributed more to doctors than other helping professions (Schindler et al., 1987; von Sydow & Reimer, 1998). Older adults in particular prefer to seek psychological help from GPs compared to younger adults who prefer seeking help from mental health professionals (Dupree et al., 2010; Kovess-Másféty et al., 2007; Mackenzie, et al., 2006). These findings suggest that older people may hold more negative stereotypes about mental health professionals and more positive stereotypes about family doctors. Across the world women have more positive intentions to seek help for mental health problems (Chang, 2007; Mackenzie et al., 2006; ten Have et al., 2010; Nam et al., 2010). Accordingly, women may hold more positive stereotypes about all helping professionals. However, these are only assumptions; there is a lack of research available to answer which of demographic groups held more negative or more positive stereotypes about helping professionals.
2. Method

2.1 Participants

The data were collected over the Internet from 338 participants, aged 18 to 87 (M = 41.01 years, SD = 16.25). There were 180 (53.3%) women (M = 38.12 years, SD = 16.57) and 158 (46.7%) men (M = 44.30 years, SD = 15.27). Of the participants, 36.4% (n = 123) were age 50 and above and 63.6% (n = 215) age 18 to 49. The younger adult group (<50) had a mean age of 30.56 years (SD = 8.97) and older adult group (49<) had a mean age of 59.28 years (SD = 7.70). In terms of education, 62.7% of participants had 14 or more years of schooling, 34.9% had 10 to 13 years and 2.4% had 9 years of schooling. In terms of marital status, 44.3% of participants were not married, 37.3% were married, and 18.3% were previously married. In terms of religious affiliation, 43.2% were Christians, 7.4% had other religious affiliation, 36.4% were not religious, and 13.0% did not respond to the question. All participants were Latvian-speaking adults.

2.2 Materials

A modified version of the stereotype content model (SCM) was used to measure profession stereotypes (Fiske, Xu, Cuddy, & Glick, 1999). According to this model stereotypes can be divided in two fundamental dimensions: warmth and competence. SCM has been widely used exploring stereotypes of different kind of groups, among them professions (Brambilla et al., 2010; Carlsson & Bjorklund, 2010; Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2004). Previous studies have proven high validity and reliability of this instrument (e.g., Cuddy et al., 2009; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002).

In the current study participants rated five typical professionals (a family doctor, a psychiatrist, a psychologist, a clergyperson, and an astrologer) on warmth and competence scales. Items were borrowed from previous research (Fiske et al., 2002; Russel & Fiske, 2008) and translated into Latvian. The warmth factor included four items: warm, kind, trustworthy, and well-intentioned. The competence factor included four items: competent, skilful, capable, and intelligent. Using 7-point Likert-type scale (1=not at all to 6=extremely; 7=cannot tell) participants rated each of the professions on warmth and competence. In the original version of the questionnaire participants were asked to think about how the groups are viewed by society. We changed this instruction to “Regardless of whether you have visited or not, evaluate what you think of a typical family doctor/a psychiatrist/a psychologist/a clergyperson/an astrologer.” We also provided short definitions of these professions to avoid the possible confusions.

2.3 Procedure

The stereotype ratings were conducted as a part of a larger research project. Data were collected through an internet site without any time limitation. First, participants were introduced to the research. Second, they rated stereotypic characteristics of the five professionals. The sequence of professionals was counterbalanced across the participants. Finally, participants entered demographic information and were thanked for their participation. We offered no participation incentives.

3. Results

We needed to construct common and reliable scales for all 5 groups that also worked for each group separately. Based on previous SCM research (Fiske et al., 1999; Fiske et al., 2002; Russell & Fiske, 2008), 5 separated analyses were calculated (one per profession). A principal component analysis with oblimin rotation (delta =-.10) was used. Items that overlapped competence and warmth or loaded on different scales across professions were removed from the study. Warm and kind loaded onto warmth, and competent, skilful and capable loaded onto competence. Modified SCM scales accounted for 84.1 – 86.0% of the variance. Warmth items loaded from .59 to .98, and competence items loaded from .71 to .99. Reliabilities for warmth scale were from alpha .78 to .87, and .88 to .92 for competence scale.

Our primary interest was to determine whether warmth and competence stereotypes differed as a function of participant gender and age group. We used Mann-Whitney U tests with gender, and age as between-participants variables. Missing values ranged from 1 to 37, and cases were excluded test by test.

Gender differences show that women rate a typical psychiatrist higher on warmth (U = 9399.00, p < .01) and competence (U = 8899.50, p < .001). Women also rate a typical psychologist (U = 10581.00, p < .05), a clergyperson (U = 9816.50, p < .05), and an astrologer (U = 9882.00, p < .05) higher on competence. The results are depicted in Table 1.
Table 1. Gender differences in stereotypes about helping professionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Women (n = 180)</th>
<th>Men (n = 158)</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warmth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a family doctor</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a psychiatrist</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a psychologist</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a clergyman</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an astrologer</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a family doctor</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a psychiatrist</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a psychologist</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a clergyman</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an astrologer</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Age group differences show that older adults (ages ranging from 50 to 87) rate a psychiatrist (U = 9340.00, p < .05) and a psychologist (U = 9428.00, p < .01) lower on warmth. They also rate a psychiatrist (U = 8288.50, p < .01) and a psychologist (U = 8619.00, p < .001) lower on competence, but a family doctor higher on competence (U = 11102.50, p < .05). The results are depicted in Table 2.

Table 2. Age group differences in stereotypes about helping professionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Younger adults (n = 215)</th>
<th>Older adults (n = 123)</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warmth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a family doctor</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a psychiatrist</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a psychologist</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a clergyman</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an astrologer</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a family doctor</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a psychiatrist</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a psychologist</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a clergyman</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an astrologer</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

4. Discussion

The present study explored gender and age group differences in stereotypes about mental health care providers. This topic is very important in explaining attitudes toward mental health care providers based on the fact that mental health care services are underutilised across the world, especially among men and older adults. According to previous studies, the role of demographics in stereotypes of helping professionals is unclear.

Analysis of the differences between men and women show that women rate a typical psychiatrist higher on warmth and competence, and a psychologist higher on competence. Women across the world held more positive attitudes toward seeking help from mental health professionals than did men (Chang, 2007; Mackenzie et al., 2006; ten Have et al., 2010; Nam et al., 2010). The results reveal that negative stereotypes about psychiatrists – who are perceived as being cold – are held more by men, who are also more sceptical about the competence of mental health professionals. Therefore, stereotypes about psychologists and psychiatrists may explain why men have lower intentions of seeking professional mental health services.

In this study women rated a clergyperson and an astrologer higher on competence than did men. Previous research has found that women tend to be more likely to believe in supernatural beliefs (Baker & Draper, 2010; Rice,
2003; Torgler, 2007). Evidently, women use more helping services, and they are more open to visit a wide range of mental health care providers.

Analysis with older and younger adult groups shows that older adults rate a typical family doctor higher on competence, whereas a psychiatrist and a psychologist lower on competence and lower on warmth. These findings are in the line with research on help-seeking attitudes, and provide a possible explanation of the underutilisation of mental health care in older adults. Older adults prefer to seek mental health care from family doctors, whereas younger adults are more positive about psychologists and psychiatrists (Dupree et al., 2010; Kovess-Masfety et al., 2007; Mackenzie et al., 2006). Seeking family doctors for mental health problems could be seen positively if patients are referred to psychiatrists or psychologists. This may require education of family doctors about mental health problems. More positive stereotypes about psychologists and psychiatrists in younger group are explained with better education and possible experience with these professionals (e.g., school psychologists, a wide range of materials in the internet).

The results found in this study should be seen in a cultural context, but they are not representative of Latvia. In Latvia, before 1993, there were no more than 40 psychologists (Renge, 2003). Despite the rapid growth in the count of psychologists in following years, psychology is still misunderstood as a science (Renge & Austers, 2004). In Latvia, compared to older European Union countries, psychologists are still fighting for their position, which may result in more negative overall stereotype ratings, especially among older adults. In the current study, a large number of participants counted themselves as Christians; thus, they indicated a heightened rating of members of the clergy. Respondents were generally well-educated; therefore the data of a representative sample could differ.

The present research is the first to explore gender and age group differences in stereotypes about mental health care providers through the use of well-established warmth and competence scales. The outcomes contribute to the literature on attitudes towards mental health professionals. Continuing research in stereotypes about mental health care providers is very necessary. Representative cross-cultured studies are required. Increasing the utilisation of mental health care requires education of men and older adults, and improvement of health care policy.

5. Acknowledgement

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Unemployment in Kosovo in the Last Ten Years 2002-2012

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Abstract

Unemployment is defined as by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) as people who do not have a job, have actively looked for work in the past four weeks, and are currently available for work. Also, people who were temporarily laid off and are waiting to be called back to that job are included in the unemployment statistics. Those who have not looked for work within the past four weeks are not only no longer counted among the unemployed, they are also removed from the labor force by the BLS. Most people leave the labor force when they retire, go to school, have a disability that keeps them from working, or have family responsibilities. However, even people who would like to work are excluded if they aren't actively looking for work. Unemployment is an important statistic used by the government to gauge the health of the economy. If unemployment gets too high (around 6% or more), the government will try to stimulate the economy and create jobs. This paper will address the causes of unemployment in the region of Kosovo. Nationally, unemployment is caused when the economy slows down, and businesses are forced to cut costs by reducing payroll expenses. Unemployment can also be caused by competition in specific industries or companies. Advanced technology, such as computers or robots, cause unemployment by replacing worker tasks with machines. The study will be carried out in the region of Kosovo. It will also have its basis in a series of data from various institutions Kosovos. We will deliver questionnaires citizens to know arysen why are not employed and are still waiting to be changes in this respect. Will develop research for finding new programs for the elimination of unemployment. This paper investigates how macroeconomic policy shocks in Kosovo affect the total unemployment and provides evidence on the differential responses of the unemployment by sectors of economic activity. Will present the results of which sector is the largest number of unemployed in the region of Kosovo, which is the strategy of the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Trade and transport to alleviate unemployment. In this paper we present a model of countries in the region that has applied a macroeconomic policy for reducing unemployment.

Keywords: Unemployment, Macroeconomic policy, Economic activity, Causes

1. Introduction

Considering the fact that unemployment is a very important actors that indicates the level of economic development of a country and is a serious disease which economic due to its negative effects are quite severe in a country's economy, the unemployment rate is an indicator of economic welfare in general. A low level is indicative of a strong economy where job seekers can find it quickly, while a high level may indicate a weaker economy. Unemployment is a major challenge for all countries face especially in transition countries as our country. So one of the issues of concern in today's society is papunësia.Në This paper will try to examine topics related to unemployment. And will focus on the analysis of labor market data on unemployment in Kosovo from 2000 onwards. Unemployment is one of the most serious diseases macro. Often times, increasing unemployment indicator is considered as a symptom of recession phase. Therefore, theoretical analysis it takes a special importance, because it allows us to determine right and' appropriate “ medication” to cure this disease. Unemployment Costs Classified into two main groups:

a) The Economic Costs of Unemployment
b) Social Costs of Unemployment

1.1 The Economic Costs of unemployment.

From the point of view economically high Unemployment Means the actual decline in GDP then actual GDP indicator is less than potential GDP indicator. As Greater Unemployment, the Greater Will Be the gap between actual GDP and potential GDP.
The Economic cost of Unemployment expressed in macroeconomic perspective, the output gap, ie difference between actual and potential product.

One Other aspect Which show Unemployment Costs, is the fact that 'the Unemployed are a heavy Financial Burden for the government, it is the Latter That supports Financial Aid award funds for the Unemployed.

1.2 Social Costs of Unemployment.

In addition to Economic Costs, Unemployment accompanied by social Costs, Which, although it is difficult to express in value, are no less Important than social parat.Kostot Unemployment may appear in. Several forms:

a) Unemployment causes impairment of human capital.
   b) Increased Unemployment Can Serve as a warm bed to Increase crimes Nationwide
   c) Social Costs of Unemployment Also take the form of reducing the personal Dignity and deteriorated health of Unemployed

2. Measurement of unemployment

Two main features of an economic recession are the decline in GDP and sit-tja unemployment. Changes in production are measured by calculating the GDP, while the changes in measured unemployment are measured by calculating the unemployment rate. At a given time, an individual may be busy with work, unemployed or outside the labor force. Busy with work (papunësua) is considered a person who commits a paid job, even if temporarily absent from work because it is I sëmunurë, holiday or strike. Unemployed are those people who are at work but not actively seeking work, or who expect to return we work. More complete definition a person is unemployed if that does not work well:

a) has made specific efforts to find a job during the last four weeks
   b) is fired and expect to be called back on the job
   c) is waiting bjofthot for a new job in the next month.

Plus employees are unemployed workforce.

2.1 Types of unemployment

In economic literature distinguished several types of unemployment, among them the most important are:

2.1.1 Unemployment sticking (friksionale)

This type of unemployment occurs because there is a permanent mobility of people between different countries and regions work.

2.1.2 Structural unemployment

This type of unemployment occurs when there is a long-term structural mismatch between supply and demand for labor.

2.1.3 Cyclical unemployment

This type of unemployment resulting from the general deficiency of aggregate demand. It is known that the demand for labor is a derived demand.

2.1.4 Seasonal unemployment

Seasonal unemployment is related to seasonal character of production. This form of unemployment appears in the branches of the construction industry, agriculture, services, tourism, etc..

2.1.5 Voluntary and involuntary unemployment, are notions used by JM Keynes.

Involuntary unemployment according to his means the share of the working-age population, which willingly wants to
work, for reasons that need not or refuses to work with the salary level offered

3. Labor market indicators in Kosovo from 2001-2009

Statistical Office of Kosovo (SOK) has done a survey on the labor market (in December 2001), where the unemployment rate in Kosovo is estimated to be 57%. Hello students labor market indicators from this survey are presented to the table below.

Due to the lack of studies and in order to provide a clearer picture for the labor market, Riinvest Institute undertook this research. To define whether an unemployed person is using the criterion that a person is looking for work. Moreover, a person person is unemployed if he / she is of working age and located in Kosovo. These criteria are important because families surveyed were also asked përnumrin of people that they have migrated. Of the 8,552 persons who survey provides data, 4,937 persons were of working age and in Kosovo. The table below shows the key indicators of the labor market in Kosovo from two sources, the poll of polls and from the Statistical Office of Kosovo (SOK). The latter was carried out in December 2001. In polls survey, respondents were asked several times if they have done any work during a given period of time so that they provide for family consumption. Unemployment and other labor market indicators are defined based on these answers.

Table 1: Indicators of the Labour Market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rinvest Survey</th>
<th>ESK Survey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment to population of working age</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The unemployed to the working age population</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity Rate</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment Rate</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed Rate</td>
<td>49.0</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Household Survey, Rinvest, December 2002; ESK, December 2001

By Rinvestit survey shows that the unemployment rate in Kosovo is 49%, and it is higher than unemployment in Eastern European countries. After Kosovo, FYR Macedonia that has high unemployment rate (34% in 2001). However, care should be taken in comparing unemployment rates between different countries as different methodologies used.

Very high rate of unemployment in Kosovo can be explained by the fact that throughout the 1990s has dominated a repressive situation and the war in 1999, who have limited economic growth as the main determinant of unemployment. On the other hand, massive removal of workers from work in the early 1990's and the lack of institutional support of the development of the private sector contributed to the high rate of unemployment.

4. Labour market indicators in Kosovo 2009

First important indicator of the labor market is the relative size of the working age population, such as persons aged between 15 and 64 years, which approximately defines the potential available workforce. In Kosovo, this figure according to AFP SOK 2009 is comparatively low with only 64.0%. The reason for this becomes apparent by looking at the age structure. Kosovo has a relatively "young", with almost a third of the population under age 15 and 7.8% of the population over age 65. Such a structure is typical for classical population pyramid.
Figure 1: Average size of one-year age groups by gender, 2009

The same facts are presented by dependency rates of youth and old age, which describes how many people under the age of 15 and over the age of 65, for every 100 people of working age. These comparisons show that for young people the ratio is approximately 1:2, but for seniors only 1:10.¹

5. Activity status

The second group of key indicators of the labor market refers to the actual activity of the population, distinguishing between three statuses: employed, unemployed, and inactive (e) (for the relevant definitions, see Figure 1 above). The distribution of males, females and total population by activity status is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Population by employment status and gender, 2008 to 2009

Here contribute to several factors, such as: first, included are all persons under the age of 15 by definition, secondly, many young people are still being educated, thirdly, a number of older persons leave the labor force before reaching the age limit working. Fourth, many women take on family and household responsibilities are not engaged in any economic activity, and, lastly, some people of both sexes have given up looking for work because they believe no work is available. To attach figures last factors, however, would require additional data or analysis. These findings are substantiated by the employment, unemployment and activity, that generally are computed only for the working age population (see Figure 3).²

¹www.ks-gov.net/esk
²www.ks-gov.net/esk
6. Unemployment data for the year 2010

With a total of 335,260 people registered as unemployed in the public employment services in Kosovo until the end of 2010 - representing a decrease of -1.1% compared to 2009. Similar to the previous year, the registered unemployed represent a degree of unemployment registration approximately 37-41% of the population economically active. Mbi 90% of the registered unemployed are long-term unemployed (12 months +). Approximately 47.9% of the registered as unemployed are women. If compared with 2009, the number of registered women is decreasing by about -0.2%. The unemployment rate among women is about 55-58%, while the unemployment rate for men is about 28-32%. Approximately 60% of the registered unemployed refer to the qualification level of education as "unskilled". The number of unemployed in this group of qualifications is decreasing by about -1.5%. More than 72% of all registered unemployed belong to a school under the education level mesme. Grup young - 15-24 years old - face the highest level of entries in unemployment (2.4%). average, an employment officer in Kosovo in 2010 has had to care for unemployed 1842: This is more than 12 times than the average Evropiane. Me a placement rate of more than 25.3%, and the unemployed with university degree have faced more favorable situation compared to other qualification levels: the unemployed "unqualified" have reached a placement rate of 1.4% in 2010, while the employment rate of women unemployed "unskilled" is down 0.67%. Unemployed women with university diploma level has reached the level of employment prejreth 33.7%. While Albanians achieve a placement rate of about 2.01%, and other Kosovo minorities achieve a placement rate of 2.65%. Unemployment in the 15-24 year-old has reached the scale with the highest activation (1.55%) and the highest proportion (49.4%) of all participants in training for 2010.

7. Registered unemployment by skills

Comparison of levels of qualification in 2007/09 unemployed persons "unskilled" in 2010 still represents the highest proportion total number of unemployed people (60%) and the rate in registrations (-1.5%). At the same time the level of qualifications again represents the highest number of new registrations (9999 people) - having fallen by an average of -3.9% from the total number of entries compared with last year's entries (tabela. 2 and fig. 2), as the only group of qualified, unemployed at the level of qualification "semi skilled" an increase of (18.4%) in comparison with the previous year, while the group of "qualified", represents a decrease in the number recordings (-16%), which probably also refers to administrative changes with regard to institutional definitions qualification levels. Despite a linear correlation that remains in terms of qualification levels and unemployment growth (fig. 2), a closer look of the resulting figures in 2010, as in 2009, presented a continuous segmentation of labor Kosovar market. 2). Qualifications as to be high ("high school" and "university") face: the highest average monthly entry as well as the highest average monthly outflow, showing dynamic on the proportion of the labor market, respectively lower risk to remain unemployed (long-term). While calculative proportion of long-term unemployment in Kosovo is 87% on average, the proportion of long-term unemployment calculative referring to higher qualification levels is about 70% in average.
Table 2: Unemployment by qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>ISCED</th>
<th>Registered unemployment</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>12 monthly inflows</th>
<th>Exits 12 Months</th>
<th>ShI Monthly average</th>
<th>ShE Monthly average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prequalified</td>
<td>0-2</td>
<td>200709</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>9999</td>
<td>13054</td>
<td>0.41%</td>
<td>0.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi Qualification</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12594</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>1185</td>
<td>0.27%</td>
<td>0.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualified</td>
<td>3a</td>
<td>28353</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>1201</td>
<td>0.21%</td>
<td>0.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary schools</td>
<td>3c</td>
<td>87874</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6560</td>
<td>6367</td>
<td>0.62%</td>
<td>0.61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2155</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>0.66%</td>
<td>0.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>5a+</td>
<td>3575</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2055</td>
<td>1542</td>
<td>5.20%</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Unemployment by MPMS qualifications / DPP / Labour and Employment Kosovë.2010 Registered unemployment by age

Regarding unemployment by age, the majority of the unemployed (148,059) Accumulated figures still refer to the age of 25-39jécar. However, a comparison of directly the total figures by age suffer from the number of different years in terms of coverage in any age group.

Table 3: Unemployment by age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>Registered unemployment</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>12 monthly inflows</th>
<th>exits 12 months</th>
<th>ShI Monthly average</th>
<th>ShE Monthly average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>106342</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>7705</td>
<td>5259</td>
<td>0.61%</td>
<td>0.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-39</td>
<td>148059</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>8375</td>
<td>9698</td>
<td>0.47%</td>
<td>0.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-54</td>
<td>63631</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>2822</td>
<td>5010</td>
<td>0.36%</td>
<td>0.65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>17228</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>1012</td>
<td>3582</td>
<td>0.47%</td>
<td>1.66%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Registered unemployment by ethnicity

A presentation by ethnicity census followed the first priority goal qetekrahasoheni developments in comparative form in terms of access that minorities in Kosovo services employment. The 2010 growth rate in Records presents the results in a decrease for all the registered unemployed. Serb community undergoes a decrease of about -1.3% Other minorities also registered with -3.8% and for the Albanians of registered decline in enrollment is less sensitive by about -0.9% (see fig. 4).

Fig.4. 12-Month growth rate by Ethnicity

Source: Monthly growth rate MPMS / DPP / Labour and Employment Kosovë.2010
9. Conclusion

Based on all this that shqyrova so far in this paper has left to figure out that unemployment is a "disease" against which try to fight everyone, but no matter how big and powerful be it nevertheless attempts develops and makes its own. Unemployment is a serious disease which is associated macroeconomic and other negative consequences. Unemployment is not a phenomenon that affects only poor countries, but it affects everyone, and consequences, especially in developing countries and that causes a negative phenomenon, as well as macroeconomic state. Also I tried to focus somewhat and labor market related data on unemployment in Kosovo during the last decade. By Rinvestit survey shows that the unemployment rate in Kosovo is 49%, and it is higher than unemployment in Eastern European countries. After Kosovo, FYR Macedonia has a high unemployment rate (34% in 2001). However, care should be taken in comparing unemployment rates between different countries as different methodologies used. Almost 40% of Kosovo males of working age, were actually employed in 2009, the corresponding figure for women is about 13%, with the overall rate lies somewhere in between and is over 26%.". The number of unemployed in this group of qualifications is decreasing by about -1.5%. More than 72% of all registered unemployed belong to a school under the education level mesme.Grup young - 15-24 years old - face the highest level of entries in unemployment (2.4%). average, an employment officer in Kosovo in 2010 has had to care for unemployed 1842

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An Empirical Analysis of US Interest Rate Swap Spreads during the Sovereign Crisis of the Euro Zone

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Abstract

This paper analyzes US interest rate swap spreads in relation to the sovereign crisis of the Euro zone. The results reveal that swap spreads of 5- and 10-years incorporate default risk positively in accordance with the theory. According to Ito (2010) which analyzed the period of global financial crisis stemming from subprime loan problem in the US, the default risk is negatively incorporated in the period of financial crisis stemming from US sub-prime loan. This is mainly due to the difference of magnitude of the two crises. The impact of the sovereign crisis of the Euro zone was not as great as the previous crisis. On the other hand, the impacts of slope, TED spread, and volatility are similar to Ito (2010). Steeper yield curve causes narrower swap spreads in swap spreads of 2- and 10-year. When liquidity gets tighter in money market, swap spreads of 2- and 5-year get wider. The size of impact is larger in 2-year swap spread. Higher volatility causes the widening of swap spreads in 5- and 10-year. This is mainly because the market participants were uncertain as for the future of monetary policy by the FRB.

Keywords: Default Risk, Liquidity Premium, Monetary Policy, Sovereign Crisis of Euro Zone, Swap Spread

1. Introduction

An interest rate swap is an agreement between two parties to exchange cash flows in the future. In a typical agreement, two counterparties exchange streams of fixed and floating interest rate payments. A fixed interest rate payment can thus be transformed into a floating payment and vice versa. The amount of each floating rate payment is based on a variable rate that has been mutually agreed upon by both counterparties. For example, the floating rate payment could be based on 6-month LIBOR (London Interbank Offered Rate). The market for interest rate swaps grew exponentially in the 1990’s. According to a survey by BIS (Bank for International Settlements), the notional outstanding volume of interest rate swap amounted to US$379,401 billions at the end of June 2012. Differences between swap rates and government bond yields of the same maturity are referred to as swap spreads. If the swap and government bond markets are efficiently priced, swap spreads usually reveal something about the perception of the systemic risk in the banking sector.

As Ito (2010) mentions, US swap spreads in the period of financial crisis from February 8, 2007 through March 12, 2009 did not incorporate default risk positively. Swap spreads became negative. Usually, swap rates are supposed to be higher than government bond yields. The function of price discovery in the market was lowered because of liquidity shortage caused by financial shocks, such as that experienced by BNP Paribas shock in August, 2007 and the collapse of Lehman Brothers in September, 2008.

This paper analyzes US interest rate swap spreads in the market turmoil during the sovereign crisis of the Euro zone. Government bond markets in several countries started to experience severe stress in the first half of 2011. Massive sell-offs were observed especially in Greek government bonds. At the same time, the CDS (Credit Default Swap) premium for Greek bonds jumped dramatically. This triggered the rises in government bond yields and CDS premiums in countries such as Italy, Spain and Portugal. The impact of the crisis spread to other markets in the form of declining stock prices and higher government bond yields. The contribution of this paper can be described as follows. This is the first paper to analyze US interest rate swap spreads in relation to the sovereign crisis of the Euro zone.

The remainder of this paper is as follows. Section 2 provides the literature review. Section 3 discusses the determinants of swap spread. Section 4 describes the data and provides summary statistics. Section 5 presents the framework of the analysis and the results. Section 6 concludes.

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1 Statistics are cited from Semiannual OTC derivatives statistics for the end of June 2012. For details, see Bank for International Settlements (2012).
2. Literature Review

Sun et al (1993) examine the effect of dealers' credit reputations on swap quotations and bid-offer spreads by using quotations from two interest rate swap dealers with different credit ratings (AAA and A). The AAA offer rates are significantly higher than the A offer rates, and the AAA bid rates are significantly lower than the A bid rates. They also document the relation between swap rates and par bond yields estimated from LIBOR and bid rate (LIBID) data. They identify some of the problems in testing the implications of swap pricing theory.

Duffie and Huang (1996) present a model for valuing claims subject to default by both contracting parties, such as swaps and forwards. With counterparties of different default risk, the promised cash flows of a swap are discounted by a switching discount rate that, at any given state and time, is equal to the discount rate of the counterparty for whom the swap is currently out of the money (that is, a liability). The impact of credit-risk asymmetry and netting is presented through both theory and numerical examples, which include interest rate and currency swaps.

Brown et al (1994) analyze US swap spreads to find that 1) short-term, 1-, and 3-year swaps are priced differently from longer-term, 5-, 7-, and 10-year swaps; and 2) the pricing dynamics for all five swap maturities changed substantially during the period spanning January 1985 to May 1991. Cossin and Pirotte (1997) conduct empirical analysis on transaction data and show support for the presence of credit risk in swap spreads. Credit ratings appear to be a significant factor affecting swap spreads, not only for their pooled sample but also for IRS and for CS separately. In IRS, the credit rating impact on prices seems to be largely to the detriment of the non-rated companies.

Lang et al (1998) argue that an interest rate swap, as a non-redundant security, creates surplus which will be shared by swap counterparties to compensate their risks in swaps. Analyzing the time series impacts of swap counterparties’ changes of risks on swap spreads, they conclude that both lower and higher rating bond spreads have positive impacts on swap spreads. Lekkos and Milas (2001) assess the ability of the factors proposed in previous research to account for the stochastic evolution of the term structure of U.S. and U.K. swap spreads. Using as factor proxies the level, volatility, and slope of the zero-coupon government yield curve as well as the Treasury-Bill–LIBOR spread and the corporate bond spread, they identify a procyclical behavior for the short-maturity US swap spreads and a countercyclical behavior for longer maturity US swap spreads. Liquidity and corporate bond spreads are also significant, but their importance varies with maturity.

Minton (1997) directly tests the analogy between short-term swaps and Eurodollar strips and finds that fair-value short-term swap rates exist in the Eurodollar future market. However, proxies for differential probability of counterparty default are statistically significant determinants of the difference between OTC swap rates and swap rates derived from Eurodollar futures prices for maturities of 3 and 4 years.

Lekkos and Milas (2001) check the influence of TED (T-
bill Euro Dollar) spread. First, a case in which the floating rate and fixed rate are swapped based on the yield curve of government bond is described in equation (1):

\[
\frac{f_n}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \frac{E(f_n)}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \cdots + \frac{E(f_n)}{(1+R_f)^{n}} = \frac{C}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \frac{C}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \cdots + \frac{C}{(1+R_f)^{n}} \\
\]

\(E(\cdot)\) is an operator indicating expectation, \(C\) is a coupon, \(f_n\) is a floating rate, \(R_f\) is a fixed rate of government bond.

In equation (1), the floating rate and fixed rate are swapped on the condition that there is no default risk. Present values of both floating rate and fixed rate become equal. Here exchange of cash flows is presupposed to happen once a year.

In the case of swap transactions, the floating rate is the Euro dollar, for example, LIBOR which is usually higher than short-term government bills. Thus fixed side results in higher rates. Here the difference between the Euro-dollar rate, for example, LIBOR and the short-term TB (Treasury- Bill) rate is defined as TED spread. Swap rate and TED spread are related as described in equation (2):

\[
\frac{f_n + TED_n}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \frac{E(f_n + TED_n)}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \cdots + \frac{E(f_n + TED_n)}{(1+R_f)^{n}} = \frac{C + SS}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \frac{C + SS}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \cdots + \frac{C + SS}{(1+R_f)^{n}} \\
\]

\(TED_n\) is TED spread, \(SS\) is swap spread.

Equation (2) can be rewritten into equation (3) to show that swap spread is a weighted average of present and future TED spreads.

\[
TED_n + \frac{E(TED_n)}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \cdots + \frac{E(TED_n)}{(1+R_f)^{n}} = SS\left( \frac{1}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \frac{1}{(1+R_f)^{n}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(1+R_f)^{n}} \right) \\
\]

In addition to liquidity premium, default risk, slope of yield curve and volatility have been considered determinants of interest rate swap spread in previous studies.

3.2 Default Risk

According to Minton (1997), Brown et al (1994), and Lekkos and Milas (2001), the default risk in swaps can be proxied with the information from the corporate bond market. Any such proxy is imperfect, as notes in previous studies, because the characteristics of swaps and corporate bonds are not entirely comparable. Nevertheless, because swap default spreads are unobservable, the difference between the yield on a portfolio of corporate bonds and the yield on an equivalent government bond can be used as a proxy for the default premium.

3.3 Slope of Yield Curve and Volatility

Following the Sorensen and Bollier’s (1994) framework, in which the slope of the term structure and interest rate volatility determine the value of the option to default, these two variables are used. It is notable that the impacts of the yield curve and interest rate volatility on swap spreads may not be symmetrical under various market conditions.

According to Alworth (1993), the impact of the slope of the term structure on swap spreads could be either positive or negative. When the yield curve is upward sloping, the fixed payer (floating receiver) is exposed to higher counterparty risk due to higher default risk exposure associated with the higher future floating payments. A lower fixed swap rate will compensate for this increased risk. Swap spreads are thus expected to be negatively related to the slope of the term structure.

On the other hand, the expected default premium should be higher at a time of recession and financial instability. In this case, swap spreads are expected to be positively related to the slope of the term structure. Increasing interest rate volatility is often associated with economic uncertainty, as such, it is expected to positively influence swap spreads. Similarly, as Huang and Chen (2007) describe, swap spreads may be more responsive to the shape of yield curve during periods when it is steep due to the “flight to quality” concern. Huang and Chen (2007) and Ito (2010) use slope of yield curve and volatility. They calculate volatility of 2-year US Treasury notes using the EGARCH model.

4. Data

About 45 months of daily data, from January 14, 2009 to September 5, 2012, were chosen. These data are quoted from the Federal Reserve Statistical Release (H.15). S&P downgraded the rating of Greek government bonds to A− on
January 14, 2009, giving the reason that Greece’s fiscal deficit would worsen amid the downward trend of the global economy. The ECB (European Central Bank) introduced OMT (Outright Monetary Transaction) on September 6, 2013. During the sample period, on February 27, 2012, S&P downgraded the rating of Greek government bonds to SD (Selective Default).

4.1 US Interest Rate Swap Spread

US interest rate swap rate minus US government bond yield in the corresponding maturity is defined as swap spread. SS2 is 2-year swap spread. SS5 is 5-year swap spread. SS10 is 10-year swap spread. The descriptive statistics of swap spreads in each sample period are provided in Table 1. The movements of swap spreads in 2-years and 10-years for the whole sample period are shown in Figure 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of swap spreads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Median</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SS2</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>0.850</td>
<td>0.280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS5</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>1.030</td>
<td>0.290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS10</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>-0.130</td>
<td>0.690</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: SS2 = 2-year swap spread, SS5 = 5-year swap spread, SS10 = 10-year swap spread

4.2 Determinants of Swap Spread

4.2.1 Liquidity Premium

Liquidity premium is defined as TED spread between the 6-month Eurodollar rate and the 6 month TB rate.

4.2.2 Default Risk

Default risk is defined as the yield spread between corporate bonds and 10-year US Treasury note yields. Corporate bond spread is considered to represent default risk. Moody’s seasoned Aaa corporate bond is used. According to Moody’s Investors Service, Aaa corporate bonds are judged to be of the highest quality, with minimal credit risk.

4.2.3 Slope of Yield Curve

Slope of yield curve is defined as the differential between 2- and 10-year US Treasury note yields, as in Huang and Chen (2007) and Ito (2010).
4.2.4 Volatility

Yield volatility calculated by the EGARCH model is defined as volatility\(^2\). The 2-year US Treasury note yield is used for the calculation as in Huang and Chen (2007) and Ito (2010).

The descriptive statistics of the determinants of swap spreads in each sample period are provided in Table 2.

### Table 2. Descriptive statistics of determinants of swap spreads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Median</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AAA</td>
<td>1.875</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td>1.390</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>1.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLOPE</td>
<td>2.236</td>
<td>0.465</td>
<td>1.210</td>
<td>2.910</td>
<td>2.370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TED</td>
<td>0.654</td>
<td>0.463</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>2.200</td>
<td>0.490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VOLA</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.114</td>
<td>0.035</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: AAA = Aaa corporate bond spread, TED = TED spread, SLOPE = slope of yield curve, VOLA = volatility.

### 5. Framework of Analysis and Result

This section indicates how to analyze the determinants of interest rate swap spread. First, OLS is used to estimate equation (4). The serial correlations and heteroscedasticity of \( \varepsilon \), are adjusted by the method of Newey and West (1987). Twelve lag periods are used. The analysis for each sample period is conducted. The results are shown in Table 3.

\[
\text{spread}_t = \alpha + \beta_1\text{AAA}_t + \beta_2\text{SLOPE}_t + \beta_3\text{TED}_t + \beta_4\text{VOLA}_t + \varepsilon_t
\]

(4)

AAA = Aaa corporate bond spread; SLOPE = slope of yield curve; TED = TED spread; VOLA = volatility.

As for Aaa corporate bond spread, the negative coefficient of 2-year spread is significant at the 10 % level. The positive coefficients of 5- and 10-year spreads are significant at 10 % and 5 % levels respectively. This means that swap spreads of 5- and 10-years incorporate default risk in accordance with the theory. This point is totally different from that proposed by Ito (2010), which analyzed the determinants of swap spreads during the period of global financial crisis stemming from subprime loan problem in US.

As for slope, the negative coefficients of 2- and 10-year spreads are significant at the 5 % and 1 % levels, respectively. The fixed payer (floating receiver) is exposed to higher counterparty risk due to higher default risk exposure associated with the higher future floating payments because the yield curve is upward sloping, as mentioned in Alworth (1993). A lower fixed swap rate will compensate for this increased risk. This result is the same as Ito (2010). As for TED spread, the positive coefficients of 2- and 5-year spreads are significant at the 1 % level. This fact indicates that the market participants paid attention to liquidity premiums only in short and mid-term swaps. This point is also similar to Ito (2010).

### Table 3. Result of regression analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \alpha )</th>
<th>( \beta_1\text{AAA} )</th>
<th>( \beta_2\text{SLOPE} )</th>
<th>( \beta_3\text{TED} )</th>
<th>( \beta_4\text{VOLA} )</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
<th>SER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SS2</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>-0.069</td>
<td>-0.058</td>
<td>0.242</td>
<td>0.908</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td>0.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.048)</td>
<td>(-1.677)*</td>
<td>(-2.298)**</td>
<td>(8.728)***</td>
<td>(1.384)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS5</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>-0.029</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>1.536</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td>0.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.326)</td>
<td>(1.884)*</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>(8.635)***</td>
<td>(2.830)***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS10</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>-0.084</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
<td>3.122</td>
<td>0.295</td>
<td>0.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.641)***</td>
<td>(2.047)***</td>
<td>(-4.710)***</td>
<td>(-0.781)</td>
<td>(4.871)***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Values in the parenthesis are t statistics.

***,**,* indicates significance at 1 %, 5 % and 10% levels respectively.

As for volatility, the positive coefficients of 5- and 10-year spreads are significant at the 1 % level. The market participants were uncertain as to the future monetary policy of the FRB (Federal Reserve Board) and speculation on the

\(^2\)See Nelson (1991) for the EGARCH model.
path of monetary policy thus caused more volatility in the market. This volatility can be a positive determinant of US swap spreads in the period of financial crisis. This point is basically same as Ito (2010).

6. Concluding Remarks

This paper analyzes US interest rate swap spreads in relation to the sovereign crisis of the Euro zone. The results reveal that swap spreads of 5- and 10-years incorporate default risk positively in accordance with the theory. The function of price discovery in the market worked in spite of financial shocks caused by the sovereign crisis of the Euro zone. The impact of default risk is totally different to that proposed by Ito (2010), which analyzed the period of global financial crisis stemming from subprime loan problem in the US. According to Ito (2010), the default risk is negatively incorporated in the period of financial crisis. This is mainly due to the difference of magnitude of the two crises. The impact of the sovereign crisis of the Euro zone was not as great as the previous crisis stemming from US sub-prime loan.

On the other hand, the impacts of slope, TED spread, and volatility are similar to those found by Ito (2010). Steeper yield curve causes narrower swap spreads of 2- and 10-years. When liquidity gets tighter in the money market, swap spreads of 2- and 5-years get wider. The impact is greater in magnitude in 2-year swap spreads. Higher volatility causes the widening of 5- and 10-year swap spreads. This is mainly because the market participants were uncertain about the FRB’s future monetary policy. The FOMC (Federal Open Market Committee) decided to increase its purchase of assets from the markets on September 13, 2012\(^3\), 8 days after the sample period of this paper ended.

7. Acknowledgement

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References


\(^3\) To support a stronger economic recovery and to help ensure that inflation, over time, is at the rate most consistent with its dual mandate, the Committee agreed today to increase policy accommodation by purchasing additional agency mortgage-backed securities at a pace of $40 billion per month.
Political System Discussions in Turkish Media

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Abstract

In Turkey, after 2002 general elections the “Justice and Development Party” has come to the government by itself. Demilitarization of the political system of Turkey was gradually completed and a new, civilian, participatory constitution is required. Discussions on a required new constitution has been accompanied by the strengthening the executive branch. In crisis situations, instead of strengthening the democratic participatory institutions, it is always preferable to reorganize the political institutions in favor of the executive branch. In this context presidential system or semi-presidential system has been seen as a new model of government and guaranty of the stability of government instead of the existing semi-parliamentary / or / semi-semi-presidential political system. The media as an ideological apparatus of the state has been acted its role on the discussion programmes. The academicians, intellectuals and journalists as organic intellectuals have been discussing on “which political system is good for our democracy?” In this paper, it is aimed to analyze the TV discussion programmes on a new political system. Methodologically three TV news channels and their discussion programmes will be chosen throughout four weeks. It is intended to analyze the program contents on democratic discourses.

1. Introduction

In Turkey, in the 1980’s, the national development policies and the import substitution policies came to an end and the national economy has been articulating the global economic system by using “stabilization programmes” and “structural adjustment programmes”.

The 1990s was a long decade of political instability which determined the political agenda with coalition governments and constant indirect interventions by the Turkish army that have been called Praetorianism. After the 2002 general elections, the “Justice and Development Party” won a majority in parliament. During its time in power, AKP (Justice and Development Party) has succeeded in reducing the functions of the army with in the political system, changing many Articles of the Constitution and some laws. Decreasing the direct or indirect interventions of the armed forces primarily at a legal level (by changing the laws), AKP intended to change the 1982 Constitution, made by the military regime. An expectation of a more liberal, participatory, pluralistic constitution relying on a consensus of different social groups has appeared in Turkish society. Besides democratic expectations, discussions of political system specifically the “presidential system” have entered the political arena.

Methodologically, an instutional approach has been used with Poulantzas’s “authoritarian statism” conceptualization. Three news channels and their three TV discussion programmes were chosen for study over a four month period. Media, as the ideologically most important and impressive aparatus of the state, made programmes to gain the consent of a large part of society. It is intended to analyse the discourses of the debates in the discussion programmes.

2. “Authoritarian Statism”

Poulantzas’s conceptualization “authoritarian statism” helps us to understand the discussion of political system at the same time as the instutional approach. In his book State, Power, Socialism he stated that a new form of state appeared.(was going to appear). This means, the institutions of political democracy and formal liberties will be gradually weakened and state control will be intensified throughout social and economic life. Authoritarian Statism, represents the new “democratic” form of bourgeois republic in the actual phase (Poulantzas, 2004: 234).

Following Poulantzas, Bob Jessop defined the characteristics of Authoritarian Statism as, the political power delegated to the executive branch from the legislative branch and the personalization of power intensifies in the prime minister or (here) president. Legislative, executive and juridical powers tend to become integrated. The State of Law weakens in favour of Personalization. Giving up their traditional roles, political parties take on transmission roles for the executive branch. Media becomes an ideological aparatus of the state creating the political legitimacy and the power of
control of the media gradually expands. At the same time as some forms of neoliberal legitimacy, a plebiscitary and populist technology of consent spreads out (Jessop, 2005: 100-101).

3. Neoliberal Economic Policies and the Crisis or A Brief History of Presidential System Discussions

The history of political system discussions goes back to the 1980’s when Turgut Özal’s “Motherland Party” (ANAP) was in power during his prime ministry and presidential term. In economic crisis situations it is always preferable to change political institutions in favour of the executive branch. The center right had come together under the flag of ANAP and Özal’s desire for a very powerful executive determined the discussions on political system at that time. But ANAP had appeared to be a Leader Party, it’s life depended on it’s leader’s life. After Turgut Özal’s unexpected sudden death the political system discussions were suspended.

Articulating with the world system by way of structural adjustment and stabilization programmes, the Turkish economy entered in neoliberal process after the 24 January 1980 economic decisions. According to the 1961 Constitution Turkey’s governmental system was very typically parliamentary, the executive branch was double-headed, president and prime minister and his/her government. Presidential elections were indirect in that parliament elects the president as the non-responsible head of the executive branch. In 1971 some of the Articles of the Constitution had been changed by the intervention of the armed forces in favour of the executive branch of the parliamentary system.

In the second half of the 1970’s, a structural crisis of capitalism affected the Turkish economic system, especially in 1977. The import substitution development model had come to it’s end. In the sense of a Gramscian hegemonic crisis, this economic crisis had turned into political crisis, the political institutions collapsed, the social opposition movements arose all over the country. The military coup d’état and its General had presented itself as a moderator above all of the classes, all of the social groups and thus took political power. At the same time as following the neoliberal economic policies, the constitution and almost all the political institutions had been changed radically by the violence of the state. The parliamentary system - seen to be responsible for the political crisis – had been changed in favour of the executive branch, and the president’s political authority was expecially enhanced. But political practice remained parliamentary. During the ANAP period, after Turgut Özal’s prime ministry, he was indirectly elected as president, by parliament. Following Duverger, the “system’s political practice appeared as presidentialism” (Stefan&Skach, 1994: 134-135) at that time. The political system operated, the party in power had a majority in parliament and the president was from the same party.

Every crisis is indeed a resettlement process; economic reorganisation processes need political and administrative regulation. The “president” (Özal, calling himself that, recalled the United States president in people’s minds) twisted the system with the help of the majority of his party in parliament. As the politically non-responsible head of the executive branch, issuing Decree Laws, took the authority from the legislative to the presidency. Because of the falling profit rates of capital that had caused the economic crisis, the state was reorganized by delegation of authority from the legislative to a strong executive and the decision-making processes were separated.

After the AKP’s 57.88 % success in the 12 September 2010 referendum, some changes accepted in the existing 1982 Constitution made by the military regime on 12 September 1980, expectations of a more participatory, liberal, inclusive of human rights and social consensus constitution have risen in respond to the demands of individuals and many social groups. Discussions on the new constitution have taken place on platforms such as congresses, conferences, forums and especially in the media, by academicians, journalists, politicians and members of many pressure groups. The government party’s leader, Erdoğan, declared a new constitution had to bring a new government system, a presidential system. The new constitution discussions have turned into new political system discussions and engaged the political agenda, dating from the referendum results.

Indeed, Turkey’s political tradition has always been parliamentary; the proportional representation election system fosters a multiparty system that represents the different groups in society. One of the most remarkable tradition is the political parties’ strongly disciplined attitude in the legislature. The “necessary condition” of the parliamentary system is party discipline, without party discipline the system turns into inoperative legislative government (Sartori, 1997:127).

4. AKP Party and Reorganization of the Political and Administrative Spheres

After the AKP came to power in 2002, the party’s leader, Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, has expressed a desire for political system change. In most of his speeches beginning from 2003, he declared a presidential model like in the United States. The AKP is a massive, dominant governmental party. In the 2011 general election it took 49.83 % of the votes and has
won 327 seats in parliament, gradually increasing its votes since 2002 to the last 2011 general election.

When we look at the history of political system discussions, it is easily seen that party and its leaders who believe in and so enthusiastically pursue neoliberal economic policies want to change the system to presidentialism. At the institutional level a strong and stable executive to accelerate decision-making processes is required. Presidentialism comprises some difficulties, it operates in the form of winner-take-all; this makes democratic politics a zero-sum game (Linz, 1992: 123). So the functions of opposition party or parties decrease in the political sphere. During its years in power AKP has provided continuous absolute majority in parliament and has been the dominant party for 11 years. At institutional level it hasn’t confronted any problems that could create political instability. Relying on its majority in parliament in the legislation processes for constitutional changes and as a part of global economic policy made in accordance with these decisions changed the public administration and more importantly changed the juridical system profoundly.

One party with absolute majority in parliament and with a personalization of power operates like presidentialism. Only the leader –the prime minister- speaks (only a few of the other ministers in the government speak only on their own areas) and has a strong control over the government and over his party; that leads to the personalization of power. It looks very similar to a presidential system when the prime minister has the majority of parliament behind him as in the case of AKP party.

According to the draft AKP constitution, the president has the authority to issue executive decrees. The legislative delegates its authority to the executive, to the president. Thus the president can decide to send the army abroad although this power belongs only to the legislative in every other constitution.

The most remarkable article of the draft AKP constitution, is the power of the president to dissolve parliament. This is different from United States and also different from Latin American countries presidential systems. The president and the members of parliament will be elected at the same time by the electorate. Division of power as the defining feature of presidentialism is refused. Here, a strong leader is wanted for the future of AKP governments, but full presidential system as in the United States, is not considered. If the president and the parliament majority are from different political parties, the president can dissolve parliament himself (or herself). So elections will be a kind of plebiscit, and this will be reinforced by the personalization of the president. Whenever the president wants, the circumstances to favour him (her), parliamentary elections will be repeated in practice.

Karl Marx in his book “18th Brumaire of Louis Bonaparte” emphasized dual democratic legitimacy: “The elected National stands in a metaphysical relation, but the elected President in a personal relation. The National Assembly, indeed, exhibits in its individual representatives the manifold aspects of the national spirit, but in the President this national spirit finds its incarnation. As against the Assembly, he possesses a sort of divine right; he is President by the grace of the people” (1976: 33; and Linz, 1994: 8). Here, Marx predicted that the sharing of authority between the president and the National Assembly would be ended by the 1848 Constitution in France. The *Achilles heel* of the institutional and constitutional structure collapsed at touch of the thricorn hat of Napoleon.

There is no democratic principle in presidential regimes based on dual democratic legitimacy that can decide who represents the will of the people in principle (Linz, 1994: 7).

5. TV Discussion Programs on Political System: Manufacturing Consent

Three TV news channels, “CNN Türk”, “NTV” and “Habertürk” and their live discussion programmes “Ne Oluyor?”, “Dört Bir Taraf”, “Türkiye’nin Nabzı” have been chosen. It is aimed to analysis the debaters’ discourse in the context of democracy.

The CNN Türk channel, “Ne Oluyor?” (“What is Happening?”) discussion programme, has a presenter and mostly calls academicians, technocrats, ministers. The debaters are invited to discuss “political systems and constitutions”, the chief of “constitutional comission” and at the same time member of parliament, on the one side, on the other side the professors of constitutional law or political science from the universities. Mostly the presenter intervenes the discussions for explanation for audience when discussions go to technical extend.

On the NTV programme, “Dört Bir Taraf” (“Four Sides”) there is no presenter. Four journalists -two women and two men- discuss the actual issues among themselves, and each of them is moderator in turn. Two of the journalists are close to the government, the others stand in critical opposition.

On the Habertürk channel, “Türkiye’nin Nabzı” (“Turkey’s Pulse”) discussion programme, there is a presenter, The program host academicians, technocrats, journalists and political party members. The programme has a phone connection to the hosts from other cities outside of Istanbul.
The debaters talk about; division of power, the president's authority over the legislative branch and juridical independence, on the necessity of political system change. Relations between different political systems and economic development and strong democracy.

1) All of the debaters agree that the Turkish model of presidential system has unique characteristics, dissimilar to the other country's models such as the United States and Latin American Countries. This is called the "Turkish presidential system" ("a la turca system").

2) The members of government (members of parliament or ministers) and the journalists close to the government, emphasize the "stability of government", the "economic development", the "continuity of administrative and economic reforms"; the debaters who criticize the presidential system for Turkey, the parliamentary system has to continue for sake of democracy's stabilization.

3) The presidential system provides political stability as against coalition governments comprised of many parties. The other debaters insist that elections and the political party system provide the political stability, it doesn't need to change the governmental system. But it needs to change the law on political parties and improve their internal democracy as against the party leaders' hegemony.

4) The division of powers, checks and balances, have disappeared in favour of a president, a very powerful president required to provide political stability is demanded by the debaters on the government side. The opposition debaters insist on with this kind of president the regime will turn on an authoritarian way in contrast to the claims about president's authority will decrease.

5) One side of the debate, connects the presidential system to the "rate of economic development", the others stress the importance of subjects like "human development index", "women's condition and development" "political development" or "strong democracy".

6) The debaters on the government side insist on reducing the party system to a two party system. The others are various other agendas.

6. Conclusion

AKP party has been in political power since 2002. In this very powerful period the party leader and his staffs have suggested that the political system should change from parliamentarianism to presidentialism. In Turkey, all of the political parties generally agree on neoliberal economic policies. The neoliberal hegemony has lasted. With a strong executive, the actual and probable crises have been overcome. Presidential government leads to the personalization of power. The President's strong claim to democratic, even plebiscitarian, legitimacy is a danger to democracy when he (she) manipulates public emotions to strengthen his (her) power or popularity. Legislative, executive and juridical powers will become integrated. As a result of the personalization the state, the state of law weakens.

Turkey's tradition is a parliamentary system. Even using the techniques of social engineering the political parties well disciplined structure can not be changed, this is also a deeply rooted tradition.

The question is "why does the AKP party, especially its leader, have such a strong desire for a “Turkish kind of presidentialism"? The answer has to be not only (full) economic, but at the same time cultural. They want to perform a kind of social engineering to make changes, reforms to social life in such areas as education, the family and the women and envorimental policies.

Television programmes about political systems, are part of the ideological aparatus of the state for manufacturing consent. Mostly the discussions turn around the complicated and technical subjects especially on law that the ordinary audience could find difficult to understand. Some of the debaters speeches manipulate national feelings about the President's personalization essence using the ideas of "powerful executive" with "powerful president" and in its turn "powerful state". Democracy doesn't need the touch of any kind or any colour of hat instead of participatory and promoting freedom.

Instead of asking which political system provides the most the stable government, it is better to ask which political system provides more participatory democracy.

References


The Audit of the Financial System, Development and the Gaps in Albanian Businesses
An over-view of PIFC Principles and Financial Management

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Abstract

Recently politicians and economists have often talked about structural reforms as the path toward sustainable economic growth. The implementation of the Competition Policy and Law is the most effective and less costly reform because its daily consistent implementation leads to direct benefits for businesses and citizens. The direct outcome of the implementation of this reform is increased market awareness, which, in turn, leads to increased efficiency in resource use by the society. The European Union has established, in the framework of Enlargement and the Public Internal Financial Control concept (PIFC), a set of principles in relation to sound financial management of public resources, resulting from both national and international financing. This set of principles is suggested to be followed and adhered to by the Republic of Albania in their relevant legislation and implementation. Internal Audit is present in Albania for developing this system. In the assessment carried out by the EU in July 2008, they identified that the internal audit law needed to be brought up to date in light of the PIFC requirements. Their main points were: 1. Over-lapping audit process between the High State Control and Internal Audit; 2. The audit of smaller entities should not be carried out by Albanian business. However if the audit work does not represent a considerable workload, the audit could be maintained in Albania at least as a temporary solution. The Albania government would be responsible for assessing the training needs, provide training and certification of internal auditors, including developing continuous training programs in Republic of Albania.

Keywords: Audit system, Albanian reforms, State control, Internal Audit

1. Introduction

The Audit of the Financial System, Development and the Gaps in Albanian Businesses
An over-view of PIFC Principles and Financial Management

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1. Introduction

In the process of its enlargement the European Union adopted the principles for sound financial management of the public funds, regardless if they come from an internal or international financing. It has been recommended these principles should also be laid down in the legislation of the member states and the candidates for accession. Following the recognition, at the Helsinki European Council in 1999, of Albania as a potential candidate for EU membership, the Republic of Albania has produced a National Strategy for Development and Integration (updated in 2008) and a Policy Paper on Public Internal Financial Control (PIFC) in 2005.

The increasingly large number of contacts between businesses and consumers and the Competition Institution in relation to market concerns or failure indications is a direct indicator of the achievement of objectives under that mission; this is at the same time the main challenge of our Institution. The improvement and sophistication of investigation tools and the reduction of investigation time characterized our activity in 2012, leading to an increased number of market interventions by the Competition Institution.

The heads of central and local government institutions are responsible for setting up financial management and control system and the internal audit function within their organization. Some progress was made in strengthening the administrative capacity of the parliament Secretariat through training of staff and expert advice, including by international
A multiannual training strategy for the parliament’s staff was adopted in May 2012. The unit for legal approximation in the parliament was strengthened by the hiring of a further adviser.

Graph 1: The heads of central and local government institutions, Source: Albanian CI report 2011

The authorizing officers - are the highest ranked employees of general government units (central and local government institutions), responsible for planning, execution, performing financial management and control, monitoring, reporting, accounting and for responding to the recommendations made by internal audit and are accountable to the principle authorizing officer.

It is vital to the good functioning of the markets—which, in simpler words, means increased consumer wellbeing—that the justice system absorbs and conveys the philosophy of competition protection in the fairest manner possible. Not only is the reasoning of decisions in the light of the protection of public interest a legal obligation under the Law, but also, and above all, it is a moral duty since it affects the wellbeing of the citizens.

1.1 Development in competition law and policy implementation

The economic system in Albania is enshrined in Article 11 (1) of the Constitution, which specifies that the economic system of the Republic of Albania is based on private and public property, as well as on a market economy and on the freedom of economic activity. This constitutional principle is also ensured through the implementation of Law No. 9121 of 28 July 2003 “On Competition Protection,” as amended, and the National Competition Policy. The responsible institution for its implementation is the Competition Authority. It operates pursuant to the Competition Law and Policy, in addition to public administration norms and best practices of European competition law.

The second level authorizing officers - are public administration employees in each dependent unit of central and local government institutions, responsible for planning, execution, internal financial control, monitoring, reporting, finance and accounting and for responding to the recommendations made by internal audit and are accountable to the authorizing officer.

Graph 2: The heads of central and local government institutions, Source: Albanian CI report 2011
The executing officers - are public administration employees of central and local government units, responsible for implementing financial management rules, keeping the accounts, and preparing management reports and financial statements and are accountable to the authorizing officer of the respective level.

1.2 The internal auditors

The internal auditors play an important role in the assessment of the effectiveness of the financial management and control systems. The internal auditor or the institution is responsible for internal auditing and should not be involved in the operational or in other activities than internal audit. He reports to the Authorizing Officer and Head of Institution. The external auditor (the High State Control) is responsible for the certification of public expenditure to the Albanian National Assembly. They may comment on the functioning of PIFC and report to Parliament if necessary, but the development and improvement of PIFC is the responsibility of government.

2. Concept of public internal financial control

Public Internal Financial Control includes the overall, consolidated system of control, based on internationally accepted standards, established and performed by the central and local government or by delegated organizations, in order to guarantee the sound financial management and control of the public funds. The PIFC system consists of three main pillars: Republic of Albania, The sound Financial Management and Control (FMC) systems, as a prime responsibility of managers of each public spending centre, with particular emphasis on minimum requirements of internal control. A functionally independent and objective Internal Audit (IA) service, supporting management and giving assurance and advice, that management and control systems are established in accordance with the rules and standards, and with the principles of sound financial management.

2.1 Definition and types of foreign (debt) loans

Recent years has almost no country which a good part of public expenditure not to finance with debt. Besides the different classifications, the debt can be classified as internal and external (on territorial source of the loan) debt that may be borrowed from the sources of Interior or by external financing sources, according to the duration can be short and long term. Public debt may be in cases when the state takes its place or borrow from abroad to finance their economic activities and private sector debt to finance their businesses. (Blake, R.R & Mouton 1964)

The focus of our research will focus on the impact of the foreign debt in the economy of Macedonia, Kosovo and Albania. Through different periods of time, economists thought the loan has changed, some support the loan, arguing that represents an important source for a sustainable economic growth while another group what they see as harmful to the economy. Study of the effects of debt in the economy represents need, because the country through debt may accelerate the development process or alternatively to induce financial and economic damage the national economy. (Source: Albanian Progress Report 2011)

2.1.1 The concept of borrowed money (Blake, R.R & Mouton 1964)

Public debt represents the amount of borrowed money that the state owes the creditors at a given moment in time. Since our interest is in foreign loan, then we can define similarly the foreign loan-it represents the amount of money borrowed from foreign financial resources with the private sector the state owes to foreign creditors. In recent years there is an expansionary trend of debt in our country, in particular the public sector as a result of increased public spending, have equal opportunity and the private sector but not the same size. Central service in the Ministry of Finance (MOF),for developing and implementing a harmonized methodology and standardized quality of the FMC system and of the internal audit service. This will in turn ensure sustainability of existing training facilities. On the other hand, the PIFC must be seen in the context of the National Strategy for Development and Integration (NSDI). This paper of March 2008 replaces the previous National Strategy for Socio-Economic Development and sets out Albania medium-to-long-term national strategic priorities and goals.

1 Bexheti Abdylmenaf, Public Finances, Tetovo, 2007, pg-370.
2.1.2 Control of Concentrations

The control of concentrations is the third pillar of the Competition Protection Law, under which the Competition Institution supervises any changes to market structure. In order to increase the efficiency of law implementation, it continued to supervise any transactions carried out and filed with the National Registration Centre in 2012. Based on the close cooperation with the National Registration Centre, the Competition Authority has identified transactions in shares which had not been communicated to it, i.e. the undertakings involved in those transactions had failed to comply with their legal obligations to notify them.

Last year, the Competition Authority initiated four inspections of share transactions, of which two were cases of concentration with changes to the control structure. The acquiring undertakings which had violated the law for failure to submit a notification within one month were penalized with light fines (three cases of failure to submit timely notifications of transactions). (Bowers, D.G & Seashore, 1966)

2.2 Movements and the sizes of the loan in RM

We can say that the trend of the kind of credit from abroad raises concerns for people who know well the effects of debt as it may adversely affect the economic stability of our country. External debt in comparison with the internal debt, represents the drag on to next generations, because the loan together with interest received must turn future generations, in If this loan is used for productive projects then burden for future generations may be less or maybe this debt will represent the benefit to them, depending on investment returns made with borrowed money.

Share the conviction that the debt represents an evil without which economies of many countries find it difficult to operate. Both the private sector and that public is needed loan when their costs exceed the financial revenues. This situation in economics is known as budget deficits when revenues exceed expenditures budget, here I want to emphasize that there is a distinction between debt and budget deficit, the debt represents the cumulative deficit by the time given.

Gross external debt (in % of GDP)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>50.3</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gross external debt (in million $) If the supervision was carried out, further measures concerning execution in the state which passed the judicial decision shall be temporarily suspended.

The Administering State shall inform the Sentencing State on the supervision measures and on all circumstances that could lead to revocation of the suspended sentence, as well as on the expiration of the probation term.

Graph 3: The Administering State shall inform the Sentencing State 2012 Source: www.nbrm.mk ,

The right of the state which has imposed the judicial decision to enforcement shall finally cease if in the course of probation term none of the circumstances has occurred for which the suspended sentence should be revoked under its law

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2.080</td>
<td>2.528</td>
<td>2.503</td>
<td>2.841</td>
<td>3.304</td>
<td>3.780</td>
<td>4.133</td>
<td>4.874</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: www.nbrm.mk
2.3 The Maastricht criteria and GDP effects in Albanian PIFC system

Under the Maastricht criteria, the total debt should not exceed 60% of GDP, while the budget deficit could reach up to 3% of GDP. The following sections present the table in which we will see how it looks gross external debt of RM, from 2004-2011. This document (IFC) is a revised and updated version of the Policy Paper on Public Internal Financial Control (PIFC) in the Republic of Albania, adopted by the Council of Ministers in June 2005.

The purpose of this document (IFC) is to describe the current Albanian PIFC system and the control environment and to determine the key directions and obligations of public sector units in Albania, in order to enable them to provide a reasonable assurance that public resources are managed with economy, efficiency and effectiveness. The main elements of the PIFC system in the Republic of Albania defined in the PIFC Policy Paper are: the financial management and control system (FMC), independent internal audit (IA), and a central coordination and harmonization service in the Albanian Ministry of Finance (MOF).

Tab 1 : Source:1 www.sitel.com.mk

The NSDI was agreed by the Strategic Planning Committee under the Integrated Planning System, which includes a set of operating principles to ensure that government policy, planning and implementation takes place in a coherent, efficient and integrated manner. The NSDI proposes a medium-to-long-term strategic planning process for 2007-2013 in conjunction with the introduction of a medium-term budgeting process, that requires each Government Ministry to develop 3-year budget planning. (Dansereau, F, Graen, G & Haga, W.J. 2011)

2.4 Study on activity of foreign companies in the country, other legal aspects for study

If we analyze foreign direct investment FDI will see that they have seen an upward trend for example if we analyze it in 1997 with the year 2005 will see a huge difference in 1997 they have reached a value of 141 million euro while in 2005 1769 million euro this difference is a result of the privatization of companies in the country (privatization of the country). (Ashby, W.R. Design for a brain. New York: Wiley, 1952.)

As regards countries which have large investments in Macedonia can conclude that the leading terms of foreign investments in Macedonia are: Hungary, Greece, Netherlands, Switzerland and Cyprus (in 2005 with 66% of total investments). The main sectors where these investments are concentrated by the said states are: Telecommunications, banking, financial services, trade, manufacturing (petroleum, textiles), construction, etc... In 2005 the net amount of profit from the investment of these countries amounts of 110mil euro. Activities of larger companies are mostly focused on, the financial sector (banking sector participates with 90% of total activity in the financial sector), the telecommunication, manufacturing (refineries, textile, pharmacy, beverage), energy, construction, trade, these are sectors where large profits are realized.

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1 www.nbrm.mk Foreign investments and low improvements

2 www.nbrm.mk Foreign investments and low improvements
This PIFC Policy Paper includes also the concept of external audit and inspection (although they are not part of PIFC itself), as their influence on PIFC is significant in the Albanian context. The PIFC issues in Albania have already been an object of consideration and assessments of the European Commission Directorate General for Budget (DG B) These three pillars are underpinned by the principal of managerial accountability: the obligation of all managers in all public sector organizations to observe and apply the principles of sound financial management and legitimacy in the management of public funds. Ashby, W.R. Design for a brain. New York: Wiley, 1952.

Auditing and control guidelines for internal control standards in the public sector define internal control as:“an integral process that is effected by entity management and personnel and is designed to address risk and to provide reasonable assurance that in pursuit of the entity mission, the following general objectives are being achieved: 1. executing orderly, ethical, economical, efficient and effective operations; o fulfilling accountability operations; 2. complying with applicable laws and regulations; 3. safeguarding resources against loss, misuse and damage”.

Internal control is a dynamic integral process that is continuously adapted to the changes an organization is facing. Management and personnel at all levels have to be involved in this process to address risk and to provide reasonable assurance of the achievement of the entity-mission and general objectives”.

2.4.1 Financial Control and general objectives, effectiveness and internal control.

At the moment there is no clear process for assessing the effectiveness of internal control and reporting or escalating problems. Ideally each Ministry or local government unit should compile an annual statement on the effectiveness of internal control, highlighting any problems and giving examples of remedial action taken. While financial controls are strong, it is not clear whether they are cost-effective.

H 1. The benefits of controls should not outweigh the costs.

H 2: In public institutions the accounting systems are a little old-fashioned in that they are mostly paper-based. Staff use spreadsheets but what is needed is a financial system that interfaces appropriately with the new auditing method.

3. Treasury financial modules

The accounting system contains an accrual based chart of accounts, however at present it is not clear which controlling entities (budgetary and non-budgetary) will be consolidated into the controlling entity (Republic of Albania). The fixed assets are valued at their original cost and they have never been revaluated. This will be a major task in moving to international accounting standards, where revaluation of assets is a key requirement.

4. Conclusion

Albania has made much progress in the past three years with many changes introduced to Albanian public administration. Those changes helped to improve the functioning of Public Budgetary Organizations (Entities), and adjusting the laws and practices to international standards. Some of these implemented changes can be compared to best practices which are in force in the EU (for example, the new Management of Budgetary System Law and its references to internal control). Making changes demand not only institutional reforms - taking into consideration the recent rapid economic development of Albania - but also changes in culture and in the way civil servants perform their
work. Albania will continue to develop Public Internal Financial Control in compliance with the EC requirements and international FMC and IA standards. Competition Law Implementation will development in this year. In 2013 the main priority for the Competition Authority work will be the protection and promotion of free and effective market competition through increased efficiency of market interventions, investigative tools and procedures for identifying and preventing cartels, abuse of dominant power and control of concentrations on the domestic market.

The introduction of all these standards to the whole public administration in Albania is a necessary condition to recognize the observation of all legal norms and the EC requirements for the candidate countries intending to join the EU. The full activities of the Action Plan, has an exceptional importance in the achievement of a strong and adequate management and control system and internal audit function. The Action Plan also highlights areas where further technical support is required. The goal for the Competition Institution in 2013 will be to complete or continue conducting monitoring and inquiry and investigation cases that were initiated in the previous year, and read as best as possible all indications coming from complaints, the media, the business community or consumers.

References

External Debt Management Techniques:
An Evaluation Of The Debt Conversion Programme On Nigeria Economy

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Abstract

The study evaluated the various debt conversion programme used by the Federal Government of Nigeria to manage the nation’s external debt. It examines the problems and prospects of management techniques with a view to improving on them or possibly suggests new techniques which might be helpful in solving the external debt problem. Therefore, the research is focused on the external debt management techniques in Nigeria, with emphasis on the efforts of the central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and the federal ministry of finance (FMF). Generally, the indebtedness of the country becomes a problem when the burden of servicing the debt becomes so heavy and unbearable that it imposes intolerable constraints on the economy and on the development efforts of the authorities. Managing the debt stock without stultifying growth has always been the headache of economic planners in Nigeria and other developing countries. The pupation of this study constitutes the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and the Federal Ministry of Finance (FMF) records and personnel, the sample used is the representative sample. This is because the sample reflects the conditions existing in the population. A total of 20 top management personnel of both the CBN and FMF including 5 top management personnel of the Debt Conversion Committee (DCC) were sampled. In this study, two types of data were collected that is, the secondary data and the primary data. In designing the instrument, care has been taken to ensure its effectiveness, the validity of the research questions were established found reliable at r = 0.82. The result showed that the management of Nigeria’s external debt via debt conversion programme is effective (χ²cal 6.545 > χ²tab value of 1.635; df=4; p=0.05). Also, the Nigeria’s debt conversion programme is realistic (χ²cal 4.655 > χ²tab 1.635; df=4; p=0.05). However, the study revealed that the debt conversion programme is not the final solution to Nigeria’s external debt problems (χ²cal 4.655 > χ²tab 1.635; df=4; p=0.05). On the basis of the findings, it is therefore recommended that the debt management should be part of the macroeconomic policies of the month. The nation need not wait until there is a debt crisis before embarking on debt management. Also, accurate information on external debts should be sourced as this aids its efficient management on a day-to-day basis and external borrowing strategies in the planning framework.

Keywords: Debt Management, Debt conversion, Jumbo Loan, closed system, commercial debt.

1. Introduction

Nigeria and indeed almost all the African countries are now facing an unprecedented debt crisis never known in the history of the continent. ‘He who owes must pay’, could well be a true dictum. But it is also no less true that it is only a debtor who is alive that could be forced to pay his debt. In other words, the heavily indebted poverty ridden nations, especially those in developing Africa must survive the scourge of disease, starvation and ignorance if buoyant creditor-nations and institutions of the West are indeed serious about getting back their money. The rationale for raising external loan has always been to bridge the domestic resource gap in order to accelerate economic development.

The rationale for raising external loan has always been to bridge the domestic resource gap in order to accelerate economic development. This is because nations just like individuals need loans to augment domestic resources. Consequently, Nigeria decides to borrow in order to finance specific projects. However, the big questions have been, why can’t the borrowed funds be used to finance economically viable project? Why is it that Nigeria cannot generate enough foreign exchange with which to repay the externally borrowed funds? Is the management of Nigeria’s external debt efficient and effective? Have the heavy burden of Nigeria’s external debt any effect on the Nigeria economy? And above all; why is it that the debt conversion committee (DCC) has not been able to come up with more permanent solutions to the nation’s debt problem?

According to Phillips (1992), External Debt is the amount of money owed by the government to individuals, governments, and institutions resident outside Nigeria. But when it is owed to individuals or institutions resident within Nigeria, then it is an internal Debt. Consequently, in the words of Ahmed (1991), former government of the central bank...
of Nigeria (CBN), “External Debt Management is a conscious and carefully, deployment and retirement of loans acquired either for development purpose or supports the balance of payments. It incorporate estimates of foreign exchange earnings, source of finance, the project returns from the investment and the repayment schedule, it also include an assessment of the country’s capacity to service existing debts and adjustment of the desirability of contracting further loans.

The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), in conjunction with the Federal Ministry of Finance manages the nation’s external or public debts. It is necessary to note that in an attempt to get out of debts, the Debt Conversion Committee (DCC) was set up under the External Debt Management department which was established in July, 1988 to implement Nigeria’s Debt conversion programme. Basically, debt conversion involves the Exchanges of external debt for domestic debt or equity. The objective of a debt conversion programme to a debtor country is to reduce the stock of its debt while simultaneously promoting the inflow of additional foreign capital to stimulate economic growth and recovery Furthermore, Phillips (1992) stated that, “the Paris Club represents the official government creditors. This includes the United States of American (USA), the United Kingdom (UK), Germany, France and Canada. The London Club of creditors on the other hand represents the commercial banks spread all over the world. Both the Paris Club and the London Club of creditors are among the major sources of Nigeria’s external debts. Other sources of debt include the multilateral creditors such as the World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), African development Bank (ADB) and the European investment Bank (EIB); promissory note holders (creditors in respect of refinanced debts; and other bilateral creditors.

The International Capital Market (ICM) is where Nigeria made her first major borrowing of US$1 Billion, referred to as the “Jumbo Loan” which was contracted in 1978. The London inter-bank offer rate (LIBOR) is one of the official interest rate used during negotiations.

2. Conceptual Framework

The Giant of Africa did not start badly at a fledging nation. She emerged from the womb of colonialism with prosperity inherent. Blessed with human resources, Nigeria did not lack natural and agricultural resources. Indeed, the prospects were bright. This became even brighter with the advent of the ‘Oil Boom’ in the 1970s.by 1974, Nigeria buoyant enough to be a creditor to the money spinning international monetary fund (IMF). The nation was considered as “under – borrowed” with her total debt below N500 million. Four years later, it was a different story, as Nigeria contracted her first major loan of US$1 Billion, referred to as the “Jumbo Loan” which consequently increased Nigeria’s external debt stock to US$2.2 Billion. Furthermore, in 1986, Nigeria joined the unenviable league of 15 most heavily indebted countries otherwise called the ‘Baker 15 Group’ with a debt of N42.23 Billion (US$18.63 Billion). It rose further to US$ 27.3 Billion in 1988, US$ 33.4 Billion in 1991, and US$ 32.584 Billion in 1995, and by 1996, it reduced to US$28.06 Billion.

Ahmed (1991) maintains that the nation’s credibility despite the under-provision for the Naira and Dollar components of the external debts, fuelled by the unstable exchange rate, the nation still had to service its debts. Historically, the country was on the verge of taking the IMF short-term relief package for distressed countries at the inception of the President Babangida regime but for the public debate that rejected it. The structural Adjustment programme (SAP) a long-term World Bank sponsored package came in its stead by September, 1986. Economic analyses say that external loan may be a blessing rather than a curse depending in the way it is utilized. Sanusi (1997), former executive Director (Monetary and banking policy) of the CBN upheld that no one will quarrel with any developing country for resorting to external borrowing provided that the proceeds are utilized in a productive way that will facilitate the eventual servicing and liquidation of the

However, the conscious attempts made at debt management have improved the nation’s rating in the international community. At the London club and New York secondary Market, where debt instrument of Less Developed Countries (LDCs) are bought and sold, Nigeria’s commercial debt which was 25% per dollar in 1990 was sold for 40.8% in 1991. This means that for every dollar worth of the nation’s debt brought to the market, buyers were ready to pay 40.8% as against the 25% in 1990. This is an indication that the value of its debt instrument appreciate by 60% within a year.

Olatunde, Alaketu and Ojelabi (1991) opined that each successful agreement with either the Paris club or the London club and the Debt conversion programme actions also makes for further appreciation of the instrument. And this shows the level of the increasing appreciation of the instrument. And this shows the level of the increasing international confidence in the debt management strategy. Yet, debt stock mounts more loans are taken, multilateral bodies like the World Bank and the African development Bank (ADB) have lent money to Nigeria. Furthermore, Olatunde, Alaketu and Ojelabi (1991), stresses that “the nation cannot exist without getting one loan or the other. To do so, we will be practicing a closed system and our economy cannot sustain it. The kernel of the matter is that as one generation takes the loan
another generation pays for it.

According to Ojo (1994), if money borrowed is not invested in concrete project that will yield proceeds to be used to pay the rescheduled debts, there is a big risk. The only way debt rescheduling is advisable is that what is borrowed should be used to execute projects that will yield foreign exchange earnings to repay the loan. The purpose of rescheduling is that if the project you borrowed the money for has within three to five years’ time it will start yielding profit. For instance, if we use like Algeria has done say, within two or three years’ time, we can earn foreign exchange from it to pay the debts that is how we can reschedule.

Consequently, Akimade (1991) upheld that the Federal Government of Nigeria should continue to explore all the various options available to manager our debt since no single option has the final answer. Each approach has its own merits and constraints. For example, while debt rescheduling offers temporary relief and breathing space, it only postpones the inevitable needs to repay the debts it also has the disadvantage of increasing the stock of the debt as interest is capitalized. Sanusi (1997), stressed that debt conversion takes many forms, those considered relevant to solving our debt problem include debt equity conversion, debt equity swap, and debt conversion to financial instruments or securitization of debt. The current arrangement on debt conversion is limited to the redemption of promissory notes. Although useful, ‘securitization of debt’ has its own problems.

According to Olatunde et al (1991), the USA took the initiative in 1985, when the then treasury secretary, James Baker, came out with a proposal on how the debt problem should be tackled. Tagged the ‘Baker Plan’, the proposal contains two major elements. One is the provision of financial assistance of US$ 9 Billion by both the commercial banks and multilateral financial institutions to debtors. The other is for debtor countries to undertake international monetary fund (IMF) World Bank sponsored structural adjustment programme (SAP) Unfortunately, not many African countries benefited from the initiative. The plan basically the Latin American countries. Besides, the commercial banks who were expected to pump in US$ 20 Billion failed to live up to their expectations. A second plan – the ‘Brady Initiative’ – was put forward, but like the first one, the initiative was hamstrung by inadequate financial assistance.

As a means of solving the debt crisis, there have been many calls from various quarters in the economy seeking debt relief measures from our creditors. But Ojo (1989), posited that debt relief to debtors might even hurt them more since this might hinder their economic prospects.

3. Managing Debts in Developing Economy

Managing the debt stock without stultifying growth has always has always been the headache of economic planners in Nigeria and other developing countries. While Poseur and Mexico fiddled with the idea of debt repudiation before retracting their steps, Nigeria would prefer debt cancellation or forgiveness.

In 2005, the administration of President Olusegun Obasanjo was been granted a US$18 Billion. However, Ahmed (1991) noted that a major problem compounding the debt problem is the changing fortune of the dollar in the international foreign exchange market any depreciation of the Dollar in international currency market automatically reflects as an increase in Nigeria’s debt stock while any appreciation reflects in a decrease in the debt stock. Also, Philips (1995), emphasised that numerous factors contributed to the increased size of Nigeria’s public debt (domestic and external) which by end 1994 stood at N900.6 Billion. The major factors include the rapid growth of public expenditures, particularly for capital project, borrowing from the international community at non-concessional interest rates, decline in oil earnings from the late 1970s, and the emergence of the trade policy. The current trade policy frame work combines high general barriers to trade and a plethora of derogations granted there to by administrative fiat. The high import barriers according to IMF (2005) entails an anti export bias to the economy that is partly mitigated by various export incentive schemes. It could also be seen vividly that Nigeria’s trade policy framework is significantly more restrictive in recent year than that from in most other countries, and it has become increasingly restrictive in recent years. The 2005 trade policy review made the WTO to conclude that Nigeria’s trade policy regime had become more protectionists since its 1998 trade policy review. Nigeria having more than 2 percent of the world’s population has a share of the world’s export of about 1/3 of 1 percent, of which more than 90% is oil and gas export. It could also be seen that Nigeria’s non-oil and gas exports on a per capita basis amounted to only 1 percent of the world’s average the fourth lowest share in the world. Over 10 years in which the world economy became significantly more integrated, Nigeria’s non-oil and gas exports remained stuck at about 3 percent of GDP (6 percent of non-oil and gas GDP). The total exports of goods and services less oil exports for countries classified as fuel exporters in World Economic Outlook (WEO). Out of 178 countries considered. According to IMF (2005) only Burundi, Ethiopia and Rwanda has lower non-oil Exports than Nigeria. The table below shows the details; Table iv Nigeria: Trade, Foreign Investment, and Growth, 1994-2004.
3.1 External Debt Management Functions

The General Babangida led administration in Nigeria actually laid a systematic programme for the management of our debt crisis. The administration took a comprehensive approach by providing long-term solutions. The government has so far followed proven and standard strategies in its debt reduction effort. These strategies revolve mainly on debt servicing and debt conversion:

3.2 Debt Servicing

Akinmade (1991) stresses that debt service ratio of 30% seem to be the ideal ratio adopted by the country. The prospects of redeeming a substantial part of our debts in the short to medium term have become doubtful barring unexpected favourable development in the oil sector. While the debts have some in-built capabilities to grow on their own, the urgent need for additional loan to close our persistent resources gap has made debt reduction through redemption most likely for now. However, the continue to provoke debate due to fluctuations in the debt service ratio as indicated in 1984 at 29.1% and 32.2% in 1995.

3.3 Debt Conversion Programme

Debt conversion has become a major responsibility of the central Bank of Nigeria in recent times resulting in the setting up of a department in the Bank to undertake the function. Consequently, the debt conversion programme (DCD) was established in July, 1988 to implement Nigeria’s debt conversion programme. Basically, Akinmade (1991) stressed that debt conversion involves “the exchange of Nigeria’s foreign currency denominated debts for local currency which is then used in the purchase of equity capital in a local enterprise i.e. exchange of external debt for domestic debt or equity. He stressed further that “the objective of a debt conversion programme to a debtor country is to reduce the stock of its debt while simultaneously economic growth and recovery”. It attracts the needed foreign investment without a corresponding increase in foreign exchange inflow. The Nigerian programme has been structured to minimize the effects of a number of constraints. For instance, there is a limit to the amount and type of debt to be converted and there is an effective monitoring scheme to ensure that the proceeds of such redemptions are invested in well-defined and identifiable business.

The programmers’ serious limitation is that it offers only a litter scope for reducing substantially the debt stock. According to Akinmade (1991), in Nigeria for example, less than 1% (N959 million) worth of debts was redeemed in the first year of the programme compared to outstanding debts of over 130 billion. As at 31st December, 1982, our external loan stock was reduced by US$ 306.7 million, comprising the US$ 138.3 million and US$ 168.4 million converted in 1988 and 1989 respectively. Onuoha (1996) asserted that external debts valued at US$ 153.7 million (about N8.7 billion) were cancelled through the debt conversion programme. Since the inception of the Debt Conversion Programme, external debt valued at US$ 649.4 (about N19.2 billion) has been cancelled. However, Sanusi (1998) states that “Debt conversion can take many forms. These include the following:

3.3.1 Debt for Equity

This is the conversion of debt at face value and at the prevailing exchange rate for the currency of the debtor country. Proceeds are designated as registered capital investment of the creditors in the debtor country. The proceeds are strictly for financing an entirely new company, expand a existing company, to recapitalize an existing venture and or to finance portfolio investments. This scheme seeks to reduce the size of the external debts and link the servicing of the external obligations more closely to the country’s capacity to pay in that the outflows of returns to investors would depend upon the earnings generated by the activity being financed.

3.3.2 Debt for Cash

This is similar to debt to equity except that the proceeds from the conversion are not capitalize but rather used for working capital for loan repayments and for local tax payments.
3.3.3 Debt for Export

This involves the exchange of export for debt obligations. For example, the government can export goods worth US$ 80 million in order to cancel external debts of that magnitude.

3.3.4 Debt-Debt Swap

This is a change of one creditor for another in respect of loans. Typically, the parties assign loans or give sub-participation to each other without otherwise changing the terms of payment.

3.3.5 Debt-Peso Swap

When conversion involves residents of the country instead of a foreign investor, we term deal as a debt-peso swap. By ‘peso’, we mean local currency. Hence, debt-peso swap are designed for repatriation of flight capital. Residents buy their own country’s debt in the secondary market using their funds abroad or foreign currency acquired in the parallel market.

3.3.6 Use of Debt in Financial Investments

This involves the use of debt (the redemption proceeds) to purchase stocks and bonds in the capital market of the debtor country. This can also be extended to government development stocks. Consequently, the level of indebtedness and service obligations will decline in the main while foreign portfolio investment will rise correspondingly.

3.3.7 Debt Rescheduling

Before government introduced the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in September, 1986, the external debt burden had become a clog in the country’s drive towards self-reliance. And as trade arrears accumulated, most overseas correspondent banks refused to extend confirming lines of credit to Nigeria. The country has been able to achieve substantial relief by way of rescheduling our debts with both the London and Paris Clubs of Creditors. This is aimed at paying at a more favourable term – lower interest rates and longer repayment periods.

3.3.8 Debt Refinancing

A refinancing arrangement involves the procurement of a new loan by a debtor to pay off an existing debt, particularly short-term trade debts. The new loan may be contracted from the same creditors as the case may be. To solve the problem of paying for imports due to accumulated arrears of trade debts, it became necessary to seek for relief by refinancing the trade arrears. Thus, in 1984, Government decided to refinance the remaining trade arrears especially those contracted through open accounts and bills for collection by issuing promissory notes to cover them. The terms of the promissory notes agreements include the payment of interest at the rate of 1% above the arithmetic average of the lending rate quoted by some major international banks in New York, London and Paris. They also include a maturity period of 2½ years and the redemption of the notes in 14 equal installments beginning from October, 1986.

However, following the difficulty in servicing the debts under these terms, the agreement was renegotiated leading to the stretching of the repayment period over 22 years with an effective rate of return of 5% per annum. The new terms are generally believed to be the best relief package which the country has got. The total value of promissory notes issued amounted to US$ 4.8 billion.

3.3.9 Debt Buy-Back, Collaterization and New Money Options

The buy-back arrangement implies the offer of a substantial discount to pay off an existing debt. This type of arrangement was concluded in February, 1992 when Nigeria bought US$ 3.395 billion commercial debt due to the London Club at 60% discounts. In other words, Nigeria paid US$ 1.352 billion to liquidate or buy-back the commercial debt. Furthermore, US$ 2.054 billion has been collateralized as 30 years per bond with the London Club. With this arrangement, the yield of the bond within a 30year period would off-set or pay-off the collateralised amount, which is referred to as the zero coupon option. The new money option refers to the granting of new loans by or creditor or a group
of creditors to assist a debt-ridden nation.

3.3.10 Debt Repudiation

Officially, the Federal Government would not repudiate any genuine debt except those of doubtful credibility that would not be reconciled by Chase Manhattan Bank of New York. These doubtful claims are between US$ 4 billion and US$ 12.5 billion. However, repudiation of genuine debt would lead to ostracism.

In the words of Ani (1997), for the third consecutive year, the Federal Government did not take new external loans. In addition, during the year, Government cancelled loans amounting to US$ 700 million. The restriction of borrowing will continue in 1997. Government will reappraise most of the on-going projects financed externally with external investments. The resultant external loan funds so displaced would then be cancelled. He stressed further that “for the first time in five years and without fresh debt rescheduling, the administration has succeeded in reversing the trend of rising external debt stock”. This consequently, contributed to the reduction of the debt stock from US$ 32.584 billion in 1995 to US$ 28.060 billion in 1996.

Ani (1997), maintains that “although discussion with the Bretton Woods Institution on the Medium Term Economic Programme (MTP) is expected to continue in 1997, its impact on debt service may not be felt until 1998/99. The debt service arrears for 1996 was US$ 11.124 million. In addition, the debt service requirement for 1997 is US$ 4,979.96 million bringing the total amount to US$ 16,103.96 million. Speaking at the 35th National Conference and yearly general meeting of the Nigerian Library Associated on the 8th of May 1997, Alkaleri (1997), Director General, Federal Ministry of Finance (FMF) said, “to make up for the short fall from external borrowing the present administration has embarked on measures intended to increase both revenue and foreign exchange earnings. The various areas where the government has initiated measures to increase its revenue base include: the revival and expansion of solid mineral exploitation; deliberate export drive intended to increase export and with it, foreign exchange earnings; the establishment and widening of the value added tax (VAT) base; port and customs reforms; and the creation of an enabling environment for attracting foreign investment through repeal of certain legislation, for example, the Exchange Control Act of 1962 and the Nigeria Enterprise Promotion Degree of 1989". According to him, “the various legislation were replaced with the Foreign Exchange (Monitoring and Miscellaneous) Decree 1995 and the Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission Decree 1995 to make them more effective”.

Stressing further, Alkaleri (1997) said that “the internal and external debt, some of which went directly to the benefiting public institutions, have over the years became overhang to such an extent that as at the end of 1995, the external debt alone stood at US$ 32.585 billion. To combat the situation, the government has since 1995 suspended foreign loans. With prudent management, government has also been able to bring the external debt down to US$ 28.060 billion by the end of 1996”. Furthermore, he said that “although the primary source f funding public institutions is more consistent and reliable, government funding alone is now inadequate in view of increasing responsibilities and demands on it. The private sector should participate in

The Olusegun Obasanjo administration improved on the Babaginda administration by seeking for a debt relief for the nation’s external debt which presently stands at US$ 32 billion. According to the Finance Minister, Dr. (Mrs.) Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala, whose dexterity has eventually brought hope to the present and the unborn generation of Nigeria in the form of debt relief, “the conclusion of agreement with the Paris Club in 2005 on the payment of US$ 12 billion for the buy back of the nation’s foreign debt to her creditors, is bound to have positive consequences on the lives of Nigerians, today and tomorrow. The understanding between Nigeria and the Paris Club means that Nigeria would clear arrears with equitable treatment of all creditors. This comes to US$ 6 billion while debt buy back would gulp another US$ 6 billion as incentives for the country’s creditors to write off about US$ 18 billion debt. The bottom line is that with the conclusion of a Policy Support Instrument (PSI) and payment of US$ 6 billion arrears, the coast would have cleared for Nigeria to buy back the rest of the US$ 24 billion at a substantial discount rate at US$ 6 billion.

Stressing further, Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala (2005) noted that ordinarily, the Paris Club would not agree with this style of settlement with any nation without formal agreement with the IMF. The nation had virtually gotten the required PSI in the kitty since the IMF had technically endorsed the country’s home grown reforms programmes which the fund has been monitoring long before the Paris Club decided to grant the nation’s debt relief”. Considering the dexterity of the Olusegun Obasanjo administration on the external debt problem, the debt relief would add value to the lives of the present and future generations of Nigerians. Opinions vary as to what are the correct answers to these questions. The researcher observes that the debt crisis lies in the full and consistent implementation of the policies that promote expose and discourage imports. Thus, articulate that debt management programme should be put in place by the debt conversion
committee to curb by low savings propensity, declining foreign exchange earnings and high import bills, among other consequences for the growth of the Nigeria economy.

Consequently, this research is aimed at identifying the various Debt Management techniques with emphasis on the nation’s Debt Conversion Programme.

4. Statement of the Research Problem

Generally, the indebtedness of the country becomes a problem when the burden of servicing the debt becomes so heavy and unbearable that it imposes intolerable constraints on the economy and on the development efforts of the authorities. The causes of Nigeria’s external debt problems are related to the nature of her economy – this has to do with the country’s over-dependent on foreign goods as against locally produced goods; economic policies pursued or put in place by successive governments – not only did government and its agencies continue to borrow indiscriminately from abroad and suing short were not adequately monitored; exogenous factors which are beyond the control of the government itself which include the value of foreign currencies against the Naira and shorter payment period; all of which uncombined together to influence the macro-economic factors thereby holding the growth rate to a level too low for sustained development.

5. The Objective of the Study

The intention of this study is to evaluate the various debt conversion programme used by the Federal Government of Nigeria to manage the nation’s external debt. The objectives of the study are:

i. to highlight the various debt conversion programmes in Nigeria.
ii. to ascertain the efficiency and effectiveness of the debt conversion programme in Nigeria.
iii. to ascertain whether the various debt conversion programmes have improved the economic environment in order to attract foreign investment.
iv. to ascertain whether the debt conversion programme serves as additional incentive to the repatriation of flight capital.

6. Scope of the Study

The study will concentrate on certain periods to ensure effective coverage of the research objectives. The work is an evaluation of the debt management techniques which have been applied in Nigeria. It examines the problems and prospects of these techniques with a view to improving on them or possibly suggests new techniques which might be helpful in solving the external debt problem. Therefore, the research is focused on the external debt management techniques in Nigeria, with emphasis on the efforts of the central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and the federal ministry of finance (FMF).

7. Research Questions

A research work of this magnitude and nature is based on certain research questions. The following research questions are therefore generated.

1. Is there any system of external debt conversion in Nigeria?
2. What are the various debt conversion programmes in Nigeria?
3. How effective and efficient is Nigeria’s debt conversion programme?
4. Has the debt conversion programme lessen the external debt burden?

8. Research Hypotheses

Ho: The management of Nigeria’s external debt via debt conversion programme is not effective
H1: The management of Nigeria’s external debt via debt conversion programme is effective
Ho: Nigeria’s debt conversion programme is unrealistic
H2: Nigeria’s debt conversion programme is realistic
Ho: The debt conversion programme is not the final solution to Nigeria’s debt problem
9. Methodology

9.1 Research Design

In a scientific enquiry of this nature, a descriptive research of survey type was used. In this particular research, research questions have been used. The use of research questions is appropriate here because the research environment is amendable to statistical analysis. The use of research questions provides the basic design instrument for the work to its achievement at a reasonable cost.

The population of this study constitutes the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and the Federal Ministry of Finance (FMF) records and personnel. The characteristics of this population include:

i. The population constitutes personnel between the ages 35 – 40 years
ii. There are about 60% males and 40% females
iii. They are personnel in the financial institutions
iv. They are geographically located in Lagos
v. They have served for more than 20 years
vi. They all reside in Lagos State
vii. They are all academic intellectuals at a high level. Most of them are chartered.

The population has been subjected to this study due to its proneness to the of the study.

9.2 Sample and Sampling Techniques

In this study, the sample used is the representative sample. This is because the sample reflects the conditions existing in the population. For the purpose of facilitating this research, I have sampled a total of 20 top management personnel of both the CBN and Federal Ministry of Finance including 5 top management personnel of the Debt Conversion Committee (DCC) were sampled.

Data collection is a procedure of capturing data from the data sources. In this work, the two types of data collected are tabulated hereunder within the method of collection.

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<td>Primary</td>
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<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Reviewing of textbooks, journals, magazines, noting, reporting seminar notes</td>
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Source: Fieldwork

9.3 Research Instrument

The research instrument used was evaluation questionnaires. The instrument is deliberately fashioned for data on Nigeria’s external debt management techniques and the debt conversion programme. In designing the instrument, care has been taken to ensure its effectiveness, validity and reliability. The evaluation questions have two parts: Part A which would collect information on the personnel data of the respondents; Part B was made up of 25 questions, each question designed to examine the validity of the research questions and were found reliable at \( r = 0.82 \).

10. Results

10.1 Testing of Hypotheses

Decision Rule: Accept the null hypothesis if the calculated chi-square value is less than the critical value otherwise reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative.
10.1.1 Hypothesis One

**H₀**: The management of Nigeria's external debt via debt conversion programme is not effective

**H₁**: The management of Nigeria's external debt via debt conversion programme is effective

**Table 2**: Chi-square Summary Testing the Effectiveness of Management of Nigeria’s External Debt via Debt Conversion Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management of External Debt</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>χ² Cal</th>
<th>χ² Tab</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes Options</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.545</td>
<td>1.635</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Options</td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**: fieldwork

Table 2 shows that the χ²_cal value of 6.545 is greater than the χ²_tab value of 1.635 (df=4; α=0.05). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected as being correct. Hence, we accept the alternative which therefore means that the management of Nigeria’s external debt via debt conversion programme is effective.

10.1.2 Hypothesis Two

**H₀**: Nigeria's debt conversion programme is unrealistic

**H₂**: Nigeria’s debt conversion programme is realistic

**Table 3**: Chi-square Summary Testing How Realistic is the Debt Conversion Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management of External Debt</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>χ² Cal</th>
<th>χ² Tab</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes Options</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.655</td>
<td>1.635</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Options</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**: fieldwork

Table 3 reveals that the χ²_cal value of 4.655 is greater than the χ²_tab value of 1.635 (df=4; α=0.05). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected as being correct. Hence, we accept the alternative which therefore means that the Nigeria’s debt conversion programme is realistic.

10.1.3 Hypothesis Three

**H₀**: The debt conversion programme is not the final solution to Nigeria’s debt problem

**H₃**: The debt conversion programme is the final solution to Nigeria’s debt problem

**Table 4**: Chi-square Summary Testing the Final Solution to Nigeria's Debt Problem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management of External Debt</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>χ² Cal</th>
<th>χ² Tab</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes Options</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>1.635</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Options</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source**: fieldwork

The calculation from the chi-square distribution table reveals that we have chi-square calculated as 0.539 which is less than the critical value in the chi-square table (0.539 < 1.635), we therefore conclude that the debt conversion programme is not the final solution to Nigeria’s external debt problems.
11. Discussion and Conclusion

This study has provided information on Nigeria's external debt management to permit analysis of the conversion techniques so far used in Nigeria and recommendations of policy measures for reducing the debt burden in future. The road to recovery is simple and short, but the time to traverse it can be short or long, depending on how we go about it. It is obvious that we have chosen the long route. This is also corroborated by Isaac-Aluko (1987); Ichilike (1990); and Isakpa (1996). The country will continue to need them inflow of foreign capital to supplement domestic resources for productive investment. Nigeria will only need to take the necessary steps to ensure that such foreign resources are used judiciously to generate growth so as to facilitate the servicing and repayment of the debt.

Conclusively, it must be realized that a debt is a debt whether it is rescheduled, refinanced or remolded; it has to be paid, for a country to be permanently relieved.

12. Recommendations

1. To avert the adverse consequences of debt, debt management should be part of the macroeconomic policies of the month. The nation need not wait until there is a debt crisis before embarking on debt management. Rather, debt management should be part of the economic policies of the nation in its day-to-day activities. On a continuous basis, Nigeria must determine the amount she would borrow which should be related to the economy’s absorptive capacity for foreign capital and ability to service the dent without experiencing external payment problems.

2. Accurate information on external debts should be sourced as this aids its efficient management on a day-to-day basis and external borrowing strategies in the planning framework. The gap between the creditors and debtors should be narrowed by the application of emerging market oriented management options.

3. Emphasis should be laid on the need for domestic resource mobilization through savings. There is a positive correlation between domestic mobilization on the one hand and the ability to attract external financial flow including foreign client investment on the other hand. Policies that promote expert and discourage imports should be fully and consistently implemented. It is only when a balance has been attained in the external sector that prospects for an acceptable level of debt will become possible.

4. Efforts to get reparations from the West should be intensified. Repayment is payment for loss or wrong done by the West on us (Nigeria and other countries that are once colonies of the West), our debts should be cancelled or we could be given debt relieves. International Conference should be organized in strategic countries in all the five continents of the world high lightening the effects of debt on debtor nations and preferring solutions that would bring about reduction in the debt magnitude and effects on each debtor nation.

References

International Monetary Fund (2005). Direction of trade statistics, CD-rom, Washington DC: IMF Balance of Payments Yearbook, WEO; and staff estimates
The Relationship between Perceived Organizational Justice and Cyberloafing: Evidence from a Public Hospital in Turkey

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Abstract

The aim of this research is to try to determine the role of organizational justice in the occurrence of cyberloafing behaviours, which have started to become a major problem for companies, by emphasizing the importance of the perception of organizational justice. The relationship between the lack of organizational justice, which is one of the significant problems of organizations, and cyberloafing has been tried to be determined. After the theoretical study, the relationship between perceived organizational justice and cyberloafing in hospitals has been analysed and it has been aimed to contribute to the solution of this problem by making some suggestions for the employers.

Keywords: Organizational justice, cyberloafing, the use of Internet

1. Introduction

Today, the Internet has become an indispensable element in people’s personal and business lives. People have saved a lot of time for their work by the use of Internet. For this reason, people choose to do their work by using the Internet when they have chance. The greatest benefit of the Internet sometimes has an adverse effect. In other words, while the Internet enables people to save time, it sometimes leads to a loss of time. People lose a lot of time on the Internet by visiting sites that are not related to their work because the Internet world is an endless one. This loss of time causes a significant inefficiency at work.

Cyberloafing is the use of Internet and mobile technology during work hours for personal purposes (Bock & Ho, 2009; Johnson & Indvik, 2004; Lim, 2002; Mastrangelo, Everton, & Jolton, 2006). Cyberloafing has started to become a major problem for businesses. The employees sometimes use the Internet for non-work related things while their managers suppose that they are working. As a result, work is delayed and the company loses efficiency. There are some different reasons under the cyberloafing behaviours. Checking personal e-mails, reading the daily news, watching or downloading obscene things and entering sharing sites are the most common cyberloafing behaviours. Cyberloafing behaviours are based on both personal and organizational reasons. When they are compared, organizational reasons are more important and difficult to solve than the personal ones. Especially the problems on the employee’s perception of justice are the most important problems for the managers and they are needed to be solved urgently. When the employees believe the presence of injustice in the workplace, they do not want to do their work and they try to find a way to cop-out. Cyberloafing is the least noticeable and the least risky of these ways of cop-out. For these reasons, the perceived lack of organizational justice may cause cyberloafing.

In the light of the above mentioned facts the objective of this research is to determine the relationship between the lack of organizational justice and cyberloafing.

2. The Concept of Organizational Justice

Organizational justice refers to “the individuals’ perceptions of justice in organizations” (Schmiesing, Safrit, & Gliem 2003; 28). Employees who work in a fair organization, regard the managers’ behaviours as fair, ethical and rational (İşcan and
Organizational justice is a basic need for an effective process of personal satisfaction of the organizations and their employees. It is also effective in employees' behaviours towards organizations (Lambert, 2003; 155).

Organizational justice is individuals' opinion about how fairly they are behaved in the organization. The researches about organizational justice show that people are more interested in the social aspect of justice. It is indicated that fair behaviour in organizations attach individuals to each other and to organizations. When the employees in an organization feel that the manager behaves them fairly, the collaboration becomes easier and the employees support the decisions of their managers. However, in the case of injustice, individuals try to take revenge on each other, apply to legal procedures and behave each other aggressively.

2.1 Perceptions of Organizational Justice and Dimensions

Scientists agreed on the three types of organizational justice. These are distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice.

2.1.1 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice refers to employees' perception of fairness of the obtained results (Greenberg, 1990; 399). Employees can make a decision about the fairness of distribution at work by comparing their earnings to their colleagues' earnings. Distributive justice is a concept related to the employees' perceptions of earnings and decisions (promotion and pay rise) in organizations as fair and equal (Robinson, 2004; 10).

Consistency is important in distributive justice. Being consistent means not being prejudiced and not attaching importance to personal profits, being built on accurate information and using accurate information in distributive decisions (Jones, Scarpello, & Bergmann, 1999; 131).

2.1.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is a concept related to the fairness of the procedures which are the most significant means to make a decision. Procedures are the means used to reach a desired conclusion. On the contrary to distributive justice whose subject-matter is the fairness of decisions, the subject of procedural justice is the processes causing to these decisions (İşbaş, 2001; 61 in Folger, 1987).

The perception of procedural justice will be high in the organizations where the employees are effective in the process of decision making or where they approve the decisions which are taken (Greenberg and Baron, 2000; 145).

2.1.3 Interactional Justice

Interactional justice is about the human aspect of organizational practices. In other words, it is about what and how the managers tell individuals in the process of taking decision (Dilek, 2004).

Interactional justice has been introduced by Bies and Moag. One of the basic points of fair interaction perception is to show sufficient and valid reasons for the decision taken. In addition to this many researches argue that the oral explanations rather than written ones about the decisions increase the individuals' perceptions of justice (Konovsky, 2000).

3. The Concept of Cyberloafing

Cyberloafing is non-work related use of Internet and e-mail by the employees of a company in the work hours (Lim, 2002). Cyberloafing is accepted to be harmless as long as it is for a limited time. The common points of the definitions of cyberloafing are that it is to be busy with personal activities on the Internet during work hours for non-work related purposes. Academicians usually regard cyberloafing behaviours as a way of digression from work (Lim, 2002; Lim and Teo, 2005).

Ugrin, Pearson and Odom (2008) stated that there is a meaningful loss of efficiency in an organization as a result of cyberloafing behaviours while Philips and Reddie (2007) indicated that these behaviours caused a problem in the efficient use of time and in the employees' performance of their duties.
However some of the recent researches have shown out that cyberloafing can be relaxing and releasing service for the employees in order to come over the stress at work. For instance, Lim and Chen (2009) have found out that searching websites for personal purposes at work can help to increase the efficiency by refreshing the minds of employees.

Menzel (1998) stated that activities such as surfing on the Internet for fun, downloading and examining obscene things, sending e-mails by using nicknames are the behaviours which the managers of public institutions in the USA confront and which are accepted to be undesirable and inefficient behaviours. Besides the direct costs, the reason for the costs which are not material such as the decrease in the efficiency of the workers might be the misuse of the Internet. For example, most of the 150 managers participated in a research indicated that the cause of the decrease in the efficiency of their employees is using the Internet for special purposes which are not related to work (Roman, 1996).

Moreover in another research, it is stated that the use of Internet at work for personal reasons might reduce the efficiency of the employees by 30-40 per cent (Verton, 2000). When all the information from these researches is analyzed together, the numbers related to the misuse of the Internet by the employees or at least the potential of the employees in this matter is clearly noticed.

4. The Relationship Between Perceived Organizational Justice and Cyberloafing

The employees working in a business are observed to be trying to compensate perceived lack of organizational justice by dodging. If there is a lack in distributive, procedural or interactional justice, employees tend to display dodging behaviours more in return. In such a situation, employees may choose to cop-out in order to take revenge on their managers who display unfair behaviour to them or choose to punish their managers in this way. Dodging behaviours such as long coffee or lunch breaks, chatting to each other for a long time, pretending as working while they are not working have started to appear as cyberloafing by the development of technology.

Since technology is used more in businesses nowadays, the use of Internet has appeared to be an indispensable element of companies. While the employees do their work by means of the Internet, they can suddenly start surfing on the non-work related websites as Internet has an immense world. If the employees are exposed to unfair behaviours of their managers, they start to display cyberloafing behaviours intentionally.

5. Methodology

The aim of this research is to reveal the impact of the perception of organizational justice on cyberloafing in hospitals. In this research the organizational justice has been discussed in three dimensions. These are distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice. In this research the effect of the perception of organizational justice on the tendency of displaying cyberloafing behaviours has been examined. The survey technique has been applied as a data gathering method in this research. The survey consists of three parts. In the first part, demographic features of the employees in the health industry have been determined. The second part includes questions that measure employees’ perceptions of organizational justice. The questions in this part have been prepared by adapting the 11 questions of Niehoff and Moorman used by Yıldırım (2002) to the employees in hospitals. The third part of the survey includes questions about cyberloafing. The questions in this part have been taken from the scale prepared by Lim (2002) and they have been applied to the employees in hospitals. All the statements in the survey are answered in the form of 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). The study has taken place in a university hospital in Konya. A questionnaire has been distributed to 130 randomly selected employees. 119 of these questionnaires have been returned and 4 out of these have been excluded due to various deficiencies. A total of 115 questionnaires have been evaluated. Hypotheses of the study are as follows:

- **Hypothesis 1**: Organizational justice has three sub dimensions as procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice.
- **Hypothesis 2**: Organizational justice has a negative impact on cyberloafing.

Structural equation modelling (SEM) has been used in testing of conceptual model of the research. SEM is an effective model testing method, which can explain the cause and effect relationship between variables, and allows theoretical models to be tested as a whole (Ayyıldız, Cengiz and Ustasuleyman, 2006). SPSS-AMOS 6.0 program was used at the stage of SEM analysis.
In this model the organizational justice has been analyzed in three dimensions as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice. The effect of the perception of organizational justice on displaying cyberloafing behaviours has been examined.

6. Research Findings

In this section research findings will be summarized under four different titles. These are: the characteristics of the sampling, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and structural equality analysis.

6.1 The Characteristics of the Sampling

The demographic characteristics of the employees have been evaluated in the context of the research given in Table 1.

Table 1: The Demographic Characteristics of the Employees Participating to the Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Educational Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>57,4</td>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29,6</td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>42,6</td>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>39,1</td>
<td>Associate’s</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>44,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Technical Personnel</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13,9</td>
<td>Bachelor's degree</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Secretary</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17,4</td>
<td>Post Graduate</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

For analysis of the research model, reliability analysis and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) have been performed first. At the second stage of the analysis, in order to verify dimensions identified by the exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) has been carried out. Before examining the research model by structural analysis, unidimensionality of variables in the model has been examined by means of EFA and internal consistency, in other words, reliability of dimensions has been evaluated. Table 2, Cronbach alpha (α) values of each dimension in scales and variance explained (VE) by each dimension are given in brackets. Factor loads of items measuring each dimension and other values are also shown. To calculate factor loads for all scales in EFA, maximum likelihood estimation method and direct oblimin rotation technique have been applied, factors with eigenvalue greater than 1 have been taken into account and factor loadings were stipulated to be greater than 0.50. Before starting EFA, so as to increase reliability of scales, total correlations of items have been evaluated and KMO values testing suitability of sample size for factor analysis and Barlett Sphericity Chi-Square Test values testing suitability of data to factor analysis have been calculated. It has been stipulated that KMO value should be greater than 0.60 and Chi-square value should be meaningful. For reliability analyses, Cronbach alpha values have been stipulated to be equal to or greater than 0.70.
Table 2: Exploratory Factor Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Justice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice ($\alpha=0.938; V.E=38.995$)</td>
<td>lsl1</td>
<td>0.930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lsl2</td>
<td>0.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lsl3</td>
<td>0.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lsl4</td>
<td>0.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice ($\alpha=0.962; V.E=28.530$)</td>
<td>Da1</td>
<td>0.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Da2</td>
<td>0.930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Da3</td>
<td>0.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Justice ($\alpha=0.942; V.E=32.650$)</td>
<td>Ea1</td>
<td>0.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ea2</td>
<td>0.934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ea3</td>
<td>0.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ea4</td>
<td>0.916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=115; KMO=0.718; Bartlett Sph. Test Chi-Square=951.139, p=0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Variance Explained= %94.952 Factor Loadings $\geq 0.50$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cyberloafing ($\alpha=0.955; V.E=84.351$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cyb1</td>
<td>0.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyb2</td>
<td>0.903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyb3</td>
<td>0.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyb4</td>
<td>0.903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=115; KMO=0.859; Bartlett Sph. Test Chi-Square=521.588, p=0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Variance Explained = %88.986 Factor Loadings $\geq 0.50$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total explained variance of organizational justice scale among the findings of our research is about 95%. It shows that the scale measures these behaviours quite well. Moreover total explained variance of cyberloafing scale has been found out about 89%.

6.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA, which is used in verification of factors and/or dimensions defined in EFA and testing the reliability and validity of the scale, calculates some values showing the statistically significance and compatibility of the proposed model. In Table 3, items included in dimensions of all scales and their standardized loadings, t-values and significance levels corresponding to t-values are shown. Additionally, structural reliability ($\rho_{\eta}$) and explained variances (VE) are specified in brackets against each dimension (structure). Structural reliability must be greater than 0.70 and explained variances must be greater than 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair, Andresco, Tahtam, & Black, 1998).

Table 3: First Level Confirmative Factor Analysis Results For Organizational Justice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational Justice</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Std. Reg. weight</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice ($\rho_{\eta}= 0.98; V.E=0.93$)</td>
<td>lsl1</td>
<td>.919</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lsl2</td>
<td>.962</td>
<td>10.839</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lsl3</td>
<td>.921</td>
<td>10.655</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lsl4</td>
<td>.927</td>
<td>11.012</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice ($\rho_{\eta}= 0.96; V.E=0.88$)</td>
<td>Da1</td>
<td>.962</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Da2</td>
<td>.958</td>
<td>19.578</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Da3</td>
<td>.917</td>
<td>19.831</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interactional Justice ($\rho = 0.97; V.E = 0.91$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Std. Reg. weight</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ea1</td>
<td>0.945</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ea2</td>
<td>0.934</td>
<td>14,142</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ea3</td>
<td>0.935</td>
<td>15,153</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ea4</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>14,245</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Confirmative Factor Analysis for Cyberloafing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>Std. Reg. weight</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cyberloafing ($\rho = 0.95; V.E = 0.85$)</td>
<td>Cyb1</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cyb2</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td>15,797</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cyb3</td>
<td>0.973</td>
<td>18,921</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cyb4</td>
<td>0.911</td>
<td>15,811</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Second level confirmative factor analysis for organizational justice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Std. Reg. Weight</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>7.066</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td>6.144</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Justice</td>
<td>0.641</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When tables are reviewed, it is seen that structural reliability values and explained variances of each model are greater than 0.70 and 0.50, respectively. The t-values corresponding to standardized loadings of items representing each dimension are found to be statistically significant. All dimensions found in the exploratory factor analysis are identified in the confirmative factor analysis as well.

Second level CFA is an evaluation carried out to examine correlation between dimensions and sub variables of such dimensions. According to second level CFA performed for organizational justice scale, organizational justice is verified to consist of three sub-dimensions as in literature. It is understood that the most perceived dimension among these three dimensions is distributive justice with a value of 0.811.

Hypothesis 1: Organizational justice has three sub dimensions as procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice.

Hypothesis 1 is ACCEPTED.

6.4 Structural Equality Analysis

Following identification and verification of sub-dimensions of main variables included in the research model, structural equality analysis was carried out at the stage of testing the structural model. Before evaluation of correlations in the conceptual model, it is needed to determine whether the model is significant and valid in statistical terms. Compatibility measurements included in the confirmative factor analysis are also applicable for the structural model and are given in Table 6.

Table 6: Compatibility measures for the structural model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compatibility measure</th>
<th>Good compatibility</th>
<th>Acceptable compatibility</th>
<th>Model proposed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>$0 &lt; \text{RMSEA} &lt; 0.05$</td>
<td>$0.05 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0.10$</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>$0.95 \leq \text{NFI} \leq 1$</td>
<td>$0.90 \leq \text{NFI} \leq 0.95$</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>$0.97 \leq \text{CFI} \leq 1$</td>
<td>$0.95 \leq \text{CFI} \leq 0.97$</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>$0.95 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$</td>
<td>$0.90 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 0.95$</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGFI</td>
<td>$0.90 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$</td>
<td>$0.85 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 0.9$</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2/df$</td>
<td>$0 &lt; \chi^2/df &lt; 3$</td>
<td>$50.128/40=1.253$</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When the table above is reviewed, RMSEA, NFI and CFI amongst compatibility measures for the structural model are within the limits of good compatibility. GFI and AGFI values are within the range of acceptable compatibility limits. These results show that the developed conceptual model complies with the data and the model is valid and meaningful in statistical terms.

**Figure 2:** SEM analysis results for the conceptual model

When Structural Equality Modelling in Figure 2 is examined, it is understood that there is a negative relation between the perception of organizational justice and cyberloafing. The relation between the perception of organizational justice and cyberloafing is -0.87. According to this result the perception of organizational justice affects cyberloafing negatively. In other words, when the perception of organizational justice is high, cyberloafing behaviour decreases. According to this analysis;

**Hypothesis 2:** Organizational justice has a negative impact on cyberloafing.

Hypothesis 2 is ACCEPTED.

7. Conclusion

People confront different things in their business life as the time passes. While managers consider to be using the most accurate method for both themselves and their businesses, employees might think these practices to be wrong or unfair. The perception of justice has a significant importance in organizations. The employees’ performance, efficiency and attachment to the organization are affected by the level of justice in business. The employees who are in the opinion of an injustice in the organization might react to this injustice in different ways. These reactions may vary from person to person and from business to business. The most common of these reactions recently is cyberloafing.

Employees have applied to different ways to cop-out at work before; however, they choose to chat their friends on the Internet or to surf on the websites that are not related to work. These cop-out behaviours cause a decrease in the efficiency of the worker and an inefficient use of time. Nowadays the number of the employees cyberloafing is quite high. Some of these choose this way because of boredom while the others apply to it as a reaction to management.

In our research aiming to assess the effect of the perception of organizational justice in hospitals on cyberloafing behaviours, it has been concluded that employees avoid displaying cyberloafing behaviours when their perception of organizational justice is high. On the other hand, it has been recognized that employees display cyberloafing behaviours when they think that there is an unfair manner in the organization.

The researches conducted show out that the rate of cyberloafing in fair organizations is lower than the rate in other organizations. As a result, it will not be wrong to state that cyberloafing behaviours might occur as a reaction to organizational injustice.

No matter, what the reason is, it is required to reduce the use of non-work related Internet to minimum level. There are some suggestions for this matter:

- Providing organizational justice
- Identifying and warning the employees who are cyberloafing
• Using the programmes enabling to use only some specific websites on the computers used in the organization
• Giving employees a right to speak during the process of decision taking

Owing to these mentioned precautions, cyberloafing behaviours in businesses will decrease and the efficiency will increase. However, another thing to be realized is that if justice is not provided in a business, employees will apply to different ways to cop-out at work even if cyberloafing is prevented. For this reason, the priority should be to provide organizational justice.

References


Faceless and Forgotten Victims

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Abstract

The effect of wars on direct or indirect victims varies depending on the type of crime committed against them. The wars in former Yugoslavia have left a tremendous number of people with long term trauma. While a large number of people once the war is over, start rebuilding their lives trying to leave the past behind, that does not happen with victims of rape and missing persons. But then again you expect that the state is the one that will help these victims lead their way towards a better life - that does not happen either. The first category is stigmatized for life by their families and the society in general. The second category is neglected and forgotten by the state just like those people never existed. These are the two categories which are forgotten by their own society and as such are often forgotten by the International Community too. Fourteen years have passed since the war in Kosovo and these two categories remain faceless and forgotten; the first ones without a shoulder to cry on and the second ones without a grave to rest in peace. Kosovo has an obligation to recognize and support the ‘Faceless’ and the ‘Forgotten’.

Keywords. Crimes against humanity, human rights, victims, state obligation, armed conflict.

1. A short history of Kosovo

Kosovo was part of Yugoslavia until the breakup in 1990 when Slovenia was the first Yugoslav republic to declare independence. This was accomplished with virtually no military action. Croatia and Bosnia on the other hand went through war which at the end resulted in the independence of these republics as well. Once these wars ended, the conflict started focusing more in Kosovo.

The process to abolish Kosovo autonomy from 1974\(^1\), began in March 1989, under the leadership of Slobodan Milosevic\(^2\). The Constitution of Serbia was amended to redefine Kosovo as a region in Serbia, with administrative and executive control by the Serbian National Assembly. The expelling of the workers from factories, students from schools and basically with no Albanians as part of any government institutions, increased the dissatisfaction of the Albanians with the situation in Kosovo.

Civil disturbances in Kosovo began by 1990 and they resulted in violence. Hundreds of people were injured and many killed by the security forces. For Serbia, the Albanians posed a ‘huge threat’ specifically due to their desire for independence from Serbia. Along with the non-violent solution to the crisis under the leadership of Ibrahim Rugova\(^3\), the leader of the Democratic League of Kosovo, groups of Albanians started to mobilize in groups called Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) as response to the Serb repression against the Albanians. The open hostilities between the KLA and the

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1 In 1974 Kosovo had its highest level of autonomy, within Yugoslavia, since the end of world War II. Kosovo was not part of Serbia. This is the reason why Serbia was against this Constitution.

2 Slobodan Milosevic was elected President of Serbia in 1989. He was involved in the Kosovo crisis and NATO confrontation. He lost power in 2000 and was charged by ICTY with crimes against humanity. Milosevic died in prison on March 11, 2006.

3 Ibrahim Rugova was elected the first President of Kosovo in 2002. He remained in this position until 2006, when he died from lung cancer.
Serb forces began in 1998 and they concentrated mainly in rural area. In its Decision No. 259 of 15 October 1998 the OSCE Permanent Council, acting within the framework of the United Nations Security Council Resolution No. 1199, declared the preparedness of the OSCE to embark upon verification activities related to compliance of all parties in Kosovo with the requirements set forth by the international community with regard to the solution of the crisis in Kosovo. The mission was called the OSCE Kosovo Verification Mission (KVM).

2. NATO Airstrikes against Serbia

Despite the presence of the OSCE monitors, the concentration of Serb forces continuously increased. There were continuous conflicts between the KLA and Serb Forces concentrating mainly on the rural areas. In February 1999 in the village of Reçak, Kosovo Serb forces massacred 45 Albanian civilians. The victims were ages from 12 to 99 years old. The head of OSCE KVM William Walker after visiting Reçak stated that, the deaths were a ‘massacre’ by Serb police. The head of a Finnish investigating team assigned to investigate the killings in Recak called the January massacre of 45 ethnic Albanian civilians in Recak ‘a crime against humanity’(The Guardian, 1999). This massacre led to massive international pressure on Serbia to stop their ethnically motivated killings of Albanians, but Serbia continued to deny the massacres. The Reçak massacre and the determination of the experts that the killings in Reçak represented ethnic cleansing was the final decision that triggered NATO airstrikes against Serbia.

Due to the deterioration of the security situation in Kosovo, on 20 March 1999, the Chairman-in-Office of the OSCE made the decision to withdraw the KVM for safety reasons, and perhaps as another means of putting pressure on Yugoslav authorities, who were being threatened with air strikes (Maisonneuve, 2000). With the evacuation of the OSCE staff, the attacks against Kosovo Albanians intensified. After the final attempts for peace negotiations, NATO airstrikes remained as the only option to end violence in Kosovo. The airstrikes commenced on 24th March initially targeting Serb forces in Kosovo, to expand later with targets in Serbia as well. Using the pretext of the NATO bombing, the government intensified its offensive against the KLA and ordered the expulsion of more than 850,000 Kosovar Albanians (HRW, 2001). Refugees fled to Albania, Macedonia, Montenegro and they had their documents confiscated the license plates removed at the border. Thousands of refugees were placed in other countries such as Germany, France, Norway, Sweden, Turkey, UK, Poland, Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, Italy, Israel etc(IOM 1999).

The NATO airstrikes lasted for 78 days and came to an end after the signing of the Military Technical Agreement with Serbia on 10th June 1999.

3. The type of victimization from the 1998-1999 conflict

The Serb forces in Kosovo were comprised of various structures: military, local police, police deployed from Serbia, reservists, various paramilitary groups. This mixed structure contributed to massive victimization throughout Kosovo taking different forms. Massive killings, massacres of Albanian of all ages starting from babies to the most elderly became common especially throughout the NATO airstrikes. With no way how to counter fight NATO, Serbs continued with their campaign in particular against the innocent civilian population and massive destruction of properties.

The types of crimes committed during the 1998-1999 period in Kosovo included (HRW, 2001):

- Group killings;
- Massacres;
- Rapes;
- Arbitrary Arrests, Detentions and Compulsory Labor;
- Internal displacement of civilians and Expulsion of civilians to neighboring countries;
- Destruction of Civilian Property and Mosques;
- Contamination of Water Wells;
- Robbery and Extortion;
- Torture;
- Use of Human Shields;

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4 Kusari, Benina - the co-author of this publication worked with OSCE KVM in Gjakova, Kosovo during the period from January 1999 until the OSCE evacuation in March 1999, and as such in many occasions had to deal with cases of civilians who were mistreated and killed by the Serb forces during this period in Gjakova area.

5 This so-called ‘identity cleansing’ documented by Human Rights Watch and other organizations gathering testimony in Albania strongly suggests an attempt by Belgrade to strip Kosovo Albanians of their citizenship and to frustrate future efforts to return home."
- Placement of Landmines;

Even now, 14 years after the war, not all the victims have been accounted for. A major reason for this is the deliberate actions of the Serb forces to destroy the evidence of their crimes by removing bodies of the persons killed. A top Serbian Ministry of Internal Affairs official announced on May 25 that Milosevic had ordered then-Interior Minister Vlajko Stojiljkovic to eliminate "all traces which could lead to any evidence of crimes" in Kosovo (HRW, 2001). Additionally, a number of persons abducted during the war are still missing and it is estimated that there is a large number of victims of rape who are reluctant to come out in open and report crimes committed against them.

The first official numbers on the consequences of the 1998-99 conflict in Kosovo were published in May 2013 by the State Archive Academy of Kosovo. According to the publications for the period January 1998-12 June 1999, 11,840 persons were killed. From these numbers 1,392 were children up to the age of 18 years, 296 children aged up to 5 years, 1,739 females, and 1,882 elderly over 65 years. A number of 1450 persons are still missing and it is estimated that approximately 20,400 Albanian women were raped (SAAK, 2013).

When discussing the victimization in Kosovo during 1998-99, it is not sufficient to only focus on the statistical aspect of the victimization but more importantly on the impact of these crimes on the victims, their families and the society in general and how much, or better to say how little, was done for these victims in helping to alleviate this pain.

4. Criminal responsibility for the crimes

The wars in the Balkans have clearly proven that the likelihood that states will breach the principles of Humanitarian Law during armed conflicts is major. This happens during the conflicts of International or even Non-international nature. According to the report published in October 2011 by the International Committee of the Red Cross it was concluded that “...the international humanitarian law continues to provide an appropriate framework for regulating the conduct of parties engaged in armed conflicts. ...In most cases what is required to improve the situation of victims of armed conflicts is stricter compliance with the existing legal framework, rather than the adoption of new rules” (ICRC, 2013).

There is no doubt at this point that the existing rules are sufficient, but the problem is that at the end of conflicts the individuals or the governments try to hide behind the various interpretations of such rules and as such avoid the responsibility for the crimes committed.

4.1 Group vs individual responsibility

The issue of the state responsibility for crimes of international and non-international crimes is best described on the International Law Commission Draft articles on responsibility of States for Internationally Wrongful Acts (ILC, 2001). What is important at this point to mention from this report is the definition given in Article 2, which states that an internationally wrongful act can consist of “an act or omission”. When referring only to this article then it is very difficult to believe or to say better, very unlikely that senior officers of Serbian and Yugoslav forces were unaware of the crimes occurring in Kosovo. Although there was a large number of various paramilitary groups in Kosovo, as witnessed by many victims and witnesses the crimes occurred frequently in the presence, and with the acquiescence, of military officers. Additionally, a large number of documents found after the war clearly show that the crimes committed in Kosovo were committed ‘under orders’. These documents in plain paper describe in detail how many persons were killed in different areas, how many of them are males and females, where were they buried etc. This is a clear indicator that crimes were not committed only randomly and without any planning. These lists later served to exhume the bodies in organized ways which were then buried in massive graves in Kosovo and Serbia. Some allegations say also a large number of the bodies were burned (HRW, 2001). Isn’t this a clear indication that senior officers in Serbia have known about these crimes? Yet, instead of apprehending or punishing those responsible for the crimes, many of the senior military and police officers who were active during the war in Kosovo got promoted after the war (HRW, 2001).

Although the number of victims in Kosovo was huge, the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY) has only been investigating the involvement of the senior officers and commanders in these crimes. In the overall picture this is not sufficient for the victims of such crimes. It is not sufficient for the sole fact that they want justice for the crimes committed against them. A report published by the Council for the Protection of Human Rights and Freedom in Kosovo, says that more than 1426 persons have been reported to have been directly or indirectly involved in the crimes in Kosovo. The names of the criminals in these lists have been identified by survivors and family members of victims.

6 Report lists the names of criminals and the area in which they are suspected for committing crimes.
Although, there are many eyewitnesses and a large number of cases are waiting to be resolved, the answer to the plight of those victims is that these criminals are not reachable for the local authorities and EULEX\textsuperscript{7} mission operating in Kosovo, because they are not physically in Kosovo (Borchardt, 2013).

5. **State obligation for rehabilitation of the victims**

Depending on the scale of victimization, the attention, the support and the needs of the victims of crime varies. But, why no one takes responsibility for these victims? While Serbia continues to deny the crimes committed, Kosovo Government on the other side is not fulfilling its part of the obligation towards these victims. This failure refers to many aspects such as:

- Improper treatment of the different categories of victims in the domestic legislation;
- Pending charges against identified criminals who committed these crimes;
- Lack of compensation scheme for victims and their families;
- Lack of rehabilitation programs for victims of certain categories, etc.

Unfortunately, even 14 years after, most of the rehabilitation programs are run by nongovernmental sector, and with the assistance of the international donors and with limited support by the government. Most of the attention of the Government of Kosovo was focused on the Declaration of Independence\textsuperscript{8}, the EU integration and stabilization of the relationship with Serbia, leaving behind the needs of the numerous victims of war. Although, these crimes were committed by Serbia, it does not justify the insufficient support offered to the victims and their families by the Government of Kosovo.

5.1 **Treatment of the victims of sexual violence in Kosovo**

As seen from the above numbers it is clear that just like in Bosnia, rape was used as tactic of war in Kosovo as well. In a male dominated area like Kosovo, it was clear rape is one way not only to inhumanly treat the victim but it also serves as a way to destroy families and communities; and instill fear in the general population. This effect of rape has been recognized also by the UN Resolution 1820 which noted that "women and girls are particularly targeted by the use of sexual violence, including as a tactic of war to humiliate, dominate, instill fear in, disperse and/or forcibly relocate civilian members of a community or ethnic group."

Women are most targeted as victims of these crimes, crimes which in small communities like Kosovo are considered crimes of dishonesty for the victim. The effects of such crimes are enormous. A victim of such crime is stigmatized for life by their own family, relatives and by many people in the society. This is the fate of the victims of rape in Kosovo.

Rapes of women in Kosovo occurred in various methods such as: individual raping in homes, group raping in rape camps or rape in public while victims were trying to flee the country in convoys in which case many of them ended up being raped right in front of the eyes of the other people in the convoys and some of the victims were killed after being raped (HRW, 2000). For those who were not raped in public they remained “faceless” as they decided to never tell their stories in public. Despite the huge psychological trauma they have suffered they remain silent and hidden for the only purpose of not “shaming the family”. It is this category which whenever they tell their stories on the media their faces are distorted so they would not be recognized by their own society. Some of them even hide from their own families and relatives who even to this day are not aware that they were raped. Those women need support and assistance to overcome their trauma.

\textsuperscript{7}European Rule of Law Mission in Kosovo. EULEX works within the framework of UN Security Council Resolution 1244. EULEX mandate is to investigate, prosecute and adjudicate sensitive cases using its executive powers; and monitor, mentor, and advise local counterparts in the police, justice and customs fields.

\textsuperscript{8}Kosovo declared its Independence on 17th February 2008.
Another absurdity of the society was the difficulties faced by the victims of rape during the war who have testified before the ICTY on their terrible experiences, especially women coming from rural areas. As if this was not enough trauma for them, when they came back to their own country and although they had testified as anonymous witness, they had to face the insults of individuals who thought that they should have never gone to testify. If these and other victims do not tell their stories, who will tell the story on their behalf? Who can better describe the horror they faced, a horror which is so fresh even 14 years after?

Stories of women raped have been collected throughout Kosovo. A gynecologist from NGO “Life in Kastriot” who treated thousands of victims of rape during the war ages 12-45 years old has collected and published 857 stories told by women who were raped (Selimi, 2003). Although, their names remain anonymous, this is the way how they have chosen to secretly tell their lifelong nightmares. Although ‘faceless’ and ‘shamed for life’ these victims try to educate the society that such a crime should not be hidden and that they have had to bare the biggest burden for the entire society.

The irony of all this is that for 14 years these victims have remained ‘faceless’ and ‘hidden’ in silence. So 14 years after the war these victims are still waiting for justice to prevail, are still waiting for the society to give them a respectful place in the society as the true heroes who have sacrificed so much for this country. One of the women raped during the war during an interview said, “I have waited that our state will do something to relieve our condition, to rehabilitate us, to bring us back to life. In our country if you have a bullet wound you are considered a hero and you are proud, but if you were raped it is a humiliation and you should keep your head down” (Koha net, 2012).

The majority of the assistance offered to these women is dependent on the good will of the various non-governmental organizations and the international donors. It wasn’t until March 2013 when the first initiative to provide government support to these victims took place at the Kosovo Parliament. It was the initiative to include this category of victims in the legislation which offered financial support to war veterans and civilian victims of war. Surprisingly enough this initiative was not supported by all the groups in the society (WRI, 2013). Various comments on how this subject should not be brought up as a matter for discussion since it is a shame, has pushed many organizations and victims to react and demand that they should be treated with respect and compassion as they deserve and not bare all their life the “seal of rape”. Finally, the government has started to look at these victims from a different perspective and to do something more for them to recognize their pain and try at least a little bit alleviate their pain.

5.2 Missing persons in Kosovo and the treatment of their families

Massive killings and massacres; and abduction of civilians were another category of crimes committed in Kosovo. It is estimated that more than 4000 persons were abducted during the war and a large number of them were found dead and buried in massive graves in Kosovo and Serbia. Yet, more than 1400 yet remain unaccounted for. “The families of the missing persons have to live with the never-ending pain of not knowing what happened to their missing loved ones. They have had to bear this burden for over a decade. The authorities in both Belgrade and Pristina have the primary responsibility to provide answers and support to the families. There is a pressing need for both sides to step up their efforts and use every available resource to quickly obtain more information." (Milner, 2011).
The absence of the remains of the missing persons deprives the families of the missing persons but also deprives wider society from the only physical symbol to remembering their beloved ones. Authorities have often chosen to remain silent on this issue like these people never existed. It is the effort and the persistence of the families of the 'forgotten' victims that continue to remind the authorities that this issue should be a top priority on the political agenda for regional cooperation by demanding clarifications on the whereabouts of the remains, so that victims could finally rest in peace.

Fig. 3. Photos of missing persons hanging on the fence of the Parliament building in Pristina, Kosovo (Photo taken from www.Koha.net)

According to the United Nations Basic Principles and Guidelines on the Right to a Remedy and Reparation for Victims of Gross Violations of IHL, "Satisfaction should include, where applicable, …The search for the whereabouts of the disappeared, for the identities of the children abducted, and for the bodies of those killed, and assistance in the recovery, identification and reburial of the bodies in accordance with the expressed or presumed wish of the victims, or the cultural practices of the families and communities(UN AG, 2006);

With the purpose of having a name-by-name record of all victims, both killed and missing in Kosovo in the period 1998-2000, Humanitarian Law Center11 have taken an initiative to collect names and stories for all these cases. The aim of this project titled ‘Kosovo Memory Book’ was initiated with the purpose to improve compliance with Human Rights obligations and accountability of duty holders by creating the conditions (a register of victims) for state-sponsored truth-telling processes and reparations programmes (HLC, 2011).

6. Reparation for victims - whose responsibility is that?

The United Nations Basic Principles and Guidelines on the Right to a Remedy and Reparation for Victims of Gross Violations of IHL stipulates that “In accordance with domestic law and international law, and taking account of individual circumstances, victims of gross violations of international human rights law and serious violations of international humanitarian law should, as appropriate and proportional to the gravity of the violation and the circumstances of each case, be provided with full and effective reparation, . . . which include the following forms: restitution, compensation, rehabilitation, satisfaction and guarantees of non-repetition.

The sole fact that at least the above categories are not treated by their own society with respect, compassion and dignity, leaves little room to even discuss about the possibility of a modicum of reparation for these victims and their families. The Government of Kosovo should not use as an excuse that the reparation for these victims should come from Serbia and not from Kosovo. The Government should do their part by offering continuous support and assistance to these victims. Additionally, the Government should work harder in pushing forward the agenda of determining the criminal responsibility of those criminals and their superiors, if not possible through domestic courts then it should give its contribution to assist the International Criminal Justice to prosecute these criminals.

7. Conclusion

Every person deserves to live free of any pressure and violence by others. The crimes against humanity committed in Kosovo have left open wounds for many people. Rehabilitation of victims is an extremely difficult, long and challenging

11 “HLC” -The Humanitarian Law Center in Kosovo was established in Prishtinë in May 1997, by a well known human rights activist Mrs. Nataša Kandić, as a branch office of the Humanitarian Law Center.
process even for therapists who treated these victims over the years in particular if he or she has directly or indirectly been affected by the conflict.

Victims of sexual violence need lifelong support not only from their families, but more from the society and their own government. They need to be recognized and supported to the maximum and at minimum they need a public apology for the crimes committed against them.

Missing persons are the ‘silent’ victims of war. They have no voice but others should speak on their behalf. Their families should not be kept for decades under the anguish of whether they will ever bury their beloved ones, whether they will ever have a grave to cry for them. This never-ending pain has to stop.

The Government of Kosovo, the Government of Serbia and International Community should not remain silent on the crimes committed in Kosovo. Those crimes happened in the heart of Europe, where the rights and liberties of people are considered the core principles of a democratic society. People in Kosovo have been denied those rights and those responsible should be held accountable. Those victims should no longer be ‘faceless and forgotten’.

"It is a kingly act to assist the fallen."
- Mother Theresa –

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The Influence of the Political Regime on Property Rights in Post-Soviet Russia

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Abstract

Security degree and specification level of property rights are keys for successful economic and social modernization in Russia. In the research, the attempt of evaluating the nature of political influences on evolution of property rights is made. Chronologically research captures the period from 1985 (period of Perestroika) to 2012. According to the author’s claim, such political parameters, as the way of power legitimation, actors’ access to the economic, military and symbolical resources, made major impact on the formation of property rights in Russia.

Key words: property, property rights, political regime, institutional changes, Russia.

1. Introduction

The goal of the research is the search of the method, which allows investigating the connection between the political and economic dimensions. We believe the roots of the economic problems in modern Russia are in specific features of the property institute, which are in turn determined by the particular qualities of the political regime.

2. Literature review

At the moment, there are several theoretical and empirical research promises, which are at the steam of the neoinstitutionalism. First one is the statement of the institutional significance (North, 1990).

Second one is the statement, that one of the key parameters, which forms the type of activity of the economic agents, is the property rights. By this moment the foundation of neoinstitutional understanding of the property rights have been laid (Demsetz, 1967; Alchian and Demsetz, 1972, 1973; Alchian 1974, 1984). Questions of the structural organization of property rights system have been solved (Honore, 1961). Only in presence of objectively protected property rights individuals and organizations have the incentives for highly productive activities, because they have rights for the end results of their activities, which cannot be reallocated between the parties, that have not participated in the generation of those results. The high degree of the property rights specification is also considered to be very important, as this is the only way to achieve maximal interaction of rights exchange between different parties.

Third is the statement of the high political influence on the economic processes in Russia (Bessonova, 2006; Gaidar, 1995; Kryshtanovskaya, 2005; Pappe and Galuhina, 2009; Pappe, 2000; Tambovcev, 2009).

Nevertheless, today there are no answers for the large range of questions. First, the character of the political influence on the economic spheres and processes is not clear. Especially, this is relevant for the countries with the dynamically developing political regimes, which are in the process of transformation (this can be attributed to Russia). Second, mechanisms of the interaction of the political and economic institutes are not clear. In the research the system of the property rights is considered as an integrated institute, which mediates the interaction of the economic and political institutes. Third, at the moment the principles of the internal organization of the institutional sphere are not clear, in other words how different rules and norms interact and are subordinated between each other.

3. Problem

The problem of the research is the lack of scientifically relevant and methodologically correct criteria, parameters and classifications, which permits objective estimation of the phenomenon of political regime influence on the transformation of the property institute in the post-Soviet Russia.
4. Methodology

4.1 Theoretical approach

The research is conducted in the scope of the neoinstitutional approach, which is interpreted as one of the particular options of the methodology of new political economy. The boundaries between different variations of the new institutionalism are not considered to be rigid. In this regard, the research is constructed on the basis of the historical institutionalism methodology with the usage of rational choice institutionalism and constructivist institutionalism elements. Our methodological postulates:

- Institutes are considered to be “norms and rules”, not equilibriums (Schotter, 1981).
- The dynamics of the institutional transformations is determined by the path of the past development and also by the decisions of players – the choice of actors in the key historical periods.
- Focusing on the key points of change, while studying institutional changes.
- “Cumulative” and “cultural” models of actor's behavior.
- Actors can be individual or collective; second ones can also act in the form of network structure.

5. Data Collection

The research is based on conducted desk studies with the usage of secondary sources. Database is introduced by: the statistical data of the federal agency of Russian state statistics, the Court of Auditors of Russian Federation reports, internet and paper media sources, data, presented on the official governmental web-sites.

6. Research hypotheses

H1 – The required defense of the property rights is not provided in modern Russia, property rights are not specified at the proper degree.

H2 – Modern political regime in Russia has a range of particular features, which determine the transformation of the property institute, i.e. the change if the property rights structure.

H3 – From 1985 till 2010 the property institute and also the political regime, had a set of features. The changes of both political regime and characteristics of property rights have been synchronous.

7. Basic concepts

Institutes and the problem of guarantor. We consider institutes to be the rules of the game and the forcing mechanisms of maintaining the obedience those rules (North, 1990). Any rule suggests the presence of forcing mechanism to follow the rules. Therefore, as forcing cannot be impersonal, guarantor and rules are necessary (Auzan, 2006). Government, any force structure and also the target of the rule can represent the guarantor (Volkov, 2002). Nevertheless, the degree of its performance depends on the guarantor, and by rejecting its rules, guarantor can stop its existence. Wherein guarantor is also an actor and the only difference from the other actors is that ideally it has to provide the defense of the rules and norms. Similarly to other players, guarantor is not under the system, but inside of it.

Institute functioning regime. By analyzing the features of institutional environment it is possible to outline elements of the hierarchical order in it. But, the clearest order is seen on the level of formal institutes, where the hierarchy of the sources of power is present (the term is commonly used in the jurisprudence). In most modern political systems the highest juridical power is held by the constitution, and all the legal conflicts are resolved in favor of constitution. Nevertheless, in the real life we often see derogation from this rule, which is only strive for hierarchical order, not the rigidly hierarchical structure. Similar imperfect order is present in institutes also, which permits analyzing them as a special kind of institutional clusters – sets of functionally interrelated and relatively regulated norms and rules.

If we analyze the structure if the institutional clusters more carefully, we will see that together with the “firm core” goes a more flexible “shell”. Elements of this “shell” much more compliant for the external impact, unlike the core, but the change in it can influence the functional course of the institute and its functioning regime.

Actors. In the classical researches, the special attention is given to the difference between the institutes and organizations (actors). In Russia, “players” could be clienteles (“clans”, “clips”, “families”) and integrated business-groups (Pappe, 2000). Such structures are based on the network principle and have no clear structure, all the more so – this is
attributable for those created in purpose, no clearly definable boundaries, and even understanding the goal of their function is not always easy to understand.

Strategies. Strategy is organized and serial sequence of actions, oriented on the achievement of a goal. We outline two types of strategies, which differ by the object of orientation: strategies for institutions (institutional strategies) and strategies for other actors. When analyzing the strategies of the second type we can use the scheme, which was introduced by (Sartori, 1987), who, regarding the possibility of dual interpretation of the politics, subdivided them on the strategies of “war” (the game with zero sum) and the “auction” (the game with the non-zero sum). Nevertheless in the context of institutional strategies a more complex classification is required. We outline three “clear” types of the institutional strategies (with the following division of both of them on the subtypes).

1. The strategy of the institutional changes, i.e. actions directed on reorganization of the present institutes:
   - Individual (the situation, when actor has enough resources for the independent reorganization of the institute);
   - Collective (the situation, when due to the lack of resources actor has to coordinate his strategies with the strategies of the other actors).

2. Strategy of the institutional submission, which means passive acceptance of the established norms and rules. This strategy contributes the consolidation of the existing institutes and, if those institutes are creating negative stimulus, its long-term consequence can become the disruption of the political and/or economic system in general.

3. Strategy of the institutional noncompliance, i.e. commitment of actions, which are beyond the borders of the existing rules, without the attempt to change those rules.
   a) Strategy of accepting risks (the intruder can hope on the successful outcome, as the possibility of applying sanctions against the violations is never 100%);
   b) Strategy of changing the institutional functioning regime (influencing either the force mechanisms to follow the rules or the way of enforcement, for example mass disobedience, depriving the guarantor the possibility to use sanctions due to the lack of its resources).

Resources. In order to initiate any of the strategies, actors, limited by the institutional environment, need resources. Resource – is the attribute, circumstance or welfare, possessing which increases owner’s ability to influence other individuals or groups. We can outline three types of resources: power, economic and symbolical.

Property rights. Property rights are a set of norms and rules, which regulate the capabilities of individuals and organizations to use limited resources and also mechanisms of those capabilities. Property rights (Demsetz, 1967; Alchian and Demsetz, 1972, 1973; Alchian 1974, 1984) can be observed on the macro-level, in the scale of the whole government and society and also in the scale of individual and corporation activity.

In the research we outline three basic parameters of the property rights:

1) The degree of the specification of the property rights (clear definition of the property object and subject, and also all the rights related to the possession of property).
2) The degree of the property rights defense (availability of the functioning mechanisms, which enable the defense of the objects of property from encroachment, including encroachment from government);
3) The degree of the management control (the full degree of the control over the property).

8. Results

8.1 Mechanisms of property reallocation

The specification and protection of property directly influences the domination of certain reallocation mechanisms. At high degree of specification and protection the highest distribution goes to the market and juridical mechanisms of property reallocation, in the other case – to the administrative or purely power mechanisms. In general, it is possible to outline five mechanisms of such reallocation:

- Economic (purchase, sale, leasing, rent);
- Juridical (voluntary or forced transfer of property on the conditions and forms established by the government).
- Force (taking over the property by directly using it or by threatening with the physical violence);
- Taxation (actual change of the property rights characteristics by setting the obligatory gratuitous payments to the state or other power structures);
- Administrative (actual change of the property rights characteristics by using the ability of the government to influence on owners, acting under the set of legal rules);
- Managerial (setting the control over the activities of the enterprise through intrusion of “state people” into the leading positions of the enterprise or creating a chain of side organizations around it, which held key managerial functions: cash flow management, sales, e.t.c.).

8.2 Mechanisms of property rights transformation in post-Soviet Russia

The vast majority of models, which describe institutional changes more or less focus on the exogenous in the relation to the institutional environment factors – for example, prices on the resources (Demsetz, 1967) or the level of knowledge (North, 1990) – moving of which leads to the institutional transformations. However, such explanations can be considered sufficient only in a long-term perspective and only in relation to a relatively stable and effective environment with the arrangement of actors, i.e. by following the conditions, which are lacking in the post-Soviet Russia.

In our opinion, in the Russia’s case the dynamics of the transformation of the property institute have been determined and will be determined by the sequence of the situational decisions of the key actors.

During the period of existence of post-Soviet Russia there have always been two key players: “state” and “business”. Of course, the division of the groups is in some extend arbitrary. First, neither state subjects, nor the subjects of the private business are clearly institutionalized. Second, the boundaries of those subjects are highly vague and are not always easily defined, all the more so during the last 15-20 years we have witnessed the apparent diffusion of the “state power” into “business” and “business” into “state power”. The “state power” is organized as a kind of a collection of clientèles (Afanasiev, 2000), and the key business-actors can be identified with the financial and institutional group, or integrated business-groups (Pappe, 2000).

It is possible to take for granted, that any political player will be trying to maximize his power and influence. There are three ways to solve this problem: forcing (power resource), encouraging (economic resource) and persuasion (symbolic resource). Similarly, any business-sector, by definition, strives for increasing its capital.

Now we can define the mutual interests of the “state power” and “business”. Analyzing the interest of the “state power” in “business”, we defined the two groups of interests. First one is connected with the implementing of social security functions. In comparison to the countries with the developed market democracy, where those functions have been always implemented by the government through tax receipts, in Russia from the Soviet times there have been practice of shifting those functions to the responsibility of the economic entities. With the collapse of the Soviet system the need of “state power” in attracting such structures (in the face of “business”) for solving social issues have not decreased, but even increased significantly.

The second group of interests can be roughly described as a collection of political rents. The electoral institute had been formed after the political transition in Russia, the presence of the politician in the power hierarchy began to depend on his ability to achieve the electoral support. But for the organization of the effective electoral campaign significant financial resources were needed, which could be provided only by the “business”, because even politicians, who had the access to the large amount of the resources of the government (such as governors), didn’t have a possibility to use them directly to resolve their electoral problems.

Things are getting even more interesting in the case of the “business”. Due to the fact that the government is not interested in creating the highly-effective property institute, which inevitably hardens the collection of the political rent, the demand for the establishment of a more specified property rights system could come only from “business”. But there was no demand. Such situation was apparently due to some circumstances. First, the “blurry” property institute allowed implementing a hidden “privatization of income” of companies, which have still been in the hands of the government. Second, quite real competitive advantages, which were acquired by the business-actor, who in turn have already established the connections with the political players, were pushing them to make a stake on strengthening their cooperation with the state at the expense of enlarging the “formal-institutional” safety. Third, the appearance of the highly-specialized property institute would damage “the examination” by the “business” of the vast array of unallocated “state property”. Fourth, the sustainable property institute demanded social legitimization, but business-actors have always had problems with that. In general, the conjunctural interests of the “business” took precedence over structural, preventing the realization the potential threat from the government and to understand how important is the specified system of the property rights from the point of long-term revenue.

If to talk about strategies of “business” and “state power” we can see that they are not very diverse. The main strategy of power actors is the strategy of institutional changes, which consists in constant displacement of the business-
actors to the “grey-zone”, in other words the creation of such formal rules, which makes it impossible engage in any other entrepreneurial activity, making “business” violate legislation, and then to adjust “special” relationships with the governmental officials. The most representative is the tax system of the Russian Federation (Yakovlev, 2007). In addition to that, we need to note that such strategy is not fully realized and its dominance was partly due to the mistakes which were made during the political decisions.

Business-actors, in turn, have been using the strategy of the institutional disobedience either just taking all the risks or trying to change the institutional functioning regime (first of all, through the individual agreements with the “state power”).

The result of such interaction of the “state power” and “business” was the creation of poorly specified property institute. This is supported by the series of high-profile litigations (the Yukos affair, "RussNeft", "Mechel", TNK-BP, etc.). The institute have not changed in comparison with the beginning of the 1990s, although over the past decade and a half its functioning regime have been rebuild for several times.

8.3 Property institute functioning regimes

As of two groups, the initiative and the advantage in terms of resources was carried by the actors in power, who had to fulfill the functions of guarantor together with their own goals, the core element in the typology of the regimes of property institute functioning below is actors in power. According to our hypothesis, the characteristics of the property institute depend on the way power actors secured the legitimacy of their organizational structures and forms of interaction with other players. Accordingly, we have the following set of the classification criteria:

1. The type of organizational structure (degree of institutionalism);
2. The way to legitimize power;
3. The composition of actors (presence of other relevant actors, the specificity of interaction with them);

During the struggle of achieving their goals, actors compete for resources, because even using the right strategy will not give any result without the required resource base. The resources are allocated in certain organization, which means the control over those organizations leads to the control over resources. The best opportunity to put pressure on the opponent gives the control over such organizations as the media, political parties and pressure groups, bureaucratic (state) apparatus and power structures, i.e. the organizations which carry functions of the instrument, and using them is the way to interact with the key players.

The analysis of transformations, which took place in Russia from the end of 1980s, allows us to emphasize three functioning regimes of the property institute: administrative, bureaucratic and segmented. Also, for teleological reasons, we included one more regime type – the market-democratic, in the formation of which the majority of the researches see the end result of all the system transformations of the property institute in Russia. For convenience, the results of typology are presented in the tables (see table 1-4):

The market-democracy regime presupposes the presence of the institutionalized actor, who comes to power through competitive elections. In this regime the dominant power actor is limited by the juridical norms, and also by the influence of other political and business-players. He can use neither power structures, nor bureaucratic apparatus for maintaining power. Media is independent. The property rights are specified and protected well enough.

Table 1. Market-democracy property institute functioning regime

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actors</th>
<th>Power actors</th>
<th>1) Institutionalized&lt;br&gt;2) Electoral legitimacy&lt;br&gt;3) Presence of many competing actors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business-actors</td>
<td>Independent of power; Influence the policymaking only through the official lobbying mechanisms ; interact with each other through the mechanisms of the market competition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interaction mechanisms</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Independent; functioning as the usual business-structures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Political parties and pressure groups</td>
<td>Independent; function as autonomous subjects of the political process; perform the functions of articulation and aggregation of public interests</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureaucratic apparatus</td>
<td>Autonomous from the power and business-actors; well-integrated and organized ; low corruption level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power structures</td>
<td>There are only governmental power structures (except some small “dark” zones); autonomous from power and business-actors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Property institute | Specification | High specification; property titles are clearly defined; low transaction costs
Protection | High protection; the dominance of legal and economic mechanisms of redistribution, with limited use of the tax and administrative mechanisms
Managerial control | High managerial control

Administrative regime in the way was formed in the USSR is quite well described in the literature (Kordonskiy, 2006; Bessonova, 2006) that’s why we will not examine it in details. We will note, that it started to ruin from 1986, when the formal base for controlling the private business activity by the Komsomol was created.

In 1991 the law “On Privatization of State and Municipal Enterprises in the Russian Federation” was passed, which meant the change of the property institute itself, but not the functioning regime. Since then, the private property has appeared in the country. In the subsequent history there will be no such large-scale transformations. An important step in the process of the formation of the new institution was the adoption of the Constitution of the Russian Federation in 1993, where it was stated, that “the land and other natural resources may be in private, state, municipal and other forms of property.” A final conclusion was the adoption of “the Civil Code of the Russian Federation” in 1994.

Table 2. Administrative property institute functioning regime

| Actors | Power actors | 1) Institutionalized dominant actor
2) The ideological legitimation
3) The lack of alternative centers of power
Business-actors | Absent as a subject that affects the policymaking; subordinated to dominant actor through a specially created management structures
Interaction mechanisms | Media | Controlled by the power actor; perform tough manipulative influence
Political parties and pressure groups | Integrated with the dominating power actor
Bureaucratic apparatus | Integrated with the dominating power actor; “nomenclature” institute
Power structures | There are only governmental power structures; subordinated to the dominant power actor
Property institute | Specification | High specification; actually all property belongs to the state; “conjoined” with the dominant actor; medium transaction costs
Protection | High protection
Managerial control | Very low managerial control; lack of effective ways to solve the problem of “principal-agent”

Segmented regime is characterized by the relative parity of forces of power and business actors. Dominating power actor is not institutionalized and is represented as clientele, referred as “the family” (Boris Yeltsin and his inner circle). Actively using the structured weakness of the “state power” and splitting, when needed, the “family” (removal of Alexander Korzhakov and Anatoly Chubais, after an unsuccessful tender for the privatization of “Svyazinvest”), “business” is promoting its projects.

The first severe blow to the government by “business” was in 1994, during the Chechen war, when the TV-channel NTV under the control of the “Gusinski group” started to publicly criticize Kreml’ policy. At that moment the force superiority of the “power” was still undisputed, and it was demonstrated by the strike against the “Gusinski group”. However, one and a half years later, during the presidential campaign in 1996 the “business” clearly demonstrated its ability to dictate the political course of the country. After 1996 “business” had not only purchased for almost nothing (in the framework of the second phase of the “loans for shares”) the huge amount of assets, but also started the expansion to the “state power” very successfully, by getting a large number of the governmental portfolios.

Table 3. Segmented property institute functioning regime

| Actors | Power actors | 1) Not institutionalized (the network principle of the organization)
2) Charismatic leadership
3) Asymmetrical composition of actors: one dominant and several subordinated, but independent actors
Business-actors are closely intertwined with government actors; they have an impact on “state power” through media, financial and organizational resources, power and administrative control methods.

**Interaction mechanisms**

- **Media**: Controlled by the business-actors
- **Political parties and pressure groups**: Financially and organizationally dependent on the “business” or on the power of actors: often created for a specific project
- **Bureaucratic apparatus**: Easily affected by both “business” and “state power”; atomized; high levels of corruption
- **Power structures**: Segmented; along with the governmental, there are “power entrepreneurs” and power structures that belong to business actors

**Property institute**

- **Specification**: Low specification; large business is organized in the form of IBG; extremely high transaction costs
- **Protection**: Low protection; power, tax, administrative and managerial mechanisms of redistribution; the main threat for “business” is “business” itself
- **Managerial control**: Low managerial control; government barely manages its assets, “business” is interfered by the structures of IBG

Bureaucratic regime At the beginning of 2000s the progressive build-up by “business” of its resource strength was suddenly interrupted by the rapid strengthening of the power actor. In our opinion, this was due to a complex and favorable for the “power” of circumstances (a sharp decrease in the economic power of “business” after the crisis in 1998, the split of business actors in the rival groups, more expressed “social order” for strengthening the governmental power and “suppressing the oligarchs”, and, finally, the presence of deprived, but a well-integrated group of “security forces” that have potentially significant resource and capable of providing personnel support for the power actor), the appearance of which allowed the power to take advantage of the Constitution of 1993 (which Yeltsin was not capable of). “Power” has consistently pursued a series of attacks on the “business” (elimination of Gusinsky’s media empire, the elimination of Berezovsky and - as the climax - the destruction of YUKOS), implementing the strategy of institutional change and the suppression of alternative sources of “power”, active usage of force and the administrative mechanisms of redistribution of property in favor of state-owned companies, which enables it to strengthen its positions in other fields (the federal reform, the creation of the “United Russia” and other loyal parties, changing the electoral formula, etc.). However, the degree of institutionalization of the dominant actor is extremely low, the overall mechanism of coordination of interests, acceptable even to the power hierarchy, is actually absent.

Table 4. Bureaucratic property institute functioning regime

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actors</th>
<th>Power actors</th>
<th>Business-actors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1) Not institutionalized (the network principle of the organization)</td>
<td>Partial autonomy, limited by system of “feeding”; mainly administrative methods of dealing with the minimum market competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) The populist mode of legitimation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) The suppression of alternative centers of power</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interaction mechanisms</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Controlled by the power actors; perform a soft manipulative influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Political parties and pressure groups</td>
<td>Controlled by the power actors, using a broad administrative support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bureaucratic apparatus</td>
<td>Subordinated by the imperious actor; the average level of organization and integration; corruption is transformed into the “feeding” system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Power structures</td>
<td>Weight and the necessary resources have only government forces subordinated to the dominant power actor, the other functions are reduced to maintain the security system; “feeding” system</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property institute</th>
<th>Specification</th>
<th>Low specification; rights of legal owners are blurred by the controlling authorities, the actual rights of which are not legally secured</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Protection</td>
<td>High in relation to the “business” and is extremely low in relation to the state; the special role is given to the force and administrative mechanisms of redistribution (along with the economic and legal mechanisms)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managerial control</td>
<td>Middle managerial control; the effective control of the assets by “business” is hindered by the “feeding” system</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Conclusion

1. Russian political regime has a fairly strong impact on the institutional environment, which defines social and economic dimensions of development. This potential is implemented not through a particular public policy, but through the interaction between the different actors. In other words, the institutional environment is not the result of deliberate institution-building, but of the political struggle.

2. Right now Russia has established a bureaucratic mode of operation of the institution of property with one dominant actor. However, the dominant actor is not omnipotent, because it is not institutionalized, and because of the "resistance of the environment," which means the residual capacity of the "business" and society to oppose an outside influence.

3. The dynamics of institutional change is not rigidly determined, and significant changes can be made as long as that the dominant actor gives up all individual strategies of institutional change and demonstrates a willingness to engage in public dialogue with "society" and "business."

We consider the last conclusion to be the most important. Today, nobody can impose any dialogue to the dominant actor, but he can still initiate it. At the moment, the dominant actor faces a simple choice: either to remain a sole-owner of the peripheral country, or by giving up some of his power trying to bring it into the position of the world leaders. All the cards are in the hands of "state power", but the low institutionalization leads to the paradoxical situation, when the dominant actor is capable of everything, but is not aware of his goals in the strategic term.

References

Women Blogs and Aestheticised Consumption

Bilge Gürsoy

Abstract

Ideology is a system of ideas that aspires both to explain the world and to change it. Aesthetic founded as a philosophical discipline by A. G. Baumgarten is the science of what is sensed and imagined. The ideology of aesthetics is used to shape subjects and give them a new form. Individuals accept imposed politics or consumption objects, without force when they are aestheticised. For example the fascists aestheticised politics, the global capitalist system aestheticised consumption and created consumption societies. Especially through media, consumption products appeal to senses and are easily accepted. Perceiving consumption as aesthetic; people incline towards consumption and express themselves by the products they consume. This study examines and compares two women blogs: “Shopping Consultant” in Turkish and “A Mom in Red High Heels” in English. In these blogs, it can be observed that consumers find consumption aesthetic; they are satisfied to have consumer identity. Aestheticised consumption which is created by the “ideology of aesthetic”, seems global and suitable to global capitalist system’s needs.

Keywords: Aesthetic, Consumption, Women blogs

1. Introduction

Today aesthetic plays an important role in the society. As a result of aesthetic of consumption, individuals have become voluntarily part of consumption society by consuming and obtaining pleasure from consumption. As the aesthetic is related with senses and includes pleasure and imagination, an aestheticized individual inclines towards the aesthetic things. Ideology is a system of ideas that aspires both to explain the world and to change it. For this reason global capitalist system can aestheticize objects and situations, suitable to their benefit and provide individuals’ acceptance. The Ideology of Aesthetics, (Eagleton, 2000) underlines that aesthetic gives new form to subjects and it has “law like” role. Because aesthetic, “sister of logic” is the science of what is sensed and imagined and as our beliefs are based on feelings, sensation, when we obey to aesthetics we feel ourselves free without force. For this reason, for the continuation and the stability of the order, aesthetic has an important role. Today, aesthetic plays its’ role of creating and keeping consumer identity through the media. Consumer identity is visible worldwide because as Eagleton says, “consumption object causes the collapse of the different identities” (2010: 467). Not only consumption objects but also some other things can also be aestheticised, to smooth the tension between rationality and sensibility. For example during the 1920s and 30s, the fascists have -as Benjamin says, “aestheticised politics” (Oskay, 2007: 65)

By the development of global capitalism, social order and consumption are aestheticized and consumption societies are created. In order to understand these societies, Frankfurt School philosophers studied capitalism and created terms such as “cultural industry”, “one dimensional man.” The culture industry involves the production of works for reproduction and mass consumption. Under capitalism all production is for market, goods are produced not only to meet human needs and desires but for the sake of profit. (Adorno, 2001: 5) Today’s media is both mirror and leader of consumption craziness and consumer identity which can be seen as “one dimensional”. For example, “Shopping Consultant” blog is rewarded among women blogs category in 2011 in Turkish. “A Mom in Red High Heels” blog, has similar subject and chosen as one of the best 50 blogs in 2011, in English. When they are compared, it can be observed that consumers unite in the frame of the aesthetic of consumption, their tendency and taste are alike in global scale, legitimizing Eagleton’s “ideology of aesthetic”.

2. From ideology to the ideology of aesthetic

2.1 Ideology

Ideology is a form of social or political philosophy in which practical elements are as prominent as theoretical ones. It is a system of ideas that aspires both to explain the world and to change it. The word first appeared in French as idéologie at the time of the French Revolution. Ideology today is generally taken to mean not a science of ideas, but the ideas themselves. In his book Ideology An Introduction (2007: 1, 2) Eagleton gives some definitions of ideology as follows: (a)
the process of production of meanings, signs and values in social life; (b) a body of ideas characteristic of a particular social group or class; (c) ideas which help to legitimate a dominant political power; (d) false ideas which help to legitimate a dominant political power; (e) systematically distorted communication; (f) that which offers a position for a subject; (g) forms of thought motivated by social interests; (h) identity thinking (i) socially necessary illusion; (j) the conjecture of discourse and power; (k) the medium in which conscious social actors make sense of their world; (l) action oriented set of beliefs; (m) the confusion of linguistic and phenomenal reality; (n) semiotic closure; (o) the indispensable medium in which individuals live out their relations to a social structure; (p) the process whereby social life is converted to a natural reality.

According to Eagleton, all these formulations are not compatible with one another. For example if ideology means any set of beliefs motivated by social interest, it cannot simply signify the dominant forms of thought in a society (Eagleton, 2007: 2) To argue for a ‘political’ rather than ‘epistemological’ definition of ideology does not claim that politics and ideology are identical. Politics has its own sort of signification, which need not be necessarily ideological. According to Eagleton, “very often, it refers to the ways in which signs, meanings and values help to reproduce the dominant social power; but it can also denote any significant conjuncture between discourse and political interests” (2007: 221)

“The sociological view that ideology provides the ‘cement’ of social formation, or the ‘cognitive map’ which orientates its agents to action, is too often depoliticising in effect, voiding the concept of ideology of conflict and contradiction” (Eagleton, 2007: 222). According to Eagleton, ideology in its dominant forms is often seen as a mythical or imaginary resolution of such contradictions, but it is not wise to overestimate its success in achieving this goal” (2007: 222).

2.2 Aesthetic, Sister of Logic

Philosophers since antiquity have been interested in our experiences and judgments about beauty and ugliness. They have tried to understand the nature of these experiences and judgments, and they have also wanted to know whether these experiences and judgments were legitimate. The philosophical discipline of aesthetic did not receive its name until 1735, when the twenty-one year old Alexander Gottlieb Baumgarten introduced it in his master's thesis to mean ἀισθητική, or the science of what is sensed and imagined. The word “aesthetic” comes from Greek word aesthesis or αἰσθησις. It refers to the whole region of human perception and sensation. According to Baumgarten, aesthetic is a kind of logic, “sister of logic” and it is gnoseologia inferior. On the other hand, logic is gnoseologia superior. Both logic and aesthetic want to find the truth, but the truth in the aesthetic area is called beautiful (Tunali, 2007: 13-15). According to Eagleton, it is born as a woman subordinate to man but with her own humble, necessary task to perform. (2000: 16)

Ideology is not set of abstract doctrines for Eagleton, but it makes us uniquely what we are, constitutive of our identities. On the other hand, it presents itself as ‘everyone knows that’, a kind of anonymous universal truth. Althusser thinks ideology is a question of ‘lived relations’ but according to Eagleton, there are no such relations which do not involve beliefs and assumptions. Most general of all meanings of ideology stresses the social determination of thought, it lights up general field of culture from a particular angle (Eagleton, 2007: 1-31).

According to Rosencrantz, ugly is also an aesthetic category. L. Wittgenstein (1889-1951) thinks aesthetics should not only be limited by beautiful. G. T. Fechner (1801-1887) thinks psychologically. He says, pleasure phenomena in aesthetics should also be examined and he uses the name “hedonic” for this science (Tunali, 2007: 15,16). According to Umberto Eco, in ancient Greece “beauty” has not an independent situation. Eco thinks, we can say that until Pericles period, there was not a theory of real aesthetics. Beauty was related with some other qualities, for example Delphi oracle said “the most beautiful is the most fair” (Eco, 2006: 37). According to Eco “graceful”, “pleasant”, “delightful”, “wonderful”, and similar words used with the word “beautiful” are adjectives showing our liking. There is a tight connection between good and beautiful (8). In addition mostly it is said that the aesthetic object gives pleasure and it helps to smooth the tension between sensuality and rationality.

2.3 The Ideology of Aesthetic

The construction of the modern notion of the aesthetic artefact is inseparable from the construction of the dominant ideological forms of the modern class society. Aesthetics is born as a discourse of the body. Aesthetics is not a challenge to political authority, but it seems to be ideological and it is in absolutist power. This power needs to give importance to “sensible life” for its own purpose. Baumgarten’s aesthetic cognition mediates between the generalities of reason and the particulars of sense. (Eagleton, 2000: 1-13) The vision of the aesthetic/moral project, according to Eagleton, is to create
“...universal order of free, equal, autonomous human subjects, obeying no laws but those they give to themselves. This bourgeois public sphere breaks decisively with the privilege and particularism of the ancien régime, installing the middle class in image, if not in reality, as a universal subject...What is at stake here is nothing less than the production of an entirely new human subject - one which, like the work of art itself, discovers the law in the depths of its own free identity.” (2000: 19)

The binding forces of bourgeois social order are habits, pieties, sentiments and affections. The power in such order is “aesthetised”. The law dissolves to custom. In addition Kant’s “duty” becomes attractive. His “lawfulness without a law” is parallel to authority which is not authority. The aesthetic unites us with all the authority of a law ...And according to Eagleton, this is certainly one major reason why the aesthetic has figured so centrally in bourgeois thought. (2000: 75)

By the mid-eighteenth century, London had become the largest centre of international trade. The middle class has won certain historic victories within political society. Legal, economic, political transformations translated into new forms of social practice. Theory of beauty, aesthetic helped this transformation. For example according to Eagleton, structures of power became structures of feeling. Burke writes about manners:

Manners are more important than laws. Upon them in a great measure, the laws depend. The law touches us but here and there, and now and then. Manners are what vex and soothe, corrupt or purify, exalt or debase, barbarise or refine us...They give their whole form and colour to our lives. According to their quality they add morals, they supply them, or they totally destroy them (Eagleton, 2010: 69)

Manners shape the human subject from inside. Franco Moretti writes:

It is not enough that social order is legal; it must also appear symbolically legitimate...It is also necessary that a free individual, not as a fearful subject, but as a convinced citizen, one perceives the social norms as one’s own. One must internalise them and fuse external compulsion with internal impulse into a new unit until the former is no longer distinguishable from the latter. This fusion is what we call ‘consent’ or ‘legitimating’. If Bildungsroman appears to us still today as essential, pivotal point of history, this is because it has succeeded in representing this fusion with a force of conviction and optimistic clarity that will never be equalled again (Eagleton, 2000: 44)

The growing aestheticisation of social life, then represents a major hegemonic advance on the part of the governing block. According to Eagleton, there is a difficult tension within the bourgeois society, between the ideology of production and between the ideologies of production. Viewed from the standpoint of consumption the world is uniquely ours. Capitalism centres the subject in the sphere of values, only to decentre it in the realm of things (2000: 44, 92). Our beliefs are based on feelings, sensation and at the root of social relations there is aesthetics. The capitalist system produced aesthetics of consumption. It keeps us together, appeals to our senses and seems more important than laws.

3. Critical Theory and “one dimensional man”

3.1 Critical Theory

Critical theory, a broad-based Marxist-oriented approach to the study of society, was first developed in the 1920s by the philosophers Max Horkheimer, Theodor Adorno, and Herbert Marcuse at the Institute for Social Research in Frankfurt, Germany. They and other members of the Frankfurt School, as this group came to be called, fled Germany after the Nazis came to power in 1933. The institute was relocated to Columbia University in the United States and remained there until 1949, when it was re-established in Frankfurt. By the time Western capitalism had entered a new stage, dominated by growing monopolies and increasing governmental intervention in the economy (Jay, 1996: 43). According to Jay, American mass culture became one of the central concerns of the Frankfurt School (172).

Critical theorists asked why the working classes in advanced capitalist countries were generally unmotivated to press for radical social change in their own interests. They attempted to develop a theory of capitalist social relations and to analyze the various forms of cultural and ideological oppression arising from them. In Dialectic of Enlightenment (1947), Horkheimer and Adorno argued that the celebration of reason by thinkers of the 18th-century Enlightenment had led to the development of technologically sophisticated but oppressive and inhumane modes of governance, exemplified in the 20th century by fascism and totalitarianism. Horkheimer wrote to Lowenthal, “...consumption tends to vanish today,
or should I say, eating, drinking, looking, loving, sleeping become consumption, for consumption already means that man has become a machine outside as well as inside of the workshop?" (Jay, 1996: 214).

In works published in the 1950s and 60s, Marcuse attacked both the ideological conformism of managerial capitalism and the bureaucratic oppression of the communist "peoples' democracies." Critical theorists initially believed that they could liberate people from false beliefs, or "false consciousness," and in particular from ideologies that served to maintain the political and economic status quo, by pointing out to them that they had acquired these beliefs in irrational ways (e.g., through indoctrination). In the end, however, some theorists, notably Marcuse, wondered whether the forces tending to promote ideological conformity in modern capitalist societies had so compromised the perceptions and reasoning powers of most individuals that no rational critique would ever be effective. According to Martin Jay, Marcuse seemed to be arguing for an identity theory, which contrasted to Frankfurt School’s general stress on non-identity. "In fact in Marcuse’s writings the aversion to identity was far fainter than in Horkheimer’s or Adorno’s" (Jay, 1996: 60-61).

3.2 One Dimensional Man

"The identity principle strives to suppress all contradiction, and for Adorno this process has been brought to perfection in the reified, bureaucratised, administered world of advanced capitalism..." (Eagleton, 2007: 127) Marcuse projected this vision in One-Dimensional Man: Studies in the Ideology of Advanced Industrial Society (1964). He argued that the modern capitalist society has the artificial satisfactions of consumer culture. Marcuse criticised dominant philosophical and intellectual currents: positivism, analytic philosophy, technological rationality and conformist thinking. According to Kellner, Marcuse was one of the first critical theorists to analyze the consumer society through analyzing how consumerism, advertising, mass culture and ideology integrate individuals into and stabilize the capitalist system (Marcuse, 1991: xxx). His book One-Dimensional Man contains a theory of advanced industrial society that describes how changes in production, consumption, culture and thought have produced conformity. Consumer capitalism integrates individuals into its world of thought and behaviour (1991: xi). About individuals integrating into technological society, Marcuse writes,

As beneficial products became available to more individuals in more social classes, it becomes a way of life—a good way of life. It militates against qualitative change. Thus emerges a pattern of one-dimensional thought and behaviour in which ideas, aspirations, objectives are either repelled or reduced to terms of this universe (12).

Marcuse’s analysis is based on technological world which controls its subjects. According to Marcuse “pre-technological, two dimensional cultures are different from one dimensional societies” (63), but pre-technological images began to lose their power (65). Marcuse thinks, in technological society, “the people recognize themselves in their commodities; they find their soul in their automobile, hi-fi set, split-level home, kitchen equipment, the very mechanism which ties the individual to his society has changed...” (9). He underlines that in capitalist consumer societies, humans become extensions of the commodities that they buy. In the one dimensional society, the subject is assimilated into the object and follows the dictate of external objective norms and structures. The subject looses the ability to discover more liberating possibilities. One dimensional man has lost or losing individuality, freedom, the ability to control his own destiny (xi).

4. Women Blogs and Aestheticised Consumption

"Blog” is online journal where an individual, group, or corporation presents a record of activities, thoughts or beliefs. Some blogs operate as news filters, collecting various online sources and adding short comments and internet links. Other blogs concentrate on presenting original material. Tim Berners-Lee, created the first “blog” in 1992 to outline and render visible the ongoing development of the Web and the software necessary to navigate this new space. In December 1997, J. Barger, an early online presence, coined the term web log to describe his Web site “RobotWisdom.com”. While the history of the term is new, the same cannot be said of the identity of the first blogger. Depending on the definition of a blog, Berners-Lee may not qualify as the first blogger. Claimants to this title include Justin Hall, a college student who started an online list at links. net in 1994; Carolyn Burke, who began publishing Carolyn’s Diary online in 1995; and Dave Winer, who has published Scripting News online since April 1, 1997. By October 2005 there were 19.6 million blogs, a number that has been doubling roughly every five months. Approximately 70,000 new blogs are created each day. Despite the phrase “every person a blogger”, blogs are not likely to replace the mainstream media. Instead, blogs will continue to complement existing news media by allowing anyone to set up a Web site dedicated to his or her particular interest or perspective.
“Shopping Consultant” blog is rewarded in women blogs category in 2011 in Turkey. Tammy Gibson’s “A Mom in Red High Heels” blog, has similar subject and is chosen as one of the best 50 blogs in 2011. When they are compared, it can be observed that consumers unite in the frame of the aesthetics of consumption, their tendency and taste are alike in global scale, legitimizing “ideology of aesthetics”. Shopping Consultant” blog is in Turkish, it has about 1300 members, is sponsored by Schwarzkof and received the third reward in the competition sponsored by Turkcell (2011). The blog includes magazine news, photographs of famous people, comments on clothing, sharing information and advices about clothes, accessories, beauty, and diets. A Mom in Red High Heels’ blog has about 200 million users, its content is similar to the mentioned Turkish blog but it is much more richer than “Shopping Consultant” in material, for example it includes many links of shops, brands, touristy places, books, videos and courses about beauty, make up etc.

4.1 Subjects and Language of the Blogs

Shopping Consultant (original name: Alışveriş Danışmanı) whose most of the members are housewives, includes topics such as Brands, names of places for shopping, pregnancy, children, vacation with children, health, beauty, diets, magazine news, astrology, second hand selling, doctor addresses, illnesses (i.e. Psychiatry, pedagogy, depression, panic attack...). Some dialogues among women can be called as feminist because a great deal of them is about criticising men and traditional role of men and women. The language of the blog is personal, speech like and has a unique jargon. Although the blog is prepared in Turkish, many English words and sentences such as “out of service”, “you might also like” can be seen. Turkish includes lots of exclamation marks, capital letters and sound words to indicate strong emotions. For example, “DAN DAN DAN!!” “Hişşšt!” In this blog, most of grammar usage is wrong, verbs and words are shortened. Examples of commonly used words are shop, blog, price, sale, nice...Most used sentences are “I like”, “I bought”, “I want”, and “you must have”, “holiday shopping”, “follow me with fashion”, “who is more beautiful?”, “you might also like”...The blog presents a few advertisements and links to other addresses such as “facebook”.

The topics in A Mom in Red High Heels whose members seem to be married and unmarried women, include brands, names and places for shopping, pregnancy, children, vacation by children, health, beauty, diet, magazine news, elevating income, joining Twitter and Fun Club, introducing books (about beauty, nails, teeth etc.), confidence building, inner beauty (i.e. ecologic behaviour), video courses for “to meet your most beautiful self”. The last one is online training platform with expert demos and support, saying “all dedicated to helping you discover your true beauty”. The language is informal, speech like and comments section includes lots of exclamation marks to indicate strong emotions. Capitalization is used to create the effect of emphasis (i.e. who loves a fabulous makeover? I DO! Is your hand raised too?). Commonly used words are shop, clearance, beauty, style, new look, must-haves. Used Sentences such as “Shopping is my therapy”, “AWESOME summer dresses for your wardrobe!”, “So you finally have the hair colour you LOVE!”, Get the Goods, “Must-Have: Structured Satchel”, “Must-Have Chic and Sophisticated Jacket” are seen in the blog. The blog presents more advertisements than “Shoppinng Consultant” blog and give links to “twitter”, “shops” and “courses”...

In both blogs traditional gender roles can be seen. Women are responsible from children, house-cleaning, family diet, cooking and they have to look well everywhere including work places and it seems that they have to learn how to be more beautiful, aesthetic by consuming aestheticized consumption objects.

4.2 Aesthetics and Cinderella

As mentioned before, aesthetics is the science of what is sensed and imagined. Both blogs include colourful photographs, attractive colours which appeal to our senses and many of them seem beautiful. In addition most of the subjects and language are about aesthetics. (i.e. to like, to feel good, to be beautiful). Most importantly not only the products but the consumption itself, “shopping” seems aesthetic. The aesthetics of consumption is visible in these blogs, the users have common consumption discourse in both blogs and consumption products have leading roles. Perceiving consumption as aesthetic has a great role in women’s tending to consumption and expressing themselves by the products they consume. In addition there is place for imaginary. Women having traditional gender roles, have opportunity to change themselves like Cinderella by buying a dress and shoes. The following paragraphs taken from “A Mom in Red High Heels” are a good example for this modern Cinderella.

Once upon a time, there was a mom who worked … a lot. She blogged, she homeschooled, she did laundry, dishes, sweeping and all the other not-so-fun chores that it takes to run a household. She was tired of the day to day and dreamed of the day her prince would whisk her away for one magical evening.
Then one day, she purchased a dress...an AH-mazing dress. It had ruffles. It was sophisticated and girly all at the same time. It made her feel wonderful. From the moment she tried it on; she knew this dress was special. It made her feel...Magical, Gorgeous, Special, Confident, plus, when she wore it, her husband looked at her with a twinkle in his eye.

But, something was missing. Shoes. Beautiful, fantastic, princess-worthy shoes.... One SUPER lucky girl will win a pair of original Cinderella Slippers re-imagined by the amazing shoe designer, Christian Louboutin! To add to the excitement, the winner is invited to a private event at Disneyland! DREAMS DO COME TRUE ...just like Cinderella!

As it is seen from the last paragraph, the winner of the shoes will be invited to Disneyland. According to Baudrillard “The Disneyland imaginary is neither true nor false; it is a deterrence machine set up in order to rejuvenate in reverse the fiction of the real” (Baudrillard, 1983: 25,26). Baudrillard names Disneyland as “orders of simulation, plays of illusions and phantasms” (23). All these terms are in the area of aesthetics, the science of what is sensed and imagined. The paragraphs above given from the “A Mom in Red High Heels” are good examples for advertisement, aestheticised consumption objects such as dresses, shoes, places and gender roles. Furthermore it is an important fact that, women want to own these objects with their free will because they appeal to their senses.

5. Conclusion

Beauty seems to have important role in many lives. It is no surprise that philosophers since antiquity have been interested in our experiences about beauty. Today the science of beauty, aesthetic helps to create and keep global consumer identity, and this identity is visible in women blogs. These blogs can be explained by the terms culture industry or Marcuse’s one dimensional society, but “the ideology of aesthetics” fits best to explain the content of these blogs, because they address to the senses and imagination. Most expressed concepts are about beauty, liking, charm, fancy... As owners of the blogs and users find consumption aesthetic and as they believe that they will feel and look beautiful by fashionable products, they seem satisfied to be part of the consumption system.

It seems the aesthetics of consumption has global property in the tension of local and global. Both blogs justify Eagleton’s “the ideology of aesthetics”. As aesthetics managed to keep bourgeois together in the eighteenth century, by aestheticised moral and manners, it still manages to design consumer society by creating aestheticised consumer identity. Our beliefs are based on feelings, sensation and it can be seen that at the root of social relations in “A Mom in Red High Heels” and “Shopping Consultant /Alışveriş Danışmanı” blogs there is aesthetics, they are examples of aesthetic consumption that satisfies its' users. Aesthetics presents itself as a kind of anonymous universal truth and it can be said that it is the truth of "aesthetic Cinderella." 

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The Role of the Woman in the Albanian Family

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Abstract

One of the main problems that contemporary societies face today is the uncertain role of the woman and the man. Women have an important role in the development of the society and culture. They also have a great impact in the development and improvement of the human race due to the close relationship and impact on the children during their upbringing. Women, the Albanian women in specific, used to be discriminated and suppressed because of various conditions of the time. After the fall of the communist regime the Albanian woman needed a lot of support, not only morally but even institutionally. There was a need for collective initiatives of feminist organizations so that women could have some of the rights which she had been unfairly prevented from. "Feminism is the struggle to protect and improve women’s rights" (Giddens, A Fq14)

1. Abbreviations

- CEDAW Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
- HDCP Center to promote human development
- INSTAT Institute of Statistics
- QNL Centre for legislative initiatives
- UNDP The development program of the United Nations

2. Introduction

This article aims to highlight the following issues:

- the essential role of women in the reformation and development process of the society in order to have this part of the society involved in all representative areas and levels with equal opportunities.
- the attempts of women to ensure their rights, at any time and circumstance, their struggle to ensure the respect towards their values and capacity as well as the equity in every possible decision or opportunity that can affect their future;
- the involvement of the state institutions, both public and private to enforce with seriousness and fairness all the legal acts and laws which are directly related to respecting women rights in the society;
- the uncontested role of women in the upbringing of their children, and in educating the essential moral and ethical values in the family.

3. The historical development of women rights

The Albanian society has undergone harsh political, economical, social and psychological developments the consequences of which have left their traces behind the fragile part of the society such as women and children. The up-to-now studies on gender-based violence reinforce the Canon (the unwritten but widely-accepted codes which have been transmitted in the Albanian society up to the 20th century) as a source of violence and mistreatment of women from their husbands, but it is not the only one. As the existence of the Canon once and forever determined the domination of men over women, the inferiority of women has been engraved as a consequence of a wide range of political, cultural, social, family, and time factors.

The post-World War II period of time marked an important turn in the attitude towards women. During this period, a “re-activation” of women was noted in order to fit to the “revolution” of the country which was later legally reflected in the Constitution of 1946. This wind of change was obviously a relief for women and girls who up to that time had been overruled by the exploiting and discriminating effect of the Canon, according to which beating, mistreatment, and killing of
a woman were all legal. The 46-year totalitarian system, despite the massive psychological trauma created, had also an enlightening and regenerating effect in the social, economic, cultural and political role and position of women in Albania. The woman was not insignificant at home; on the contrary, she was considered an "emancipating" power for the society, equal to her husband and independent. The increasing needs for the education of women, her involvement in the educational, social and political life, brought her to a stronger position towards her husband, at least out of the house. The family code of 1982 specifically served to this position of the woman in the Albanian society of the time. In act 6 of this code, “it is sanctioned that the woman is relieved from the economic and political suppression and has equal rights to men”. However, the communist system of “apparent equity” does not have specific definitions on the existence of violence in women. It seems that system has given more freedom to women out of the house rather than inside it. Though it was never made public, mistreatment of women at home was existent and evident. The solution to this issue was added to the long list of taboos of the time. The transition period during 1990-1998, especially the economic one has heightened gender inequity in its extreme levels. The process of moving form a centralized economic system to an open-market system has strengthened the economical position of men, and as a consequence has also violated the independence of women. Furthermore, women have added to the unemployed lists of small units of service and home service. As a result, an increased number of unemployed women was noted which violated their social, economical and political position as well. Though it offered a wide range of freedom for women in the esthetic, and self-care aspect, the democratization of the Albanian society marked the beginning of a strong economical dependence of women on men.

The family is a moral and ideological unit which is not universally exposed but in different social orders. The family is not a natural group created by the blood need, but a range of human relations shaped by a state which recognized the family as unit in charge of ownership, enabled care and welfare, and dealt specifically with the young; a conceptualized sphere as a field of love and intimacy in opposition to much of undefined norms that dominate modern economies and policies.( Collier,J.&Rosaldo,M.& Yanagisako,S. Fq. 74).

Violence, threats, oppression of women in the family and their vulnerability to men’s anger and physical consequences were supported (indirectly) by the legal structure that virtually bypass domestic violence. The use of violence by husbands and fathers to control the women in the family was often a sufficient force, because they were aware that they could face penalties if they failed to perform house duties or behaved differently. Divorce appears as a peripheral phenomenon and not disturbing in the Albanian society during the monist regime, by referring also to the statistics it is almost inconsiderable. The threat of divorce without the exercise of violence has often served to limit the power of women in the family especially if they were not able to support themselves, or because they were not legally able to inherit and manage their wealth. Many of the women who were in opposition to amending the equal rights did it just for the fear of divorce. Of course, women with wealth or education, or those who live in egalitarian families can not suffer in the same way with women that lack these resources. Many women rely on the love and mercy of men, or the protection of their fathers. But in most countries, historical data show that women ultimately have been subject to the power of their husbands and older men in the family to the community or state.

Anthropologists claim that the description and analysis of the position of "dependent wife", subjected to violence in the family and the state should be seen as a comparative perspective. Such scholars as Meas(1935), Friedl(1975), Leacock(1978), Hoffer(1972), and later Mac Cormarc(1974) and Rosaldo(1974) noted that the rate of women who experience domestic equity is different. Dependence is not universal and equality between spouses is based on men's aggression and greater ability to enforce their will, and as sociologists shae it “this is not an unavoidable reality of human heritage”.

Women have relatively more power in contemporary Western families mainly because couples usually decide that their new-family should be independent from their families of origin. Coser (1985) suggested that in the American families, more and more women find a job which satisfies their families' material need and educational opportunities for their children. When this happens Cose noted that men lose power when women gain economic independence. This theory however showed that males often engage in social standards of the middle class where the woman earns money in the family. This is an indication, between the loss of male power at home, and the victory of a community in which the family level depends on prestige. For some families the transition from traditional to modern families, can lead to the beginning of disharmony. Tension worsens when the family ideology is based on the traditional values of the dominance of man, and finally when a significant euphoria occurs when new values of equality in culture are displayed.

Gender equality is a cornerstone in the development process of the country. To achieve it, we need to examine the causes of inequality found in the family, community, labor market and generally in the society. The division of labor by gender creates burdens (measured by time and energy), a degree of recognition (of prestige)as well as different powers for women and men. Gender inequality negatively affects the balance between opportunities, living conditions and social
status of women and men. All over the world life is different for men and women. Usually, women have fewer rights and sources of income. These inequalities limit women's opportunities and achievements and contribute to an uneven development, and thereby perpetuate the lower status of women in society. The Albanian society is patriarchal, with different expectations regarding appropriate behavior and acceptable roles for men and women. There are many stereotypes about women, for example, women are considered inferior to men, women education is less valued, and they are just meant to be married, and so on. As a result, women have little power in terms of economic resources, have higher levels of unemployment than men, they fall victims to any kind of violence and experience small improvements to their quality of life, despite their ceaseless efforts for development. The Albanian society is patriarchal, with expectations. However, gender relations vary from one province to another and are quite visible in rural areas of Albania. Gender inequality in the Albanian society is not just a matter of human rights but also an issue of development. The integration of gender perspective is a hard work. Gender integration is concerned with the change of attitudes concerning the roles, values and status of men and women together. It has to do with changing attitudes towards the equal sharing of the responsibilities, interventions and control of resources and decision-making. Political and social change sought by gender integration is a long process but with important. The goal is to have Albanian policymakers develop policies and programs that would ensure equality between men and women in life. Among the causes that are considered as an obstacle to women's participation in politics and decision-making, is the lack of free time for women to deal with politics and to be active in participation and decision making. Of course in this situation a significant impact rests on the fact that the dominant mentality considers housework and child care as natural issues and specific obligation of women only. Indeed, this unnatural division and masculine perception of the family and household tasks and responsibility for women only, is one of the reasons that keeps her "isolated" from the political and social world. Considering the home as the most naturalized and obligatory environment only for women, in our society there is only one exaggerated concept of woman as "a lady in the family". This is often the social mentality of our society, which mostly considers politics as "inappropriate work" for women. Lack of time, excess load in family and lack of equal sharing of tasks and responsibilities within the family, have limited opportunities and the equal participation of women in political and social life. a Without the woman's release from this burden that in the Albanian society is still unfairly regarded as an exclusive task of women, who need to withstand all loads in their daily family routine, it is not possible to assume for an increase of opportunities and possibilities to be active in society. In this context, we can not talk about gender equality in society in terms of "leisure inequality" between men and women. This equality must first be placed in the family, which is one of the institutions that have indication of misbalanced gender equality. The Albanian family is the first institution that nurtures, sustains and nourishes the mentality of gender inequality between men and women, because conditions and time opportunities for "extra family" social contribution are not equal.

4. Social and political justice

Without the "domestic justice" there is no political and social justice, or it will as always be, a "gender utopia" which still continues to find space in the Albanian family, not only today, but historically, because of its essentially patriarchal and conservative character. In a democratic society, every individual is entitled to a much higher quality of life. This argument proves that gender integration helps not only women, but the whole family. For example, the negative effects of depression in women or limited employment opportunities for men affect all family members. Notions of justice can be used in different contexts to argue an equal participation and representation of all genders. a lot of nation and states (including Albania) have ratified various conventions and are part of a set of normative documents (for example, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women), and each of them sets gender equality as a fundamental principle. Despite the fact that these states are obliged to fulfill these commitments, the reality shows that the argument of justice itself, unfortunately, is often insufficient to persuade governments to mobilize adequate resources and to respect the fundamental principle that every individual has the right to be free and equal. Directorate of Equal Opportunities through the National Strategy for Development and Integration (2007-2013) and the National Strategy for Gender Equality and Against Domestic Violence and Action Plan (2007-2010) has in its objectives, among others, even the strengthening of the legal and institutional protective mechanisms in order to ensure gender equality in Albania; Empowerment of women through her participation in decision-making, Economic empowerment of women and the increase of opportunities for employment and vocational training; Encouragement of equal access of women and girls in quality education; absence of studies and data on women's participation in decision-making within the family, and daily life observations show that the participation of women in the decision-making is associated with their level of education, residence, age and access to property and income. The lower the education levels of women, the weaker is its decision-
making power, because a lot fewer opportunities for employment and of providing economic independence. When decision making is related to spending money, in most cases the final decision is taken by the men of the family, who also retain the right to decide on the number of children, education, migration or emigration of the family or one of the members, as well as child marriage, when it is combined. Women play a more informative or advisory role regarding the need to purchase a particular food or advise the sale of a family-made product. Though not very systematic, various studies show that domestic violence is widespread in the Albanian society. It does not recognize limits of age, gender, ethnicity or religious affiliation, economic status, disability, or geography, but in most reported cases women and girls are victims. Therefore, it is estimated that a third of Albanian girls and women experience some form of domestic violence. They are beaten, attacked, and in some cases abducted and trafficked for purposes of exploitation by their family members. Observations of the last ten years show that over a quarter of girls and women report being victims of sexual and emotional violence and that rural women are the most affected by physical violence (see Reflections, 1995; 1994; Gjermeni & Coast, 2003 Gender Alliance for Development, 2006.) In 2004 the counseling Center for Women and girls reports that there were about 6,670 phone calls from violated women and girls. According to figures of the Ministry of Internal Affairs in cases of domestic violence in 2005, according to the evidence of criminal incidents it turns out to be 102 such cases, of which 21 are murder cases, while 25 others are threatening with murder. Furthermore, children are also victims of violence. The 2006 studies of the UNICEF show that one in five children has experienced dizziness, 1 in 14 children has tried to turn off and 1 in 4 has experienced bruising and bleeding due to attacks.

With the advent of democracy and the transition to a new system, every woman is entitled to feel free and enjoy her denied rights, up to suppression. The collapse of a system and the arrival of democracy was more promising for a new spirit that the Albanian society would take in many aspects. Democracy would open more doors and would increase the chances that all the denied rights of women were inclined towards a legal re-dimensioning as well as towards a self-awareness of the society. The role of women in society and all denied rights would become an important part of social policies being addressed in their favor. In fact it seemed a very promising reality, which would eradicate social differences in society, and become a key factor for women to occupy their deserved positions.

5. Conclusion

These arguments indicate that from the involvement men would women in all aspects society and development, the whole country would benefit. The role and influence of women in family builds the spiritual dimension and structure of the family and the humanity in general. The contribution and the capacity of men and women in all areas can not be ignored. Rather, they need to be encouraged in order to ensure an equitable and effective development.

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Difficulties in Transition among Livelihoods under Agricultural Land Conversion for Industrialization: Perspective of Human Development

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Abstract

Increasing industrialization in Vietnam has transformed numerous fields of farmers to industrial zones, especially in the Red River Delta in Vietnam. This process forces farmers to change significantly their livelihoods. Affected same changes, farmers have to start new livelihoods. However, in many industrializing regions, inequality and social differentiation are increasing higher than before among farmers practicing new livelihoods. This implies that new livelihoods of partly farmer groups are not as good as those of others. Such farmer groups have faced difficulties preventing them to have better livelihoods, and creating hidden social stratification. From perspective of human development as capabilities expansion, this research identifies difficulties and farmers’ capabilities during the process of starting new livelihood. As preliminary results, there are farmer groups having limited choices for new good livelihoods. Main difficulties in transition livelihoods are lack of financial resources, new working skills, market information, market linkages, and constraint of age. Such problems create deprivation of capability or freedom in starting new good livelihood. Of methodology, the research examines changes in livelihoods of farmers who are affected from agricultural land conversion for industrialized zones in Red River Delta, Vietnam. In-depth interview and group discussion are taken to understand transition in livelihoods, and farmers’ capabilities in starting new livelihoods. This research contributes to human development discourse from aspect of livelihoods. Also, identifying difficulties is useful for explaining inequality and social differentiation under industrialization. The research is helpful for policy makers and state staffs who design and implement policies of agriculture and industrialization.

1. Introduction

Increasing industrialization in Vietnam since 1990s put great changes on farmers. Numerous fields had to be transformed to industrial zones, especially in the Red River Delta in Vietnam. Without agricultural land, farmers are changing significantly to new livelihoods. However, in many industrializing regions, inequality and social differentiation are increasing higher than before among farmers practicing new livelihoods. The transition of livelihoods after agricultural land conversion seems to be painful for farmers. They have faced a range of difficulties preventing them to have better livelihoods, and creating hidden social stratification and inequality. It is a deep change of identities from farmers to workers, sellers, vendors, bosses, and so on. Correspondingly, transition to new livelihoods came with changes of farmer’s capabilities in different directions depending how good new livelihoods are. Considering human development as capabilities expansion, it is certainly that industrialization influent to human development through the mechanism of livelihoods and capabilities. Hence, agricultural land conversion challenged human development of farmers. It is necessary to unlock how capabilities of farmers have changed under the transitions between livelihoods, and what are main difficulties within the transition? Of methodology, the research examines changes in livelihoods of farmers who are affected from agricultural land conversion for industrialized zones in Red River Delta, Vietnam. In-depth interview and group discussion are taken to understand transition in livelihoods, and farmers’ capabilities in starting new livelihoods. This research contributes to human development discourse from aspect of livelihoods. Also, identifying difficulties is useful for explaining inequality and social differentiation under industrialization. The research is helpful for policy makers and state staffs who design and implement policies of agriculture and industrialization, especially policies of land.

2. Literature Review and Analytical Framework

2.1 Livelihoods in transition
2.1.1 Transition of livelihoods

Transition of livelihoods is researched in specific case studies, mainly in cases that moving citizens for massive construction or industrial zones. In those cases, people have to stop their livelihood to begin new livelihoods in new contexts.

Jeffrey Bury examined how transnational gold mining operation creates local changes in Cajamarca, Peru (Bury, 2004). The author identified four types of capital forming changes in livelihoods: Produced capital (savings, convertible liquid assets, earned income, pensions, transfers from the state, other remittances, infrastructural components as buildings, transportation, electrical services); Human capital (skills, education, knowledge, ability to labour, health); Natural capital (non-renewable resources - minerals, forests, soils – and renewable ones – ecosystem services, nutrient cycling; Social capital (stocks of mutual trust or beneficial connections for people). Jeffrey Bury found that gold mining operation had reduced natural capital and social, meanwhile, increase produced capital and human capital. Under impacts of the external factors, household’s livelihoods transited uncertainly and shifted opportunities for resources access among different groups in the community. The research raised issue of evaluation to decrease and increase of different resources at the same time.

In China, the famous case studies of the Three Gorges Dam had been analysed its great impact on livelihoods of approximately 1.3 million people living inside the super dam construction (Trouw, 2007). The core part of Three Gorges Dam project is the resettlement program. All households living in the area inundated by the Three Gorges Dam had to move to new place. Hence, their main resources as land, savings, their labor, social ties, and communal resources became less during the resettlement process. Such Chinese households borrowed a lot to build new housing and other things. Their adaptation reflected many difficulties during the resettlement process. Research group of Brooke Wilmsen found that households’ incomes fell after resettlement especially those ones had more lost land. Furthermore, households become more vulnerable to further external shocks than they were before the resettlement (Wilmsen et al., 2011).

Similarly in Vietnam, hydropower development in all regions created serious problems of livelihoods for thousands people living inside large dams as Son La Dam, Ban Ve Dam, Tuyen Quang Dam (Anh, 2007). Research of Bui Thi Minh Hang in 2011 and 2013 also indicates that affected households had to adapt passively to involuntary resettlement by Son La Hydropower Dam. The livelihood adaptation of resettled households was strongly conditioned by a lack of available livelihood assets in the remote mountain location. Meanwhile, main compensation money has been consumed rather than invested in livelihood assets. Hence, livelihood outcomes could worsen if the compensation ends. The author raised the issue of sustainability of livelihoods after resettlement (Bui and Schreinemachers, 2011, Bui et al., 2013). A range of investigation on other hydropower projects in Quang Nam, Hue, Gia Lai, Kon Tum, Phu Yen, Dak Lak, Tuyen Quang, Hoa Binh provinces have shown that new livelihoods of affected people are not better or even equal to previous livelihoods before resettlement programs (Ha et al., 2013, Ha and Tranh, 2011).

Households on those above investigations were forced to move out from their living places, and then their livelihoods were moved simultaneously. They still can continue their livelihoods at resettled places. Those cases are quite different from case study of agricultural land conversion and farmers’ livelihoods. In which, after losing almost agricultural land, households had to start a different livelihood. However, above results are still useful for understanding how livelihoods transit from one to another.

2.1.2 Livelihoods approach

Concepts of livelihood are different due to the diversity of the ways people make a living. Chambers (1995) defined livelihood as “the means of gaining a living” (Chambers, 1995). Livelihood can be seen as a combination of the resources used and the activities undertaken in order to live.

Livelihoods perspectives have been central to rural development thinking and practice in the past decade (Scoones, 2009). Rural livelihoods become an important aspect for investigation of development regarding to poverty. In 1980s, livelihood perspective had raised attention when Norman Long developed his distinctive actor-oriented approach (Long, 1984). Literature of livelihoods developed essentially with the emergence of sustainable rural livelihoods approach by M.S.Swaminathan, Robert Chambers (Swaminathan, 1987, Chambers, 1987, Chambers, 1983). In this approach, a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers and Conway, 1992).
Livelihoods are built on certain capitals: natural capital, economic/financial capital, human capital, social capital, and physical capital (Ellis, 2000: p8). Hence, individuals and households’ livelihoods can be traced back to such five capitals. By contrast, those capitals are enough to explain livelihoods.

Definition of Chambers and Conway lacks an important attribute of livelihoods which is the access that individuals and households have to different types of capital, opportunities, and services. The access allows people to control and use other resources from surrounding people. Access also includes the ability to participate in, and derive benefits from social and public services as education, health services, and so on. Hence Frank Ellis proposed a definition “a livelihoods comprises the assets (natural, physical, financial and social capital), the activities, and the access to these (mediated by institutions and social relations) that together determine the living gained by the individual or household” (Ellis, 2000: p10). This definition is also used throughout this paper.

Capabilities were introduced in Capability Approach by Amartya Sen. The capability approach praises freedom of human beings “by expanding the range of things that a person can be and do, such as to be healthy and well nourished, to be knowledgeable, and to participate in community life”, in short, it is freedom to choose what people value (Fukuda-Parr, 2003: 303). Expansion of capabilities is considered as human development. Hence, livelihoods as a set of capabilities contribute essentially to “a people-oriented development”. At the same time, capabilities influence and be influenced by livelihoods. In this paper, the author concerns mainly capabilities as dependents of livelihoods.

2.2 Agricultural land conversion and farmers’ livelihoods in Vietnam

In Vietnam, impact of agricultural land conversion on farmers’ livelihoods is significant because they have lost land - the most important material of agricultural production. In the investigation conducted from 2007 to 2011 in Hung Yen province – an industrialized region in the Red river delta, Nguyen Thi Dien categorized farmers’ adaptation in three strategies: Agricultural intensification, diversification, and non-farm livelihoods. The research also revealed how different farmers group benefit or suffer losses from agricultural land conversion. Households specialized into non-farm livelihoods that they have comparative advantages: opening restaurants, shops, beauty salons, guesthouses, urban-rural trade. Some active households develop rural manufacturing and family business, for example, waste recycling, footwear making, and leather goods production (Dien, 2011).

Not by land conversion, but rural households in the down stream flooding area in the Mekong Delta also lost their land by flooding. They need to change to other livelihoods. Research group of Vu Van Tuan examined livelihoods of landless rural households in the down stream flooding area in the Mekong Delta. They found that landless household livelihoods had been falling into most difficulty as no financial capital, less education, low working skills, and low social voice. Hence, they had to earn incomes by several other employment rather than agricultural activities. Besides, they were always suffered risks of health problem, debt, and unemployment (Tuan et al., 2008).

Together with industrialization, urbanization influence strongly to livelihoods of rural people because rural areas transform themselves to be urban, and urban areas attract so many farmers for increasing labour demand. The research of Le Canh Dung’s group analyses the impact of urbanization on livelihoods strategies of rural people, especially impact on agricultural and employment transition. They found that agricultural livelihoods have declining trend; meanwhile, non-agricultural livelihoods are growing. Besides, employment structure of rural people is varied, in which agricultural labour is decreasing and labour in manufacturing and services is increasing. This research identified two livelihood strategies of local people to response with urbanization: Firstly, developing high technological and sustainable agriculture associating with linkage of marketing channel; Secondly, developing of non-agricultural employment are priority to develop in the near future (Dung et al., 2008).

Such above investigations stress on how livelihoods are changed under determinants as land conversion, natural disaster (flooding), or urbanization. Many researchers mixed difficulties in transition between livelihoods of farmers to characteristics of new contexts created by above determinants. However, it is necessary to distinguish barriers that preventing rural people to have better livelihoods.

2.3 Analytical framework

Analytical framework of this research connects livelihoods and capabilities in order to understand link from industrialization (signaled by agricultural land conversion) to human development. The framework is shown as the below chart.
Chart 1: Analytical framework based on livelihoods and capabilities

The framework assumes that, under context of agricultural land conversion, changes in livelihoods lead to changes of farmers' capabilities. This is important assumption although there is a dialectic relation between livelihoods and capabilities. According to this assumption, livelihood A generates capabilities A. Due to agricultural land conversion, livelihood B replaces livelihood A, and correspondingly creates capabilities B. Hence, there is a shift from capabilities A to capabilities B. This shift reflects the transition among livelihoods.

The framework takes the UNDP concept “human development” based on capabilities: Human development is the expansion of people’s freedoms to live long, healthy and creative lives; to advance other goals they have reason to value; and to engage actively in shaping development equitably and sustainably on a shared planet. People are both the beneficiaries and drivers of human development, as individuals and in groups (UNDP, 2010: 22). Thus, the shift from capabilities A to capabilities B means change of freedom that farmers achieved, or a shift of human development of farmers.

3. Methodology

Primary data are gathered mainly through group discussion and in-depth interview. Secondary data and information are extracted from journal articles, books, and academic reports.

Group discussion is used with 20 people who had to convert their agricultural land for local industrialization in Hung Yen province. The group has 50% males and 50% females. In terms of age, participants are from 35 to 65 years old. The group discussion is used to understand difficulties emerged in livelihoods transition. Those participants had mentioned various aspects of livelihoods: income, working environment, working skills, size of production, market barriers, and so on.

In-depth interview has been implemented in Hai Phong province and Hung Yen province where had massive agricultural land conversion. In Hung Yen, the author interviews 10 households at Tan Quang commune, Vinh Khuc commune, and Luong Hoi Town. After land conversions, currently, they are doing agricultural production (animal husbandry), services (restaurants and rent house), and production (food processing, leather production). In Hai Phong, there are 10 interviewed households at Dang Cuong commune, An Duong district where has Nomura Industrial Zone and Dang Cuong Industrial Zone (schemed). In both provinces, interviewees are selected randomly among households that suffering strong impacts from land conversion. In-depth interview is used for examining how people are after land conversion.

Hai Phong and Hung Yen are two of the most rapid industrializing provinces in Vietnam since 1990s (Huong et al., 2012). Common characteristics of those provinces are high rate of agricultural land conversion, exceeding labours of farmers, booming of industries and manufacturing (Duong and Tha, 2012).

4. Findings And Discussion

4.1 Agricultural land conversion for industrialization and challenges in livelihoods

Under rapid process of industrialization in the provinces neighboring Hanoi Capital, massive areas of agricultural land have been transformed for industrial zones. In Van Lam district (Hung Yen province), near the border with Hanoi Capital, over 14000 households had lost almost 750 hectares of agricultural land for industrial zones in period 2000 – 2010. The rate of land conversion was really high in many communes as Lac Hong commune (98% of agricultural land), Trung Trac (94.23%), Tan Quang (62.17%)... (Hanh et al., 2013). According to annual report from Department of Agriculture and
Rural Development Hung Yen, just in year 2007, four rice-specialized fields at Phu Cu, Tien Le, Kim Dong, and Hung Yen town had to converted over 500 hectares for establishing industrial zones. Similar situations were also happened in other provinces nearby Hanoi as Bac Ninh, Vinh Phuc... (Luu and Phuc, 2008).

Industrialization has changed many aspects of rural areas. Both 20 group participants and 20 interviewees pointed that rural infrastructure improved rapidly with better traffic system, electricity, post offices, schools, and other buildings. However, rural environment also downgraded noticeably. In terms of living standard, income per capita went up during over 10 years of industrialization in rural areas. The most significant change is that farmers have to seek new livelihoods. National and local surveys indicate that people in rural areas select various working activities as handicraft, manufacturing, joining companies, running business, migration, construction, street vending (Dien, 2011, Hanh et al., 2013).

As a consequence, social stratification in rural areas is increasing quickly. The gap between the rich and the poor has been extended more widely. In-depth interview at Tan Quang commune, Vinh Khuc commune, and Luong Hoi Town (Hung Yen province) showed that richest households earned over 100 million VND (over USD5000) per year while the poor could get only below 10 million VND (around USD500). The rich are those ones took advantages from industrialization in rural areas: accumulating lands, opening farm, building guesthouse, running new business, working abroad. Gradually, they got higher income that allows them to buy cars, estates, new villas, and so on. In contrary, the poor are the ones having uncertain jobs, selling labour, or facing risks as health problems or accidents. Briefly, after land conversion, former homogeneous farmers group is divided into the rich, the middle farmers (who can afford only their own lives without saving), and the poor. Obviously, not all households having no agricultural land became the poor; however, many poor people in rural areas lack productive materials, especially agricultural land which was a direct consequence from agricultural land conversion for industrial zones in recent decades.

4.2 Farmers’ capabilities after agricultural land conversion

Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi identify 9 basic capabilities: health, education, economic security, the balance of time, political voice and governance, social connection, environmental conditions, personal security, subjective measures of quality of life (Alkire, 2010: 34). This research stresses several specific aspects as economic security, social connection, and environmental conditions.

In the period of post-land conversion, household’s economic security become very vulnerable. During transition between livelihoods, source of income from agricultural production was cut but new income is not set up stably. Those households having long transition (several months, or even 1-2 years) were affected negatively by quick decline of income. In addition, after land conversion, new livelihoods as running business, labouring in factories become more sensitive with market situation. Moreover, volatility of market and high competition lead household’s economic security to be less stable.

Box 1: Economic competition in Vinh Khuc Commune, Hung Yen

“Competition in my field (leather manufacture) is so harsh. I cannot compete with big firms who produce at large volume and distribute to provinces through branches system. I cannot sell products at far provinces”.

In-depth interview, Male, 68 years old in Vinh Khuc Commune, Hung Yen.

Economic environment worsens in recent years because of crises in early and late 2000s. In Hung Yen and Hai Phong, hundreds firms collapsed or stopped temporarily, especially small enterprises, which, in turn, demolish economic opportunities for households in rural areas. Due to such economic problems, workers who had been farmers before usually stood in the list of wage-cutting in factories, at the same, other farmers could not sell goods and services as good as before.

Social connection among households had changed significantly from relation based on relatives and neighbouring to relations focused on economic activities. Before land conversion, farmers had much free time for meeting, helping each other, visiting relatives. They also shared collective activities on fields so that they were harmony and honest. After land conversion, such connection reduced and replaced steps by steps by new connections for economic

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1 “Cạnh tranh trong ngành của bác rất mạnh. Bác không thể cạnh tranh được với những công ty lớn. Các công ty này sản xuất ở quy mô lớn và có thể phân phối ở các tỉnh thông qua hệ thống chi nhánh. Bác không thể giao hàng tại các tỉnh xa”
competitiveness. Doing new livelihoods, households have little time for meeting people, not as frequently as before. Besides, new social connections are mainly used for economic purposes.

Box 2: Economic connection

"Ornament tree Club is established for purpose of exchanging techniques and market information. The club helps us rising and looking after ornament trees, then sells at higher price".

In-depth interview, Male, 64 years old, at Chien Thang village, Dang Cuong Commune, Hai Phong.

Hence, social connections of people after land conversion had downgraded from multi-dimensions included helping, supporting, sharing each other to one dimension: cooperating for competition.

Environmental condition in rural areas worsens after land conversion. This is one of the most visible impacts from industrialization in rural areas. Owing to weak control of local authority, firm threw directly industrial wastes to water and land next to industrial zones. Processed wastes are limited because recycle system operated in effectively or not used. By saving recycling cost, enterprises in rural areas earn much profit so they expand their production. In turn, this leads to more serious pollution in rural areas.

Box 3: Water and air pollution in village

"Industrial smokes and dust are extremely terrible. Many companies poisoned water in village by throwing directly industrial wastes to environment. Local people have to wear gauze mask when they cross the industrial zone".

In-depth interview, Male, 45 years old, at Chieu Dong Village, Tan Quang commune, Hung Yen

Meanwhile, converted land for industrialization usually locates near main roads and living places, thus, households are affected quickly and strongly from environment pollution made by enterprises.

Box 4: Noise pollution in village

"The distance from industrial zone to village is so closed. Thus, the noise from mechanic workshops becomes loudly and annoys really us all days".

In-depth interview, Male, 30 years old, at Chieu Dong Village, Tan Quang commune, Hung Yen

Briefly, rural people’s basic capabilities as economic security, social connection, and environmental condition had been changed negatively after land conversion for industrialization. It implies that the transition during before and after land conversion contains much challenge that undermined basic capabilities of rural people. Determined by such capabilities, human development in rural areas faces a lot of constraints after land conversion.

4.3 Difficulties in transition

Firstly, households lack financial resources for running independently new livelihoods. Group discussed that after land conversion, they want to increase size of husbandry production as raising chicken or pigs. However, they cannot borrow capital from bank and other credit institutions where always require complicated procedure of lending. Meanwhile, it is hard to borrow money from individuals as friends and relatives.

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2 "Hội cây cảnh được lập ra để giúp trao đổi kỹ thuật và thông tin thị trường. Nhờ có hội này, chúng tôi trồng và chăm sóc cây cảnh tốt hơn, và nhờ đó bán được giá cao hơn"

3 "Khói và bụi từ khu công nghiệp rất khủng khiếp. Nhiều công ty đã xả trực tiếp chất thải công nghiệp vào môi trường. Người dân địa phương phải đeo khẩu trang mỗi khi đi qua khu công nghiệp"

4 "Khó khăn cách từ khu công nghiệp đến làng là rất gian. Do đó, tiếng ồn từ các xưởng cơ khí là rất to và gần khó chịu cho dân dự xung quanh suốt cả ngày"
Their own financial resource is really limited because income from previous agricultural production was low. After land conversion, households, compensation, however, it was too small in comparison with value of land. Furthermore, household usually divided compensation into many parts and gave to all members of households. Many group participants admitted that they used compensation for buying new furniture, building new houses. Hence, there was little money left after land conversion. Generally, financial resources from bank, credited institutions, individuals, and ownership are limited and hard to reach farmers who suffer land conversion.

Secondly, farmers lack new working skills for building new better livelihoods. Without land, farmers cannot practice previous farming skills. In steads, they have to be workers, servants, sellers or doing other livelihoods. For example, some group participants said that they cannot run a business at the market because they do not have business skills and confidence. Labour structure had changed to the trend that lowering in agricultural sector and increasing in non-agricultural sector. For example, in Van Lam district (Hung Yen province), rate of agricultural labour reduce from 79.98% (2000) to 27.09% (2010), rate of non-agricultural labour increase from 20.02% (2000) to 72.91% (2010) (Hanh et al., 2013). Training class already opened for farmers in several livelihoods: flower and vegetable production, handicraft, garment, aquaculture...However, such training is ineffective so that farmers cannot apply new working skills for starting new livelihoods.

Thirdly, households lack market information and market linkages. New livelihoods require farmers to engage tightly to market by buying inputs and selling outputs. However, most of them live in rural areas and travel within short range from hometown. Hence, they know little about price of inputs and outputs, changes in market. As consequence, they cannot foresee next moves of market, and of competitors. In addition, farmers in rural areas have little market linkages with other players, especially those ones in urban areas. They keep exchanging with acquainted sellers and buyers. They are fixed in a small market where constraints them to be more dynamic and effective.

Fourthly, most farmers who had land conversion are middle age which is not suitable for new promising livelihoods. 18 of 20 group participants shared that they cannot apply jobs in companies due to constraints of age.

Box 7: No job at middle age

"Companies only hire workers from 20 to 35 years old. Thus, they do not welcome over-40 years old men like us. At my age, 46, I cannot apply any job in company. Therefore, I have to run a small shop at home and sell my labour sometimes"  
Group Discussion, Male, 46 years old, Chieu Dong village, Tan Quang Commune, Hung Yen

"It is very hard to borrow from banks because certificates of our land right have not issued. Besides, bank procedures for lending are complicated for us. Meanwhile, we cannot borrow from relatives and friends because they usually deposit their properties at bank in order to gain monthly returns"  
Group discussion, Female, 50 years old, Tan Quang Commune, Hung Yen
At age of over 35, labourers have less encouragement for studying and training. Hence, when new livelihoods require new working skills, such over-35 labourers cannot meet those requirements. Thus, over-35 farmers find difficulty jobs in companies. Besides, since middle age farmers became less active, less dynamic, and less creative, they fear failures and do not dare to change. Those are main barriers that preventing them to start good livelihoods. Alternatively, farmers at middle age sell their labour at construction sites, caring children. Few become venders while some others open small shops at home.

5. Conclusion

The research has showed that agricultural land conversion for industrialization affects strongly to livelihoods of farmers in Hung Yen and Hai Phong provinces. Under this context, farmers adapt with new livelihoods which vary from working at companies, selling goods at market, running small shop at home, to doing services (restaurant, guest house…), and so on.

Social stratification happens among farmers who lost agricultural land. The farmers group is divided into the rich, the middle farmers (who can afford only their own lives without saving), and the poor. In which, the rich takes much advantages form industrialization while the poor suffers uncertainty of jobs and other risks.

Changes in livelihoods make a shift of capabilities of farmers. Generally, those ones having high ratio of land conversion downgrade their basic capabilities in economic security, social connections, and environmental conditions. Therefore, this denotes that human development in rural areas faces a lot of constraints after land conversion.

Problem in human development and social stratification imply difficulties in transition among livelihoods under impacts of agricultural land conversion. There are several main difficulties of farmers and household at rural areas: lack of financial resources, new working skills, market information, market linkages, and constraint of age.

References

Free and Open Borders and Their Role in Security Matters

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Abstract

Migration today is one of humanity's most dominant phenomenons. Albania is one of the countries with more developed immigration, about 25% of its population are illegal emigrants. Illegal migration is a potential risk for security. Migration policy, except being used for development, should focus more on the negative effects of migration in the security field. Trends to support tourism or the economy, the motto for free movement of people and goods across borders, sometimes divert attention from security issues. Mismatches of the two components of the motto "free and open borders", but "safe and controlled" directly affects the security sector. This paper attempts to bring an innovative analysis of migration policy, not only as a factor of development, but especially its impact on security.

1. Introduction

Nowadays more than ever the focus on security issues has involved not only Albania but all countries of region, European Union countries and more over. Migratory flows from South of Africa to Europe last years were a risk even for Schengen zone, one of the best achievements of European Union. Those flows risked seriously the security aspects. International terrorism also has become as one of the decisive factors for the states' entrance policies for the foreigners. Particularly after 11 September 2001 in USA, many countries of Europe, firstly one by one and then with a common policy, started implementation of very strict control for foreigner citizens.

Often security issues are used as alibi to limit or suspend the emigrants' rights. Higher scale of crime activity and terrorism results on a higher dose of suspicion for emigrants'. In this situation the key of success can be finding at the balance between security issues and the respect for the migration rights.

Even though, there are a lot of studies about migration there are not so many papers about the impact of migration on the security field. Base subject of this paper will refers to the migration policy and their role in security field. Secondly it will be focused to describe the role of Albania in its own security and in global security.

2. European Union Migration Policy

Migration Law of European Union is relatively a new one, but it is going to be enriched quickly as a response to development of migration issues in Europe. Currently there is an entirety of migration norms that stay as a base for European Union (EU) migration policy. Those Migration Policies aimed to strength EU, as a zone of freedom, security and justice. Without analyzing every member country elements of migration policies, a common policy of EU aimed to manage effectively the migration has been and it is still now highlighted by EU institutions. EU migrations policy on the light of its role in security is three dimensional.

2.1 Matters of foreigners' entrance and residence

Regarding to the entrance policy the member countries of EU, almost have harmonized their own policies to a common policy expressed in Schengen Code, special directives, regulations etc. that are integral parts of Acquis Communautaire.

First of all, this policy is based on the Schengen Zone fundamental entrance condition, on categorizing countries that can enter with visa or without visa in that zone. Also it is made a unification of short term residence, not more than 90 days for 180 days how it known on the visa policy vocabulary.

Secondly this policy is completed by other general conditions that a foreigner has to fulfill on the moment of...
entrance on external Schengen border. Also it is depended on the competences of border authorities to control about the fulfillment of conditions and to decide case by case.

If refer to the EU visa policy, its core is made by the probability of third countries to “export insecurity” for member countries.

2.2 Fight against the illegal migration

Fight against the illegal migration is a key element of migration policy of EU, since it is directly connected with the main goal of community; gradual creation of a common area of freedom, security and justice.

Fight against the illegal migration can be treated like the entire measures to control and prevent the illegal entrance of external borders of Schengen, to control the illegal residence on Schengen area, fight against the traffic of human beings etc. Control of external Schengen border is responsibility of every member country but the policy, strategy, critters, standards and procedures, systems of informative technologies are unified for all Schengen area. Also on interest of management and control of borders EU has built up a special structure such as FRONTEX. Regarding the illegal stay in Schengen territory, EU has unified the measures policy not only for the illegal residents but for persons who favorite them through employment, housing, transporting etc.

2.3 Removal and expulsion of foreigners

Policy of removal and expulsion of foreigners, otherwise known as return and readmission policy is a very important part of migration policy that is strongly connected with the fight against the illegal migration. Return policy of EU is based in to many important documents like Convention for the Implementation of Schengen Agreement and a couple of directives through which EU unify the return policy third countries’ citizens who stay illegally in the Schengen area. On the light of security, return policy has in its core the subjects of return, motives of return and the detention measures for entrance of those subjects in EU. Because of its importance readmission policy is a main condition of visa liberalization or visa facilitate process for third countries.

3. Migration Policy of Albania

Migration policy of Albania is made by two parts, immigration policy and emigration policy. These policies are drafted and approved in accordance with migration policy and migration norms of European Union, aiming to minimize the costs of illegal migration and maximize the benefits of legal migration. Albanian migration policy has passed a long way to be improved time after time under the indication of migration fluxes of Albanians mainly after 1990. But it has been evaluated in accordance with EU migration policy evaluation and standards asked by EU for the Albania integration process.

In interest of this paper are the questions as below;

Does this policy have a positive impact on security field or not? Is our emigration policy a guaranteed one for our neighbors' countries, region and more? Does it prevent the “import of insecurity” from other third countries potentially to enter illegally in EU?

Object of this analyze will be elements or components of migration policy that indicate security field. This analyze will help understanding of our migration policy in comparison with security.

Albanian migration policy in its security point of view is three dimensional. It is compounded by;

a) Issues of Albanian citizens movement abroad
b) Entrance and residence of foreigners in Albania
c) Fight against illegal migration

Except the border crossing facilitate policy, a particular importance is given to borders security. Its goal is preventing the illegal entrance and exit from Republic of Albania. Albanian legislation from one side aims to use immigration as development opportunity but from the other side it aims to be a guaranty for public order and the national security.

Juridical norms, critters, procedures, documentations for entrance and stay of foreigners in the Republic of Albania, Administrative measures for who violate this legislation are compiling not only to respect all the convents and international acts that are signed by Albanian Government but to secure national security and public order.

Policy of issuing visa and residence permits for foreigners’ respects and guarantee the human rights but at the
same time, procedures of verification and the cooperation of some specialized structures in the security sector aims to prevent importation of security risks including Albania and neighbor countries of the region.

The Strategy for Integrated Management of Borders has emphasized “Main strategically goal of Albanian Government is development of a border security system that will integrate all governmental agencies responsible for border control”. Also Albanian Penal Code provides administrative and penal measures for all persons who cross borders illegally or help the others to enter or exit albanian borders illegally. These are repressive parts of migration policy needed last decades since illegal emigration from Albania to European Union had been a concern for those countries.

4. Migration and its impact in Security Sector

Migration is exit of persons from origin countries with the purpose for a long stay in to destination country, to work, study or family reunion etc. Illegal migration has an emphasized negative impact on security sector because persons who enter, stay or transit from their origin country to destination are not controlled and monitored.

History tells that terrorists who have risks highly not only a country but risks the entire world most of the times are illegal migrants. But not only illegal migrants are risks for security, legal migrant sometimes are as well. Setting mechanism of terrorist or other criminal groups in developed countries through the legal scheme of migration with the motives like employment or politic asylum is today a real concern for migration and security services.

The impact of illegal immigration can be for the origin countries, transit and destination countries. In the first view it looks like exit of criminal elements from the origin countries save them from the presence and criminal activity. In fact illegal migration has a direct impact in security of origin country.

Firstly migration of criminal elements in most of the cases has aims to escape the justice. Often their absence has a negative impact on the investigation and detection of criminal acts. Lack of justice sometimes is equally with lack of security in a country.

Secondly the illegal migration is developed through human beings contraband or human beings traffic. In both cases citizens pay a lot of money for an illegal migration, it means finance criminal groups and empowers one of the most important elements of criminal logistic, finance.

In the destination countries illegal migration has a high impact on security sector. Percentage of criminal acts of legal migrants is very low if it is compared with the percentage of criminal acts of illegal migrants.

Illegal migration has the same impact in transit countries. Transit migrants usually stay for a long time in those countries until they can go to destination country. During this time they can cause the same problems on security like in destination country.

5. Conclusions

1- Illegal migration is a phenomenon with a direct impact in security field. Migration today is widely extended in so many countries and has global features also his impact on security field has the same importance to many global issues.

2- Building up and strengthening of migration partnerships among countries means building up and guaranty for common security.

3- The key of success in the open borders and free movement world is the balance between security issues and respect of migration rights. That will bring a right migration management.

4- Harmonization of migration policies of origin and destination countries including transit ones, has its direct impact on creating an common unified policy that will build up gradually a free, secure and justice zone.

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Publishing Leaked Information as News: Sabotage or Journalistic Success?

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Abstract

This article aims to analyse the universal news criteria regarding the transformation of information into news. In February 2013, the transcript of a meeting between 3 pro-Kurdish deputies and the jailed leader of the PKK (the Kurdistan Workers Party) was leaked to the Turkish press. This was published in Milliyet, a national Turkish newspaper, and has been interpreted as a forceful move to sabotage the positive atmosphere surrounding Turkey's latest efforts with the PKK to end a conflict that has lasted more than three decades and resulted in the deaths of almost 36,000 people. The rationale for the leak was that although Turkey was going through a delicate time, there were questions that needed to be answered, but questions still remain: Who leaked the document, and why and how? The media has been divided about whether the publishing of the leaked transcript represented an effort to sabotage the peace attempts with the PKK or whether it marked a moment of journalistic success. What ethical stance should be taken about the leak? Should the journalist have reported it in the name of professionalism in terms of informing the public or should he have exercised restraint out of respect for the 'security of the state'? This article will examine those issues through an analytical approach and discuss the related attitudes of the foreign press.

Keywords: media, journalism, news, leaks, ethics

1. Introduction

It is commonly believed that there are just as many definitions of news as there are people in the world. Academically speaking, there are at least 200 different definitions of news. Simply put, however, news is a message that contains information. Harcup describes news as descriptions of events in the world: “News is a selective version of world events with a focus on that which is new and/or unusual. However, not all news is new; much of it is predictable, and some does not concern events at all.” (2009, p. 55).

But why do we need to know about world events at all? In other words, why do we have a strong urge to know about it? The answer is that we need an information to decide whether to take action, exercise restraint, speak out, or remain silent. Allan has noted that the rising tide of pseudo-events tends to wash away the traditional distinction between hard and soft news. News events become little more than dramatic performances, from interviews to news conferences and leaks and self-promoting stunts in which everyone seeks to follow their own prepared script (2011, p. 259). In light of these issues, this article seeks to analyse the universal journalistic criteria for deciding about the transformation of information into news.

On the 23rd of February 2013, the transcript of a meeting (1) between 3 pro-Kurdish deputies and the jailed leader of the PKK (the Kurdistan Workers Party) (2) were leaked to the Turkish press. This was published in Milliyet, a national Turkish newspaper, and this event has been interpreted as a forceful move to sabotage the positive atmosphere surrounding Turkey's latest efforts to end a conflict with the PKK that has lasted more than three decades and has been particularly destructive in the southeast of the country. The rationale for the leak was that although Turkey was going through a delicate time, there were questions that needed to be answered, but still questions remain: Who leaked the document, and why and how? The media has been divided about whether the publishing of the leaked transcript represented an effort to sabotage efforts at peace (3) with the PKK or whether it was a journalistic success. What ethical stance should be taken about the leak? Should the journalist have reported it in the name of professionalism in terms of informing the public or should he have exercised restraint out of respect for the 'security of the state'? This article will examine those issues through an analytical approach and discuss the related attitudes of the foreign press.
2. Confidential data and sources in journalism

Journalists play a social role that goes beyond the production of news that is then sold in the marketplace. Harmless and banal information is transformed into powerful news by journalism "which is a chaotic form of earning, ragged at the edges, full of snakes, con artists and even the occasional misunderstand martyr," writes Andrew Marr in his book My Trade. Seen in this way, journalism is a trade, or a craft, and journalists have been known to refer to their workplaces as word factories, in contrast to professions such as medicine or law. But what, in fact, is journalism for? It is a form of communication based on asking, and answering the questions (Harcup, 2009, p. 3).

A major task of journalism ethics is to determine how existing norms apply to the main ethical issues of the day. One of the current problem is sources and confidentiality. For example, should journalists promise confidentiality to their sources? How far should that protection extend? Should journalist go off the record? The other is referred to as special situations. How should journalists report hostage-takings, major breaking news, suicide attempts and other events where coverage could exacerbate the problem? When should journalists violate privacy? (Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 296-297)

The basic questions 5W1H (Who, What, Where, When, Why, How) of journalism formulated by Laswell in 1948 as an early model of the mass communication process could not be applied to the Imrali leak. Who leaked the meeting transcript, and why did he/she leak it? Initially, these questions could not be answered first hand.

The Imrali meeting transcript was leaked on the 23rd of February 2013 in the Turkish daily Milliyet. In the text, Abdullah Ocalan, the jailed leader of the outlawed Kurdistan Workers’ Party (PKK), made striking comments about the National Intelligence Organization (MIT) of Turkey, the ruling government, Turkish Islamic opinion leader Fettullah Gulen and Turkish politics.

“The publication of the transcript of a meeting between Ocalan and deputies of the Peace and Democracy Party (BDP) has sparked controversy and speculation over the source of the leak, as well as the source’s motivations.” (Bozkurt, 2013, p. 1). One interpretation of the leak was that it was an apparent move to sabotage the positive atmosphere surrounding the peace talks. The strongest reaction to the journalist who leaked the document came from Recep Tayyip Erdogan, Prime Minister of Turkey and the chairman of the Justice and Development Party (AKP): “The principle of freedom of the press does not give media the right to act against the national interest of a country. If you apply journalism in this way, then samm on your journalism!” (oda.tv.com.tr). In a column published in Star, a national Turkish newspaper, Erdogan’s main adviser Yalcin Akdogan described the act as “saboteurs at work: there are great differences between the documents provided by Ocalan to the state and the records published in the press. To clear up the situation, those documents given by Ocalan have not been approved by the state either. It’s very wrong to release documents as if they were the whole content of the peace process. This is open sabotage” (hurriyetdailynews.com, 2 March 2013).

Milliyet then took a step back and news about the Imrali leak was removed from the web page of newspaper published on the 4th of March, 2013.

Kemal Kilicdaroglu, the leader of the main opposition party (CHP), called on journalists to be courageous and resist pressure imposed by the ruling AKP: “The ruling party mentions freedom of the press on the one hand, but then pressures newspapers on their coverage of certain stories. The government has asked a newspaper to fire two journalists. I’m appealing to all journalists to be courageous and brave” (hurriyetdailynews.com, 6 March 2013).

This fueled debates about whether or not the press in Turkey is free and about the fact that the media is under a lot of pressure from the government. It also led to debates about whether the event was a journalistic success or sabotage of state interests. Yet, “according to the liberal approach, the main purpose of journalism is to tell the truth. Tell the truth is highlighted universally as a journalistic code of ethics.” The press’s social responsibility grants a central role to the concept of objectivity. As a citizen in a democratic environment, it is necessary to give a reliable picture of the events of the day so that citizens can make up their own minds (Uzun, 1993, p. 41-42).

The Imrali leak was reported by Namik Durukan, a reporter at Milliyet who noted himself that “People were much more interested in how it was leaked rather than what the contents of the memos was. Putting aside the news itself, they concentrated on where it was leaked. They also assessed the process in a subversive way. Of course I didn’t get the memos from a tea maker or a photocopier. I have been a journalist for 30 years and most of this time I practiced my profession in the southeast of Turkey. I have first-hand experience of the violence there. I have no other aim aside from journalism. I believe that if we are indeed living in a period of transparency, all segments of society should need to be informed about situations, including the Imrali transcripts” (Durukan, Gazetepart, 2013).
On the other hand, the BDP has promised to probe the source behind the leak of the talks with Ocalan. Facing accusations that it was responsible for the leak, the BDP defended itself on March 1 and rejected claims that the controversial transcript was handed to Milliyet by party officials. BDP co-chair Selahattin Demirtas said that the BDP was investigating how these transcripts could have been published in a newspaper, promising to disclose the results if they could locate the source (Hurriyetdailynews.com, 2 March 013).

It is still a matter of controversy how the transcripts were leaked, but observers say they that the BDP is the likely culprit.

3. Laws, regulations and codes of profession in journalism

Democracy requires more than a free press. It also requires a high level of trust among citizens, a healthy judiciary, an effective legislature and a balance of powers among these institutions. The ethics of journalism is a matter of judging the consequences of stories, actions, and investigations for the vitality of these institutions and the continued capacity of people to act as citizens. Doing good journalism, like writing good prose, is always a matter of judgement. What is right may change from one situation to the other. Still - as anyone who has done journalism or who has read or watched closely knows - there are good choices and bad choices. The key for journalists and for democratic societies is the process those who produce the news go through in making their decision. Once a journalist begins to develop a disciplined, thoughtful way of making choices, he or she will build on it and refer to it over and over again (Rosenstiel & Mitchell, 2003, p. 3).

The news media are also regulated by ethics and codes of practices, some of which are legisalted for at the level of government and some are set by the industry themselves as a form of self-regulation. Journalistic endeavours - the investigating and reporting of newsworthy events and issues - requires journalists to verify information by drawing on alternative sources and representing rival interpretations. Thus, the profession is marked by a commitment to public service and the norms of journalistic responsibility, and is built on the values of objectivity, fairness, truthfulness and accuracy. These are the basic tenets of all journalism's codes of practices. Every nation has rules and regulations that determine who can own and operate the news media, how much local content they are required to carry and the percentage of audiences they reach, and how much a single news service provider can control in order to prevent the common ownership of newspapers, TV and radio broadcasting licences that serve the same region. It is said that diverse ownership of the media is important to ensure the expression of points of view antagonistic to the government and the prevailing orthodoxy on any given issue. This helps to ensure informed decision-making, cultural pluralism, citizen welfare, and a well-functioning democracy (Bednarek & Caple, 2012, p. 36). The laws, regulations, professional ethics and principles in Turkey have open-ended expressions on this issue. To put it in a different way, freedom of information comes up against the issue of state security.

In the Imrali case, the leak was a transcript of a conversation and somebody was taking notes about what was being said. One of the difficulties or grey areas was that it was not an official meeting; in other words, it was not secret. If it did have official status, it would have been a violation of privacy and people would have objected. For instance if this had happened in Britain, the reporter would not have been breaking the news by obtaining the transcript. This act was not illegal, as in the recording of a telephone conversation. On the other hand, Wikileaks generated much public interest and the information it divulged should be known to the public, even if it is a breach of the law. According to Turkish Press Council's Press Professional Principles (Item 6, sub clause 7) “off-the-record information must not be published unless the public interest is seriously at stake” (basınkonseyi.org.tr; Erkelli-Kızıl, 1998, p. 209). The Turkish Press Law (9.6.2004) describes press freedoms in the following way: “The press is free. This freedom includes the right to the acquisition of knowledge as well as the dissemination, criticism, interpretation of news and the creation of works. The use of freedom of the press in accordance with the requirements of a democratic society may only be limited to ensure the authority and impartiality of the judiciary by protecting the reputation or rights of others, public health and morals, national security, public order, public security and the protection of the territorial integrity of the state, or the disclosure of secrets, crime prevention.” As the wording is ambiguous in the law, rules and regulations, Durukan acted both correctly and incorrectly, per the terms of Article 3 of the law. While he informed the public, he also put the safety of the state at risk.

One of the pressures that journalists face is limitations imposed on the freedom of expression on privacy and confidentiality when they comply with the ethical principles of their profession. The Declaration of the Rights and Responsibilities of the Turkish Journalists’ Association (TGC) states, “Journalist have the right to access all information sources freely and the right to investigate information that affects public life. Obstacles such as privacy and confidentiality
journalists face must be based on public law, or there must be convincing reasons as regards private affairs” (Uzun, 1993, p. 181).

The declaration describes the responsibilities of journalists in the following terms: “Journalists use the name of the freedom of the press for the sake of the public’s freedom to obtain correct information. For this purpose, he/she must fight against all kinds of censorship and inform the public concerning this. The responsibility of the journalist for the public comes before all the other responsibilities such as employers and public authorities. Information, news and free-thinking is social in nature as opposed to commercial goods and services. Journalists must assume this responsibility and share news and information. The content and limits on the freedom of journalists is primary in setting out the principles and professional responsibilities” (tgc.org.tr). In this sense, Durukan acted correctly because he knew he was responsible to the public and refused to be censored.

Seen in this way, the Imrali transcript has created a debate about the application of professional practices in terms of right and wrong. The core priority is to enlighten the public on the task of journalism and the other is to look at the consequences. The methods of obtaining news are also important. The Declaration of the Rights and Obligations of journalists and the Swiss Press Council Directives Liabilities Statement Article 4 declare that: “A journalist must not use unfair means to obtain information and photographs, as well as audio, visual and textual materials” (Morresi, 2003, p. 193).

In addition, on the section on Information and Documentation under the heading The Rules of Journalist’s Correct Attitudes notes: “Unless there is direct public interest, documents, photographs, audio or image should not be taken without the permission of the owner. In terms of public interest, even if the above definitive judgment is set another way, the material should not be obtained.”

Eyup Can, chief editor of Radikal, a national Turkish newspaper, wrote that Durukan obtained the document at BDP headquarters. “Everyone knew very well, for example, that he could do the photocopying himself. Two people have been suspected as the copiers of the transcript at the BDP headquarters. Durukan, who closely follows events at the BDP headquarters, heard of the transcript and immediately went to the headquarters building. Everyone knows very well that it is never hard to get a copy of a transcript from a tea seller or person doing photocopies at the BDP” (Can, T24.com.tr, 2013).

4. Leaks as news value

The Imrali leak had universal news value. It affected the majority of the population in Turkey, especially the southeast, where people have been killed on both sides. Because of this situation, the topic has high news value. “Sociologists of news, however, have shown that newsworthiness is less to do with an instinct and more to do with internalising a set of arbitrary values that have become established over time through institutionalised practices” (Machin & Niblocak, 2006, p. 48). The news values described by Galtung and Ruge’s (1965) taxonomy of new values, which are frequency, continuity, and meaningfulness, (Harcup, 2009, p. 39) are relevant here because they took place over a long period of time and remained in the media spotlight, and as such, the Imrali case generated strong interest in society and the media agenda.

Leaks are considered to be one source of news. Leaks of information, whether from close contacts or anonymous whistleblowers, can lead to exclusive stories. The official sources engage in tactics to pass privileged but unattributable information to journalists under a cloak of confidentiality, such as through the use of “off-the-record” briefings, is not sufficiently recognized. Typical examples of statements from non-attributable sources are frequently presented to reporters for background only comments. For example, a well-placed government source may note that sources close to a Prime Minister may say that a trusted source has revealed information leaked by an inside source (Allan, 2011, p. 85).

The relationship between journalists and a source, in other words the elbow room between these two, must be considered during the news making process. Sources are central to the practice of journalism, and these are the people, places or organisations from whom potential news stories originate, and the people, places or organisations to whom journalists turn when checking potential stories. Bell argues that the ideal news source is also a news actor, someone whose own words make news. He lists the following news actors as major sources; political figures, officials, celebrities, sportspeople, professionals, criminals, human interest figures, and participants such as victims or witnesses (Harcup, 2009, p. 59). Tuchman (1978) and Ericson et al. (1987), in their studies of the relationship between journalists and their official sources, note that sources are able to organise themselves to provide readily available news for journalists (Machin & Niblocak, 2006, p. 28). In other words, they can prepare transcripts which provide journalists with the copy they need to give to their editors.
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Politicians sometimes give reporters minor information “on the record” and then demand that the rest of what they
say should be treated as “off the record,” i.e., taken in confidentiality. Having received such a promise they may then
disclose particularly newsworthy information which they know the journalists will feel duty-bound to refrain from
publishing. Reporters need to guard against being manipulated in this way; but it could be argued that the politician is
trying deliberately to hamstring journalists in this manner, and in such a situation their trust is being abused, thereby
negating the force of their undertaking to the politician (Belsey & Chadwick, 1998, p. 71).
The right to keep the identity of sources confidential is seen around the world as a fundamental principle of
journalistic practice. Sources may use confidentiality for their own ends, such as politicians leaking possible policies, only
to officially deny them if the public response is negative. From the journalist’s point of view this isn’t a particulary helpful
use of confidentiality, and risks accusations of complicity in source strategies, but there are other situations where
confidentiality may be essential in order to cover a story. “Whistle-blowing,” whether corporate or governmental, risks
fines or even jail for those who commit it, or for the reporters who fail to disclose those who commit it. In 1984, for
example, the Guardian newspaper published details of leaked government plans to manage public opinion over the
arrival of US nuclear missiles in Britain. The paper was taken to court by the British government and the editor, Peter
Preston, faced jail unless he revealed the source, which he did, and civil servant Sarah Tisdall was subsequently jailed
(Campbell, 2004, p. 132).
Journalists have developed a vocabulary of their own to describe the different terms of confidentiality. Something
‘off the record’ has typically been understood as not for public release or information for background purposes. Sources
also sometimes use it to mean “non-attributable,” that is, information which can be used but not attributed to a named
source. “Non-attributable” information is often used in political reporting. Reporters can be used to spread damaging
gossip which is like a three-prongued tongue, which destroys three people: the person who says it, the person who
listens to it, and the person about whom it is told. Whistle-blowing is where information is covertly disclosed from within
an organization to uncover some kind of abuse. The source is key to the informant being prepared to offer information.
This is also true of leaks where there is unauthorized release of information. Leaking can be an instrument of the
government, often used to gain political advantage over opponents. Leaking is not, however, an ideal form of
communication. It is unaccountable and has great potential for manipulation. It both feeds on secrecy and encourages its
existence, something no journalist would want to encourage (Sanders, 2009, p. 112-114).
5. Similar case studies concerning political news leaks
Governments all over the world tend to manipulate journalists for their own purposes. A concrete example was unearthed
with a document referred to in the Turkish media as a “memorandum.” , Semdin Sakik, a leading figure in the PKK’s
military intelligence, alleged that confessions were published on the front page of Sabah, a national Turkish newspaper
on the 25th of April, 1998. Sakik propounded that some Turkish journalists took an order from Ocalan and interviewed him
for money. The journalists accused of collaborating with PKK subsequently lost their jobs. However, Sakik explained at a
court appearance that he did not make such a statement. On the 21st of October, 2000, Nazli Ilicak, a writer for Yeni
Safak, a national Turkish newspaper, asserted in her coloumn that the confession which was mirrored in the two major
newspaper headlines was in fact prepared by the General Staff Intelligence Department and suggested that the
memorandum was a derivative of a study. The General Staff then said in a statement that it had been preparing such a
document but it was thought to be a draft (Uzun, 1993, p. 189).
In Spain, talks between and the Basque Country were ongoing, and the prisoned leader of the ETA stated in a
letter that ‘it is time to leave the guns’ and this was published in the press. When this happened, the public did not argue
about why it was published but rather they actually debated the contents of the letter for a long time. After this debate,
there were some groups who wanted to sabotage the peace process continuing the bombing activities despite the fact
that the ETA bombing had made a decision to lay down its arms (Akcura, 2013, p.18).
In 2008 freelance journalist Shiv Malik faced police demands under the Terrorism Act of 2000 and he was
requested to hand over transcripts he gathered while researching a book on Islamic radicals. Malik resisted, explaining
that “protection of sources is a totem of all investigative journalism and almost none of my work to date has been
possible without the promise of confidentiality.” Such cases will continue to be fought on their individual merits as
journalists resist attemps to identify confidential sources and/or to seize notes or pictures. Meanwhile, the safest way for
journalists to be given leaked information probably remains the unmarked photocopy in a plain brown envelope delivered
anonymously in the dead of night by somebody wearing gloves on their hands and a scarf over their face; a journalist
cannot be forced to reveal the identity of a source they do not know (Harcup, 2009, p. 26).

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Informing the public and not revealing the source of news are the most important principles of journalism. In the UK since 1993, the Defence, Press and Broadcasting Advisory Committee (DPBAC) has overseen a voluntary code which applies to UK governmental departments which have responsibilities for national security and the media. It uses the Defence Advisory (DA) Notice System as its means. This voluntary network works as a constraint and represents a situation known to be specific only in England. The news officials of the government ask news editors not to publish news for the sake of the nation’s security. It is said that this system has been specifically designed to protect sensitive information in terms of national security, and editors often applied to the Secretary of the Committee (Belsey & Chadwick, 1992, p. 82). The objective of the DA-Notice System is to prevent inadvertent public disclosure of information that would compromise UK military and intelligence operations and methods, or put at risk the safety of those involved in such operations, or lead to attacks that would damage the critical national infrastructure and/or endanger lives (www.dnotice.org.uk). In the case of the Imrali Leak, if the news carried a risk of breaching security, the only parties that could ask for it not to be published are those who attended the meetings - in this case, the MIT, BDP and Ocalan. By evaluating the publication of the transcript as sabotage, the media set a poor example.

6. Conclusion

Simply put, news is a message that contains information. It is a selective version of world events with a focus on that which is a new and/or unusual. We need information to decide whether to take action, refrain from action, speak out or remain silent. But news events can become little more than dramatic performances, from interviews to leaks. This article sought to analyse the universal journalistic criteria for thinking about the transformation of information into news. Journalists play a social role that goes beyond the production of news that is sold in the marketplace because harmless and banal information is transformed into powerful news by the media.

In modern societies, freedom of information is an accepted right. According to the liberal approach, the main purpose of journalism is to tell the truth, and this is highlighted universally as a journalistic code of ethics. The press’ social responsibility plays a central role in the concept of objectivity. As a citizen in a democratic environment it is necessary to give a reliable picture of events of the day so that citizens can make up their minds. Journalists have a great responsibility in fulfilling the need of public for freedom of information.

Unfortunately most of the times journalists face a dilemma about deciding what should become news on issues related the security of the state. On the 23rd of February, 2013, the transcript of a meeting between 3 pro-Kurdish deputies and the jailed leader of the PKK was leaked to the Turkish press. This was published in Milliyet, a national Turkish newspaper, and has been interpreted as a forceful move to sabotage the positive atmosphere surrounding Turkey’s latest efforts to end of a conflict with the PKK that has lasted more than three decades and has been particularly destructive for the southeast of the country.

The media has been divided about whether the publishing of the leaked transcript represented an effort to sabotage efforts to strike a peace deal with the PKK or whether it was a journalistic success. In the media, it has often been interpreted as a move to sabotage the positive atmosphere. “The principle of the freedom of the press does not give the media the right to act against the national interests of the country” said Prime Minister of Turkey. Thereupon, Milliyet stepped back and the Imrali leak news was removed from the web page of newspaper. Clearly, this was an attack on the media’s freedom.

In the meantime, the basic 5W1H questions could not be applied in the Imrali Leak which was reported by Namık Durukan, and he did not tell from whom he got the transcript. The right to keep the identity of a source confidential is seen around the world as a fundamental principle of journalistic practice.

Of course, journalist, must use fair means to obtain information, and some have suggested that Durukan took a copy of transcript from the person in charge of making tea or photocopies at the BDP office. The writers of this article, however, argue that a journalist may sacrifice this responsibility for the sake of freedom of information; in this sense, we argue that Durukan’s actions were not sabotage. On the contrary, it was a journalistic success.

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Notes

1) As the Imrali transcript is very long, it is not quoted here. Please see of the entire transcript in Turkish at http://t24.com.tr/haber/site-imralidaki-gorusmenin-tutanaklari/224711 or in English at http://www.haberonmonitor.com/en/haber/detay/apo-minutes-of-the-full-text-of-imrali/73677/

2) According to Belma Akcura, head of Milliyet newspaper, in fact, Turkey's Abdullah Ocalan first made such calls 20 years ago. “The first one was established in Damascus via Jalal Talabani and during President Turgut Ozal's rule in 1992-1993. Immediately after this meeting Talabani had asked for a ceasefire. In 1996, Prime Minister Erbakan Necmettin Erbakan, unofficially sought a solution to end the conflict through intermediaries and verbal and written messages to Ocalan. In 1997, the high-ranking officers of the General Staff held "indirect" meetings with the leader of PKK cadres in Bursa Prison, and these individuals were Sabri Ok and Muzaffer Ayata. Via telephone, Ok and Ayata met with Ocalan in Damascus, and Ocalan was convinced of the seriousness of the military approach. Ocalan's lawyers said of this initiative that Karaday and Kivrikoglu both wanted to limit the war. They wanted weapons to be laid down to end the conflict, and said they would speak about almost anything for a sake of a solution and they sent a message. After the capture of Ocalan, face to face interviews were carried out by soldiers from 1999-2001. Military staff talks still continued in the period between 2002-2005. Since 2005, the government began to negotiate with the support of Ocalan at MIT. MIT Undersecretary Emre Taner personally met with Ocalan in Imrali Prison. Also, the government stepped in at the request of Jalal Talabani. Negotiations began under MIT’s undersecretary Hakan Fidan in 2010 and included the Ministry of Justice. After a meeting in Oslo in 2005, the first regular meetings began in 2006. In September 2008 these became a mutual conversation. In 2008, the PKK delegation to Oslo met with MIT. The Oslo meetings of the ‘sine qua non Imrali’ included the BDP and the MIT Imrali negotiations in 2013 (Akcura, Interview, 2013).

3) Prime Minister Erdogan advised his deputies and everyone involved in the talks which are commonly referred to as ‘peace talks’ to speak less and do more during this ‘fragile’ process. Turkish state authorities have been holding peace talks with Ocalan since last October with the aim of achieving a timetable for the disarming of the terrorists. The three BDP deputies traveled to Imrali Island on February 23, 2013 to meet with Ocalan as part of the talks (todayszaman.com, 5 March 2013).
Will Peace Flourish in the End? The History of Suffering: Terrorism in Turkey

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Abstract
For the past 30 years, the PKK has launched a campaign of terror in Turkey. Despite the rise and fall of attacks throughout the years, the PKK’s terrorist activities have never completely ended. Through the recent initiative of the Turkish government, negotiations focusing on pacification have been launched with the leader of the PKK, Abdullah Öcalan, who is still in prison on Imrali Island. We have yet to see the outcome of this process. Terrorism is not simply about killing people; it is about destroying the population’s sense of well-being and trust in the government. In addition to the casualties and physical pain caused directly by an attack, the normal reaction to an unfamiliar and life-threatening event – fear, stress, worry, grief and confusion –also inflict suffering and social pain. In a world where information and communication play a key part, terrorists try to achieve the maximum possible media impact by the violent acts they commit. So when we define terrorism, we have to keep in mind that a three-way relationship exists between the main protagonists: terrorists want something from the government and work to achieve it through the agency of public opinion by seeking to terrorize the public at large in the most spectacular way possible. Public opinion in turn is influenced by the media which sometimes produces exaggerated accounts of terrorist events. This paper will seek to examine how this three way relationship has developed during the negotiation process with the PKK in Turkey. It will investigate how the ruling government (AKP) initiated the process, how public opinion has been formed in such an environment and whether it has influenced the government’s policies and decisions in regard to this issue. It will also explore how the media has reacted during this process. It is the author’s hope that the findings will be useful for policy-makers, media scholars, and academicians, as well as lay readers interested in the topic.

Keywords: Terrorism, peace, Turkey, PKK, government, public opinion, media.

1. Introduction
For many years in much of the world, terrorism has been a major continuing threat to peace, freedom and progress. Terrorism continues today as the ultimate violation of human rights, through the carrying out of indiscriminate killings. Without the right to live, there are no rights at all.

Terrorism has been defined as “the unlawful use or threatened use of force or violence by a person or an organized group against people or property with the intention of intimidating or coercing societies or governments, often for ideological or political reasons” ("Terrorism," n.d.). The victims are anonymous, and the aim is to cause damage or spread a credible threat. To call an act as terrorism, an average “man on the street” needs to feel uneasy about his security (Leitzinger, 2002).

Terrorism has a long history, and numerous incidents of terrorism have occurred around the world throughout the centuries. Modern terrorism, however, dates back to the mid-19th century. Just as the Jacobins of the French Revolution held a “Reign of Terror” in 1794, communists and fascists shared a tendency to use terrorism. After World War II, terrorism became known on an international scale, but it can be argued that terrorism today knows no international boundaries. This new terrorism is less centralized, less structured, and less organized, but far more dangerous than the terrorism of the past.

Public opinion today is that one of the greatest threats to the peaceful and safe existence of humankind is generated by international terrorist organizations. The ever-increasing roles and power of non-state actors today have reached a point that they pose a challenge to the authority of nation-states. Turkey, with its long history of struggle against terrorism, is a prime example in this context.

Terrorism has been all too commonplace in Turkey since 1984 when the Kurdish Workers Party (PKK) began its armed struggle against Turkey. In Turkey, a country with a population of around 75 million people, nearly 40,000 lives have been lost in terrorism incidents over the past 29 years.
2. The History of the PKK Terrorism in Turkey

The Kurdish Worker’s Party (Partiya Karkeren Kurdistan, or PKK) is an ethnic separatist terrorist organization whose ideology is based on Marxist-Leninist principles. The organization’s “use of terror and violence as a means of achieving its ultimate goal, the destruction of the territorial integrity of Turkey, is recognized and classified as an international terrorist organization by most western countries” (“A Case Study of the PKK in Turkey,” n.d.).

The PKK was founded in 1974. The organization emerged from the leftist student groups active in Turkey in the 1960s. Abdullah Öcalan, a Kurdish student at Ankara University, joined the Revolutionary Youth Federation (Dev-Genç), an umbrella organization for such groups that was formed in 1970. The PKK’s initial goal was to accomplish communist revolution in Turkey, a commonly observed phenomenon of leftist groups throughout the seventies. But Öcalan quickly changed his priorities from a broader-based leftist revolution to the “liberation” of the Kurds (Terrorism Project, n.d.). By 1974, the PKK had begun taking shape and, on Nov. 27, 1978, the organization had been secretly but formally set up in the district of Diyarbakir. The PKK confined itself to attacks on tribal chiefs in Urfa province until 1980. The same year the organization’s leadership moved into the Syrian-controlled Bekaa valley in Lebanon. “By 1982 the group had secured initial financial backing from the Kurdish population in Libya, political backing from Libya, and training camps in Lebanon and Syria, and was geared towards expanding its activities significantly” (Ibid.). Starting in 1984, the organization intensified its acts of violence against Turkish targets with the aim of establishing a Kurdish state. The main targets in that period were “temporary village guards” - a paramilitary force set up by Turkey to combat the PKK - and other Turkish security forces. PKK attacked Turkish diplomatic and commercial premises across Europe in 1993 and again in 1995 (Ibid.). The group also employed suicide-bombing methods, waged mainly by female terrorists in Turkey, and kidnapped foreign tourists in the early to mid-1990s. In order to inflict damage on Turkey’s economy, the organization also set forests in Turkey’s tourist resorts on fire (“PKK and Terrorism,” 2007). Öcalan was captured by the Turkish authorities in Kenya in early 1999, and the Turkish State Security Court subsequently sentenced him to death, a sentence later commuted to life imprisonment following the abolition of the death penalty (“A Case Study of the PKK in Turkey”).

Following the capture of Öcalan in 1999, the PKK declared a cease-fire and began claiming that it had switched its strategy to peaceful methods and would pursue political struggle from then on. In April 2002, the organization changed its name to the Kurdish Freedom and Democracy Congress (KADEK), “alleging that PKK has fulfilled its historical mission and would now like to be accepted as a political organization” (“PKK and Terrorism”). In late 2003, the group underwent another name change to KONGRA-GEL (Kurdistan People’s Congress), but neither of these two name changes nor the so-called strategy change of 1999 did changed the organization’s real aims. The group still continued to carry out attacks mainly in southeastern Turkey, though not to the scale of the pre-1999 period (Ibid.). In August 2003, the government passed an amnesty law which encouraged the organization’s members to leave the PKK. On May 29, 2004, the organization renounced its so-called unilateral cease-fire of the past five years. In 2005, the original name of the organization, PKK, was restored. In 2006 alone, the PKK killed over 500 people. In October 2006, the KGK/PKK declared a unilateral cease-fire that slowed the intensity and pace of its attacks, but attacks continued in response to Turkish security forces significant counterinsurgency and counter-terrorism operations, especially in the southeast of Turkey. Later, the PKK moved into northern Iraq and almost 3,500 PKK members have established a safe haven in Qandil. Since summer 2011, the conflict has become increasingly violent.

The PKK has also launched significant criminal activities inside Europe, ranging from extortion and trafficking drugs to smuggling illegal immigrants into European Union countries. The group also generates revenue by running media outlets (dailies, periodicals, and TV and radio channels) to help carry out anti-Turkey propaganda activities in many parts of the world (“PKK and Terrorism”). The economic cost of the conflict to Turkish government is estimated to be between 300 and 500 billion dollars.

3. The Solution Process

Since being formally declared a candidate for European Union (EU) membership in 1999, Turkey has deliberately set about expanding freedoms. When it announced Turkey as a candidate for membership, the European Union stipulated the steps necessary for Turkey to become a full member, including the rule of law, freedom of expression, human rights, constitutional reform and respect for the rights and protection of minorities (“The 1999 Regular Report from the European Commission on Turkey’s Progress towards Accession,” 13 October 1999). In accordance with EU membership requirements, Turkey has adopted a set of political and economic goals and tasks. Accordingly, 28 items in the 1982 Constitution of Turkey, which include restraints on freedom of thought and expression, the freedom and security of the...
individual, the privacy of individual life, the freedom of communication, the freedom of residence and movement, and freedom of association, underwent profound revisions in late 2001. Broadcasting in the Kurdish language, which heretofore had been illegal, was permitted under the new Turkish Constitution of 2001. The death penalty, which had not been meted out since 1984, could henceforth only be used in cases of acts of terrorism and treason with the new amendments, and despite this, Öcalan’s life was spared despite overwhelming public demand for his execution. The use of Kurdish has been allowed in print media and the national public TV station TRT 6 since January 2004, and in March 2006, private television channels were allowed to begin airing programming in the Kurdish language. Since the summer of 2012, the government has accelerated democratic developments even more by “the approval of the municipality law; the adoption of the third judicial reform package; the approval of a law to allow legal defense in the Kurdish mother tongue in court; new regulations for conjugal visits – including for Öcalan; preparations for a fourth judiciary reform package; and meetings of government officials and members of the pro-Kurdish Peace and Democracy Party (BDP) with Öcalan’” (Ozcan, 2013). Constitutional changes, reform packages and law amendments have played a supporting role in the democratization process of the country and created an opportunity that had not foreseen in previous years as the AKP government to initiated peace talks with the PKK. In public discourse, the negotiations were referred to as a “solution process” (Çözüm Süreci).

In late 2012, the Turkish government began secret talks with Öcalan for a ceasefire, something that previously would have been unacceptable and unthinkable. After months of negotiations with the government, Abdullah Öcalan wrote a letter which was read both in Turkish and Kurdish during the Nowruz celebrations on the 21st of March, 2013 in Diyarbakir. The letter called for a cease-fire and the PKK stated that they would follow the order. On 25 April, the PKK announced that it would withdraw all of its forces from Turkey to and move them to northern Iraq (The Wall Street Journal, 25 April 2013).

4. The Committee of Wise Men

Realizing that it would be a challenge to change public opinion on the issue of the PKK, the government set up a consultative body on April 4, 2013 which was called the “committee of wise people,” and this was composed of intellectuals, writers, academics, singers, and other well-known public figures. The members of the commission have been assigned to seven regions representing the country and entrusted with explaining the ongoing peace process to the public and promoting negotiations. “In a speech on March 23, the prime minister defined the role of the commission, saying they will be conducting a ‘psychological operation,’ indicating that the “wise people” will act as public relations agents” (“Solution Process,” n.d.).

The opposition parties in Parliament, mainly the Republican People’s Party (CHP) and the Nationalist Movement Party (MHP), stated that they would not take part in the commission claiming that the members of the body all government supporters. The commission gave its first report in May of 2013 regarding the level of support from the public for the negotiations.

5. Public opinion

According to a survey carried out in December 2012 by Kadir Has University, the Turkey Research Center, for which I am a coordinator, almost half of the population reported that they thought a military solution was the most effective approach for dealing with terrorism rather than political methods. In contrast to the previous year, the percentage of people who supported a military solution to the problem of terror increased to 50.1%. To put it another way, one out of every two people thought that the solution to the problem of terror would best be carried out by the military. Due to the fact that peace talks have become a prominent issue for the government in recent days, this finding would surely interest the authorities as regards popular public opinion on the matter.

Likewise, the number of people who thought that negotiations should not be used to solve the problem of terrorism rose to 55.5%. Taking into account regional differences, it was found that the percentage of people who supported negotiations with the Peace and Democracy Party (BDP) and Abdullah Öcalan was highest in southeastern and eastern Anatolia, where the population of Kurdish citizens is higher than in other regions. Eastern Anatolia was found to have the highest number of respondents who thought that negotiations with the Kurdish Workers Party (PKK) would be the best approach. Compared to the previous year, 20.5% more people thought that Abdullah Öcalan represented an effective aspect of solving the country’s terrorism problems. Notably, 48% of respondents stated that they thought the government’s policy vis-à-vis terrorism was unsuccessful.
Nearly half of the interviewees claimed that the territorial integrity of Turkey was under threat (46.9%), but it should be noted that the majority of people holding to this belief self-defined themselves as Socialist and Republican. It should also be noted that in terms of ethnic background, nearly half of the respondents who indicated they were Turkish said that they thought the territorial integrity of Turkey was in danger, and 4 out of 10 respondents who said they were Kurdish also felt that Turkey could be divided.

According to the survey findings, there was a decrease in the percentage of people who thought that the government was successfully handling the Kurdish issue. In the previous year, 39.7% of respondents stated that they thought the government was handling the problem unsuccessfully, and this figure increased to 50.5% in 2012. Higher levels of education were also directly related to dissatisfaction with the government's handling of the Kurdish issue.

From 2011 to 2012, there was a decrease in the number of respondents who thought that the BDP and PKK represent the Kurdish people. Also, support for the idea that the BDP is able to effectively represent the Kurds in Turkey was at the lowest point of the last 3 years. However, when the respondents were Kurdish, this percentage was found to increase to 58.7%, but the same did not hold true as regards the PKK; 1 out of 2 Kurdish citizens in Turkey stated that the PKK does not represent the Kurdish segment of the population. Just as in 2011, more than half of the participants indicated that the BDP cannot follow a policy that differs from the PKK, and the percentage of people who believe that the BDP and PKK are linked was 87%. Similarly, 4 out of 5 respondents stated that they thought Abdullah Öcalan has an influence on the BDP and PKK. When asked what kind of government Kurdish people would like to have in the future, 68.9% of respondents said that the Kurds would like to have an autonomous Kurdish government.

In contrast to the findings of this research, a survey carried out by the ruling party (AKP) in May of 2013 suggested that 70% of people support the solution process.

6. Conclusion

Turkey's Kurdish issue is a fragile topic that has been intertwined with the terrorist activities of the PKK for almost 30 years. The PKK has intelligently used an argument which claims that “Kurds are unable to enjoy their political rights” to ensure the organization's long-term survival (Ozcan, 2013). Now, seeking to end this conflict which has been ongoing for three decades, the government has been trying to negotiate with the PKK. It appears that the process is progressing slowly but it is clear that many dynamics have been set in place to have an influence on this process.

For the Turkish public, it will be very challenging to change the negative public opinion on this issue because it is very hard and perhaps not possible to forget the years and years of pain and sorrow that are deeply rooted in history. At this stage, neither powerful opinion leaders (including government officials) nor the media have been able to successfully impact public opinion in regard to certain aspects of the Kurdish issue.

As regards the government, elections are upcoming and the AKP government would like to increase their voting potential in the 2014 regional and presidential and 2015 parliamentary elections to see if attempts at peace (if successful) are a good means to win more votes from both the Turkish and Kurdish segments of the population. On the other hand, they are aware that if the process is not handled correctly, they may lose some of their own voters and this could create an advantage for the opposition parties that have voiced nationalist sentiment. In order to prevent this, the government established the “committee of wise men” and has tried to convince the public of the necessity of negotiations.

From the Kurdish perspective, different dynamics are at work as well. The first is about the structure of the organization. Even though Abdullah Öcalan is supposedly the first most powerful figure in the PKK, the organization is not a one-man-show, and there are many unknown elements within it. In addition, there are some countries that the PKK has developed relations with over the years. It is probable that those countries would not want to see the organization out of the picture because they have mutual interests. This represents an obstacle to the peace settlement process. Also, since one arm of the PKK which is responsible for financing the organization is involved in criminal activities including human and drug trafficking, it won't be difficult to predict that they will try to disrupt the process (Ozcan, 2013).

As the findings of the public opinion surveys indicate, the majority of Kurdish citizens in Turkey believes that the PKK does not represent the Kurdish segment of the population. This indicates the importance of finding an alternative for the PKK to discuss the rights and interests of the Kurds. The Peace and Democracy Party (BDP) is not seen as an alternative because more than half of the survey participants indicated that the BDP cannot follow a policy that differs from the PKK, and the percentage of people who believe that the BDP and PKK are linked was 87%. If the BDP would like to increase its support from the public on this issue, they should separate themselves from the PKK and produce alternative policies.
If successful, the ongoing peace settlement negotiations with the PKK will produce important benefits for Turkey socially, politically, and economically. Turkey needs to keep the process on track against all the odds. If the attempts prove to be successful, Turkey could become a leader and role model for other countries in terms of conflict resolution.

References


Kosovo Nationalism and the NATO Involvement in Managing a New Crisis

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Abstract

This article consists as an initial step, the chronology to the Kosovo Crisis within Kosovo Nationalism focusing on the origins of the crisis, and the failure of the diplomatic efforts. The public opinion about the Kosovo issue (Kosovar’s and Serb’s opinion). States are reluctant to characterize use of force in the peace-enforcement context as equivalent to military operations in other conflict environments. Furthermore, state practice does not encourage the notion that rules of international humanitarian law can be applied to peace-enforcement in a predictable, systematic manner. Nonetheless, development at the close of the 20th century point in a positive direction. Also include NATO’s objectives in Kosovo. A brief background to peace operations, including peace enforcement, humanitarian intervention, the reasons standing behind the operation, its aims, justification and motives. The legality of intervention, also opinions about the NATO involvement in Kosovo.

Key words: Nationalism, crisis, NATO, intervention, credibility, peacekeeping, peacemaking, independence.

1. Introduction

The millennium just past offers a useful historical context for lawyers, soldiers and policy makers who have to plan and conduct peace-enforcement, peacekeeping missions. There has been an unspoken assumption about peace-enforcement operations. They are thought to be so unlike traditional wars that they cannot be accommodated within an easily acquired framework of international humanitarian law. Any differences that may separate peace-enforcement from other conflict-related military operations are, however, not profound and should not deny peace enforces access to rules of international humanitarian law. (Totten, S. 2007.Pg. 797)

Events during the Kosovo bloody conflict, and after, demonstrate that rules for interventional-armed conflict (NATO intervention in our case) are beginning to take form.

Operation Allied Force in Kosovo was widely discussed not only from a legal, but also from a political and a moral perspective. Not undermining moral or political considerations – which as will be described later, played a vital part in the discussion on NATO intervention – the focus of this topic is put on the assessment of the legal dimension of the operation.

The new context of conflict has impacted greatly upon all peacekeeping endeavours and increased the need for more far reaching peacekeeping missions. While such missions have therefore increased in size, frequency and complexity, little improvement to practice has been witnessed.

2. Kosovo Nationalism

2.1 Chronology of Kosovo Crisis

On 23 March 1989, the provincial assembly of Kosovo, under unusual circumstances (with tanks and armored cars in front of it), passed the constitutional amendments. On 28 March the Serbian Assembly in Belgrade voted the final confirmation of the amendments. Kosovo’s autonomy was reduced to a mere token (Von Kohl, Ch. and Libal, W.1989. pg.116). With the votes of Serbia, Kosovo, Vojvodina and Montenegro in his pocket, Milosevic would gain a controlling majority on federal presidency. This new environment of nationalist politics combined with the Croatian nationalism and the increasing fear of Slovenia leaderships lead unavoidably to the final break-up. Meanwhile, in Kosovo major protests, violent clashes and riots took place in at least nine towns.
On 2nd July 1990, 114 out of the 123 Albanian members of the Assembly did meet in the street outside the locked-up Assembly building, and passed a resolution declaring Kosovo “and equal and independent entity within the framework of the Yugoslav federation”. In response, the Serbian authorities dissolved both the Assembly and the government. Many of the Albanian delegates who had taken part on the 2nd July resolution held another meeting in the town of Kacanik on 7 September, in conditions of great secrecy. There they agreed on the proclamation of a constitutional law for a “Republic of Kosovo”. On 24 May 1992 elections were held in Kosovo – in conspiracy, using private houses as polling – stations in order to create a new republican assembly and government.(Daily Telegraph, 25 May 1992) In the late 1980s two intellectual organizations played a very important political and cultural role among the Kosovo Albanians: The Association of Writers of Kosovo and the Association of Philosophers and Sociologist of Kosovo. The Association of Writers of Kosovo presented a statement of Albanian national political aims, which attracted wide support within Kosovo. Its president Dr. Ibrahim Rugova became the leader of the political movement “Democratic League of Kosovo”- LDK which was officially founded in December 1989. The shadow assembly of 1992 elected Rugova President of the Kosovo Republic. (Maliqi, Sh. 1997. pg. 144)

The basic policy pursued by Rugova and the LDK since 1990 was: to prevent violent revolt, to “internationalize” the problem; and to deny systematically the legitimacy of Serbian rule, boycotting elections and creating the outlines of the states apparatus of Kosovo Republic.

The outbreak of war in former Yugoslavia in the summer of 1991 initially had little effect in Kosovo apart from the refusal of Kosovo Albanians to do their military service in Yugoslav (Serbian) army. (Verli, M. 2002. pg. 355)

The position of Albanians in Kosovo worsened with the launching of war in Bosnia in April 1992. The rhetoric Of Serbian nationalism was focused on the Islamic “threat”, “demographic aggression” (high birth-rate) of Bosnian Muslims (terms used in Kosovo) and the threat of “Islamic crescent” extending from Bosnia through the Sandzak to the Muslim Albanian in Kosovo.

The ending of war in Bosnia did not bring end to the crisis in Kosovo, consequently it was a blow to the Rugova’s prestige. The settlement of Dayton (Ohio, November 1995) left the Kosovo as it was. The only measures taken about Kosovo was an agreement by Un Security Council that the sanctions against Serbia would remain until Belgrade reformed its human rights record in Kosovo. The only serious challenge to Milosevic came not from the West (the western diplomat expressed their gratefulness for his “peacemaking” efforts and regarded him as a constructive force in the region) but from his own internal opposition, which mounted a lengthy series of popular street-protests during the winter of 1996-1997. At the same time, the criticism of Rugova’s policy within the political circles took two forms: some argued that his absolute refusal to negotiate with Belgrade was unrealistic, others wanted a more active policy of protests. This was an expression of popular frustration at the inability of Rugova to gain a new recognition of Kosovo’s interests in the aftermath of Dayton (Baleta, A. (1999) “Kosovo: From Dayton until Rambouillet”, SH.B Koha Tirana;pg. 48).

Two others factors also contributed to the weakening of Rugova’s position:

1. One was the political crisis in Albania in the spring1997, where, after the failure of pyramid schemes, an insurrection broke out which aimed at the overthrow of Sali Berisha. Berisha had given moral and political support to the LDK (the only government that that recognize the Kosovo republic). Any post-Berisha government would be less willing to aid the Kosovo Albanians.

2. The second factor was the appearance in summer of 1997 of the “Kosovo Liberation Army”. Its spokesman gave interviews in Switzerland in which he declared that the KLA was responsible for several recent attacks of Serb policeman and that “this is the movement of people now”. (New York Times International, 11 May 1997) As the Albanians became frustrated with the Rugova strategy and immediately after the events of 22 April 1996(the first attack of KLA – three Serbs murdered in Decani) Adem DEMAQI (one of Rugova’s harshest critics) noted that Kosovo Albanians were “increasing vociferously accusing their leaders of betraying national interests. (Malcolm, N. 1998. pg.7)

Meanwhile, the Serbian opposition parties argued that the boycott of Serbian elections helped Milosevic to maintain his grip on the country as the Serbian minority in Kosovo, 10 percent of the province’s population, delivered all the parliamentary seats to Milosevic and his allies.

On Thursday 5 March 1998, a large force of Serbian police launched an offensive in Drenica, killing 22 Albanian fighters. The assault occurred three weeks before elections called by Rugova to Kosovo’s unofficial government. This last event had three consequences: KLA became stronger, Western Europe and US stepped up the involvement in the conflict and the regional stability was again unsettled. (Glenny, M. 2000. pg. 652).
On 9 March the Contact Group (USA, Russia, Britain, France, Germany and Italy) threatened a limited package of sanctions, such as visa restriction and the blocking of investment credits if Milosevic did not change his policy within two weeks (it was extended by another month). Meanwhile a resolution of the UN Security Council had imposed an arms embargo, aimed at cutting off supplies to both Yugoslavia and the KLA. The West for many reasons (as the dangerous of Greater Albania) refused to support the KLA’s goal of independence. What the international community insisted for was the extensive autonomy that would be guaranteed with the presence of a NATO peacekeeping force. At the end of September 1998 world opinion was shocked by the discovery of a massacre near the village Obrinje in central Kosovo. On 16 October the US envoy Richard Holbrooke finally persuaded Milosevic to sign an agreement that included: a promise to scale down the Serbian Deployment in Kosovo to its pre-February level, an agreement that all Kosovar refugees could turn back to their homes, and an acceptance of the presence of international observers to make sure the implementation of the agreement. The next two months a major reduction of fighting was observed and the Verification Mission began to operate.

In mid-January 1999 the Western diplomacy was shocked by another event: the discovery of a massacre at the village of Racak, were 45 Albanian civilians, including children, had been murdered. When the head Verification Mission condemned this atrocity, the Belgrade demanded his removal and also they refused entry to the chief prosecutor of the International War Crimes Tribunal. Two weeks later the Contact Group announced the convocation of Serbian and Albanian leaderships to a conference at Rambouillet, near Paris, on 6 February 1999. The aim of this conference was to reach an agreement on the political future of Kosovo. The plan consisted of a detailed set of constitutional arrangements for an autonomous Kosovo, including: elected Assembly, a President and a Constitutional Court. The most important part of this plan was the so-called “Interim Agreement” which anticipated that “Three years after the entry into force of this Agreement, an international meeting shall be convened to determine a mechanism for a final settlement for Kosovo, on the basis of the will of the people...”. (Qosja, R. 1999. fq.32)

On 18 February the Albanian (inconclusive negotiation when objections, oppositions and “conditions” followed) representatives finally signed the agreement, whereas the Yugoslav delegation declared its continuing opposition to the plan.

Meanwhile, within Kosovo the Serbian military forces under the direction of General Nebojsa Pavkovic, and the paramilitary forces known as “ethnic cleaners”, controlled by notorious gangster “Arkan” were established in Kosovo. Their deployment was in accordance with a strategic plan known as “Operation Horseshoe” aimed at “solving” the Kosovo problem.

As the Western defensive alliance approached its 50th birthday celebration in April 1999, it was confronted with a dilemma. It must begin a war against a sovereign country of 8 million inhabitants or back down its public commitment to do so, in the event of Milosevic refusing the Rambouillet agreement. “The only alternative to shooting yourself in the foot”, Carl Bildt told White House staff ten days before the bombing started, “it no do it”. The reply came back: “Credibility”.

On 24 March 1999, after the failure of one more attempt at negotiation by Holbrooke and a final rejection of Rambouillet proposal by the Serbian parliament, NATO forces began their campaign of air strikes against strategic targets inside Yugoslavia.

3. NATO Involvement in Kosovo

3.1 Objectives of NATO in Kosovo

When NATO launched its air campaign, the situation in Kosovo was one of rising ethnic violence, suppression of democracy, a breakdown of law and order, systematic human rights abuses by the ruling authorities and a refusal by the Belgrade government to seek, or accept a political solution. At the same time, there was evidence that the government of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was planning to escalate its campaign of repression. The international community could see a humanitarian disaster looming.

In December 1997, NATO foreign ministers confirmed that NATO’s interest in stability in Balkans extended beyond Bosnia Herzegovina to the surrounding region and expressed concern at the rising ethnic tension in Kosovo. (www.transnationl.org/pressinf/pt74html)

It is important to recall the enormous effort made by the NATO and the international community to avoid military intervention over Kosovo, while making clear to President Milosevic its ultimate preparedness to use force, if necessary.
In the spring of 1998, NATO ministers called on all parties to seek a peaceful resolution to the crisis, while directing the Alliance’s military authorities to prepare options for the use of force, should it prove necessary. NATO’s objectives in relation to the conflict in Kosovo were set out in the Statement issued at the Extraordinary Meeting of the North Atlantic Council held at NATO on 12 April 1999 and were reaffirmed by the Heads of State and Government in Washington on 23 April 1999:

- a verifiable stop to all military action and the immediate ending of violence and repression;
- the withdrawal from Kosovo of the military, police and paramilitary forces;
- the stationing in Kosovo of an international military presence;
- the unconditional and safe return of all refugees and displaced persons and unhindered access to them by humanitarian aid organizations;
- the establishment of a political framework agreement for Kosovo on the basis of the Rambouillet Accords, in conformity with international law and the Charter of the United Nations. (www.sane-boston.org/articles/saneandpress/objectives.html)

Throughout the conflict, the achievements of these objectives, accompanied by measures to ensure their full implementation, has been regarded by the Alliance as the prerequisite for bringing to an end the violence and human suffering in Kosovo.

3.2 NATO Operation in Kosovo

On 24 March 1999, NATO started Peace-enforcement actions based on an air campaign against the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. The air campaign began with strikes on air defenses across the FRY and a limited range of military targets in Kosovo and elsewhere in southern Serbia. In late March, when Milosevic showed no sign of responding to the opening phase, the range of attacks was widened to cover carefully selected targets of high military value across the FRY. Targeting policy was under political control both in NATO and nationally. Within NATO, SACUER consulted the Secretary General closely throughout the campaign to ensure that the target selection process took proper account of the political direction given by the NAC. All UK targets were cleared nationally for compliance with international law. NATO was successful in a way unprecedented in previous campaigns in keeping to a minimum collateral damage or civilian casualties. In contrast to Milosevic’s forces operation in Kosovo, we were not out to attack the people of Serbia. (kosovo.mod.uk/account/nato.htm).

Sadly, there were tragic incidents. The mistaken strike on the Chinese Embassy, the destruction of a train which crossed the bridge during an aerial attack, and the death of some Kosovar civilians in NATO air strikes against Korisa are three examples but the noteworthy thing is that there were so few in relations to the size of campaign. In each case NATO investigated the cause and made public as much of the detail as possible and as soon as possible. This open approach contrasted starkly with Milosevic’s propaganda and distortion.

The campaign aimed to force the Serbian side to accept the Rambouillet agreement and thus, to prevent an imminent humanitarian catastrophe. Serbia inevitably saw any such arrangements as an unacceptable violation of its territorial integrity and sovereignty. (Wyman, M. (1999). Kosovo “The Politics of Delusion”; Why Intervention Was Right? pg. 105). For the Serbian government, the mantras of sovereignty and territorial inviolability, and myths about Kosovo’s centrality to the Serbian nation, as well as the domestic political climate, made this impossible. NATO accepted that it would take only a few days to bring the Belgrade government to the fold. Instead, a military operation continued for 11 weeks before the war came to an end. (www.int/kosovo/all-fre.html). Serbian military and paramilitary forces reacted with extreme violence against KLA fighters and the ethnic Albanian civilian population. Altogether, more than 800,000 people were displaced and thousands killed. After the G-8 states had agreed on the text for UN Security Council Resolution that was also acceptable to the FRY, on 9 June 1999 representatives of the Yugoslav military and NATO concluded a military-technical agreement on the withdrawal of Yugoslav troops from Kosovo. This ended the war.

3.3 The Legal Context of NATO intervention in Kosovo

3.3.1 The Legality of Intervention

In international law, matters are relatively clear. States shall no intervene in the internal affairs of a State or in matters that are essentially within domestic jurisdiction of a State (Article 2 of the Charter of the United Nations). Nonetheless, there is
an exception to this rule: the Security Council may intervene as it sees fit when it determines that there is a threat to international peace and security, which authorizes it to take enforcement action under Chapter VII of the Charter (Art 2(7) of the UN Charter).

In legal terms, NATO, as a regional arrangement (which it is in reality because of the terms of the Washington Treaty) or regional agency (which is what the OSCE is, since the 1993 framework agreement between that organization and the UN, but what NATO cannot claim to be), may intervene in respect of international peace and security, provided that the actions it undertake are consistent with the Purposes and Principles of the UN (Article 52) but Article 53 is also extremely clear: “no enforcement action shall be taken under regional arrangements or by regional agencies without the authorization of the Security Council”.

Most legal experts agree that under that provision, the air strikes against Serbia were illegal, because the Security Council never authorized them. Other, more libertarian experts cite humanitarian law or the law of “collective emergency” to justify NATO’s action. (Paust, J. J. 1999. Vol 33, No.9) The UN Secretary-General, Kofi Anan, has himself acknowledged that the

NATO action was legitimate, and has gone so far as to say that a new norm of intervention was now emerging for cases involving the violent repression of minorities that will and must take precedence over the other concerns of the law of States. Thus any flagrant violation of humanitarian law, be it crimes against humanity, violations of human rights or the Geneva Conventions, or ethnic cleansing, may provide a legitimate basis for action on the part of the international community because all these issues have international consequences and go well beyond the sacrosanct principle of the domestic jurisdiction of States. (Conlon, P. 1999. vol.33, No. 9) The real dilemma therefore lies in the fact that “while the Carter was a head of its time in 1945, the reverse is true today”, because the world has evolved to the point that it has entered a post-Westphalia era in which humanitarian law is just as compelling as the law of treaties freely entered into by States. There are thus experts who believe that if the Security Council is in capable of acting, a new norm of intervention by a coalition of States would seem to be entirely justified were large-scale atrocities are being committed.

That being said, the legal debate has not yet been resolved because any interpretation based on the right to intervene in the name of humanitarian law is improper in two respects. First, it amounts to striping the veto of the major powers of any substance, or nullifying the veto; second it creates intolerable precedent in that it means that a group or coalition of States may now, with no formal authorization from the Security Council, act as it pleases, citing the precedent of Kosovo.

The legal debate is therefore not over. While NATO’s action was not illegal under the principles of international law, the question remains of whether the concept of “humanitarian emergency” marks a turning point in the evolution of international humanitarian law. As history and events to come in Kosovo unfold, they will undoubtedly one day provide the answer to the question of whether the world has entered a new era in international relations – a “post-Westphalia plus” era – or not.

3.3.2 Law and Morality

Whether NATO action was lawful is a very different question from whether NATO action was right. Pointed out that there is a moral, as well as a legal issue at stake:

“Humanitarian interventions involving the threat or use of armed force and undertaken without the mandate or the authorization of the Security Council will, as a matter of principle, remain in breach of international law. (Krieger, H. 2001. pg. 402)

But such a general statement cannot be the last word. Rather, in any instance of humanitarian intervention a careful assessment will have to be made on how heavily such illegality weighs against all the circumstances of a particular concrete case, and of the efforts, if any, undertaken by the parties involved to get ‘as close to the law’ as possible. Such analyses will influence not only the moral but also the legal judgment in such cases”.

Under international law, countries can intervene in the internal affairs of a sovereign nation under two conditions: first, the nation must be brutally abusing human rights and second, legitimate international authorities must authorize the intervention. Some critics of intervention question whether Serbian abuses were sufficiently severe to warrant intervention and argue that NATO needed to receive authorization from the United Nations Security Council. Others criticize the selectivity of the West’s moral outrage, citing even worse abuses in Southeastern Turkey (against the Turks), the Sudan, Rwanda, and Chechnya.
While upholding the importance of the rule of law, and clearly discomforted by some aspects of the legality of the Kosovo campaign, pointed to US Supreme Court Justice Holmes’s dictum that “a constitution is not a suicide pact”. We believe that, while legal questions in international relations are important, law cannot become a means by which universally acknowledged principles of human rights are undermined.

The determine whether NATO’s action was morally justified, and legally justified under the criteria which NATO set itself. We have to ask whether a humanitarian emergency existed before NATO intervened, and whether a humanitarian catastrophe would have occurred perhaps over a number of years, rather than being concentrated within the 78 days of the NATO campaign if intervention had no taken place. We have dealt with these issues elsewhere, and conclude that the answer to both questions is “yes”. That being the case, we conclude that NATO’s military action, if of dubious legality in the current state of international law, was justified on moral grounds. (www.publcations.parlament.uk)

3.4 Public Opinion about NATO Involvement in Kosovo

3.4.1 Was NATO Successful?

What follows, then is a documentary analysis, examining NATO successful issue by public opinion on all ideological sides of the debate, in order to help our preconceptions. It is necessary to examine the two dominant opinions of those opposed to NATO intervention.

The first, and perhaps most widely articulated, argument holds that NATO intervention in Kosovo was illegal (Clausson, M.I. 2006. Pg. 3), as it by-passed the UN Security Council in not obtaining that body’s approval. In this, they claim that the Security Council is the only international body competent to authorize intervention on humanitarian or other grounds.

In the second instance, many have argued that NATO’s intervention was illegal as it constituted an attack on a sovereign state on the basis of that state’s domestic problems, thereby violating its territorial integrity. This, they claim stems from Articles 2 and 4 of the UN Charter, prohibiting the use of the force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state (This is the Serbian perspective). These arguments tell us that the NATO intervention in Kosovo was not successful.

But we have to presentate and the Kosovo perspective. From the perspective of Kosovo Albanians both before, during, and after then action in question, NATO’s intervention on behalf of those threatened with, and subject to, ethnic cleansing, was legal and successful for a variety of reasons rooted in law and history. Not only did it rectify an historical injustice committed by the Great Powers at the London Conference of 1913, in which Serbia was granted possession of the occupied territory of Kosovo, but it recognized the declaration of sovereignty of the Kosovo people in 1943 and 1944, which was, in fact, backed by Yugoslav leader Josip Broz Tito.

Furthermore, the 1974 Constitution of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia constituted Kosovo as one of eight federal units including rights to judicial and legislative autonomy and representation of the federal level independent of Serbian authorities making it a Republic in everything but name, status illegally revoked by the Serbia with the connivance of federal politicians fearful of Serbian disruption.

The NATO intervention was successful because the intervention was legalized on the basis of international instruments and declarations. (www.washingtonpost.com/wp-srv/inatl/zforum/99/dowling041999.htm). The legal context of NATO intervention in Kosovo we will see further down.

3.4.2 NATO Credibility

Ultimately, NATO’s credibility, in line with the demands of deterrence theory during the Cold War, was paramount. With Alliance credibility on the line, the logic of the situation was such that the Allies would have to take action if the KLA signed the agreement and Belgrade did not. To demonstrate this and to reinforce the links with the situation in Bosnia Herzegovina, resolve was shown in the period before Kosovo talks resumed in mid-March by international action that saw Bosnian Serb President Nikola Poplasen sacked for failure to cooperate in peace implementation and the town of Brcko, strategically vital to Serbian notions of Bosnian Serb statehood, removed from Republika Srpska’s control and given separate status under joint local administration. This was also the kind of situation in which further apprehension of war crimes inductees might be expected. Action regarding Bosnia and Herzegovina was a signal of similar resolve over Kosovo. (www.journal.forces.gc.ca/).
The dangers in NATO’s not showing resolve, both regarding the message sent to the parties in the former Yugoslav lands and in the wider world about NATO credibility, as well as the potential damage to transatlantic relations of failure to act, meant that the Alliance had no option but to act, if the circumstances required it. The same logic applied to the question of the committing a ground force to implement an agreement, (Schnabel, A., Thakur, R. Ch. 2000. Pg. 3). whether reached with or without coercive air action. NATO’s credibility regarding the parties, its image, and standing in international eyes, and its meaning and value as a vital asset and interest of its members meant that the 28,000-strong force envisaged by plans would need to be deployed, not only to assist peace in Kosovo, but to ensure that the vital interest of each member in maintaining Alliance strength was met.

4. Conclusion

The humanitarian catastrophe in Kosovo and the NATO intervention is a precedent of considerable promise for the Balkan region and for many other parts of world afflicted with endemic communal violence.

The legality of Kosovo intervention still is a controversial issue and the majority of lawyers agree that the operation was not legal under the UN Charter framework. Nevertheless, the same lawyers often justify the action on political and moral grounds. The lessons, which may be drawn from the Kosovo crisis, include the phenomena of “hard cases in which terrible dilemmas must be faced and imperative political and moral considerations may appear to leave no choice but to act outside the law.

The fact that a respected authority in international law, admits that in certain instances it is accepted to act outside the law, should force us to think whether indeed existing law reflects the need to protect human rights in the case of humanitarian catastrophe. This can lead us to the conclusion that the emerging doctrine of humanitarian intervention, which can be justified on moral or political grounds, should be turn into a legal doctrine of humanitarian intervention. This requires either changing the UN Charter framework or allowing for its more flexible interpretation. One should however not be naive enough to believe that this will be a rapid process. It seems yet that the Kosovo intervention can be treated as a significant precedent that will have a vital impact on the gradual process of creating a legal doctrine of humanitarian intervention.

Finally, whenever possible, NATO should threaten or use force with the full backing of the international community, as expressed by the UN Security Council. It did so in Bosnia. The draft of Rambouillet agreement for Kosovo stipulated that the UN be invited to endorse a NATO-led peace operation to support its implementation. But the Alliance cannot be held hostage to the dictates of non-NATO members. As an alliance of democratic states acting by consensus, NATO must preserve the possibility of acting without specific UN authorization. Even then, the allies should base their action on appropriate legal instruments, including the UN charter and, for actions in Europe, the Helsinki Final Act and the Charter of Paris.

Moreover, the question can be raised: what would have happened if the NATO did not intervene in Kosovo?

In response to the new context of conflict, peacekeeping missions have been expanded to include the disciplines of peacemaking and peace building. While peacekeeping aims to provide an environment of stability to facilitate the processes of both reconstruction and progress toward peace, peace-making is a diplomatic and political endeavour applied strategically to confrontation situations, through such undertakings as mediation and negotiation, in order to arrest the conflict or at least prevent it from escalating. The securing of human rights, the facilitation of elections, the support given to attempts at political reconciliation and new modes of governance.

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State-NGO Relations in Africa

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Abstract

The objective of this article was to explore State-NGO relations and their impact on development in Africa. This article employs a historical approach in the analysis of state-ngo relations. While Africa is still riddled with abject poverty, the HIV-AIDS pandemic, tuberculosis, hunger and preventable diseases like cholera malaria and other chronic threats that call for help from other actors other than the government itself (Shah, 2009) the state itself has failed to address these problems and the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) have for a long time attempted to fill that gap. However, in Africa, the relationship between the state and NGOs has been challenged by lack of mutual trust, while the proliferation of NGOs has not been met with political neutrality. We argue that given the fact that NGOs have had a significant impact in Africa, a partnership between the state and NGOs can realise sustainable development through working together. However, the state should provide a favourable environment for NGOs to operate and work in collaboration with the state in service provision in critical areas.

Keywords: Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), development, sustainability

1. Introduction

Africa is one continent that hosts a number of NGOs that work as development partners, the relationship between the host country and NGOs is the one that determines the scope which NGOs can reach. However, in Africa, the relationship between the state and NGOs has been challenged by lack of mutual trust Campbell (1996). In some instances, the state promulgates a plethora of legal instruments targeted at curtailing the activities of NGOs (Jalali, 2008). On the other hand, NGOs are accused of being responsible for foreign penetration based on allegations that they pursue political interests of their home countries or those of the international community as their agenda. At the same time NGOs also accuse governments of corruption, malgovernance and autocracy, pointing at these as the main factors that hamper development, thereby, justifying their existence.

It goes without saying that despite these challenges, Africa is still riddled with abject poverty. Africa has been classified as the poorest continent in the world. Its inhabitants are plagued by civil wars, the HIV-AIDS pandemic, tuberculosis, hunger and preventable diseases like cholera malaria and other chronic threats that call for help from other actors other than the government itself (Shah, 2009). According to Shah (2009) infectious diseases continue to blight the lives of the poor across the world of which the biggest chunk of the affected are in Africa. Sub-Saharan Africa alone accounted for an estimated 69% of all people living with HIV and 70 % of all AIDS deaths in 2011. Every year there are 350-500 million cases of malaria, with 1 million fatalities. Africa accounts for 90% of malaria deaths and African children account for over 80% of malaria victims worldwide. Gibbs et al. (1999) also observe that the state itself has failed to address these problems. It is in the face of these alarming threats that NGOs came on the platform to help the poor. Some NGOs arose from within these plagued states while others came from European states as helpers.

NGOs remain relevant actors in developing countries because most of them offer assistance in critical areas like health, education, agriculture and other fields where the government cannot help (Tvedt, 1998). What is of concern is the relationship between states and NGOs in Africa which is lamented as a setback in the face of an afflicted people.

Mostly, NGOs are welcome where the state and government do not perceive them as threats. In some instances, the state will not be in a position to offer social services. A good example is that of war tone zones which often allow NGOs to offer relief services like food and shelter Cannon (2000). In other instances like in an autocratic state, NGOs that offer advocacy services tend to be viewed as political opponents hence they are unwelcome (Jalali, 2008). Therefore, the type of a regime in place plays an important role in giving or denying NGOs space. On the other hand NGOs tend to be reluctant to divulge information about their finances to government, however, government can introduce
laws that ensure accountability on the part of NGOs (Moroso, 2005). Moreover, the government can control NGOs where they are perceived to be pursuing foreign agendas in the host country. However, the need for a partnership between these two can never be overemphasized given the background of growing poverty in Africa.

2. How NGOs found their niche in Africa.

The presence of NGOs in Africa dates back to the pre-colonial era where they provided social welfare services to those people who were neglected by the state. In the colonial era, NGOs found their niche in providing social services that the colonial state failed to offer (Michael, 2004). The colonial leaders had no commitment to finance state welfare programmes. Government social services for the blacks were minimal and social policy was geared towards ensuring the integrity of the structures of colonial rule. In fact, it was designed to secure a sufficient quality of labour to guarantee a reasonably efficient exploitation of the colony (Manji & O’Coill, 2002).

These NGOs have long provided health and education services to the poor and they were best known as missionary society-based. Because they met with little opposition, these NGOs managed to offer services largely unhindered by the state if their role was not perceived as political opposition. In countries like South Africa, some NGOs that offered health services in the black homelands that were neglected by the state were not perceived as a threat to the state although at times they were subjected to state scrutiny. Largely, many local NGOs (especially church-based ones) played a significant role in ameliorating the misery of the poor.

3. NGO-State relations in Africa: A historical overview.

After the colonial period, Africans inherited authoritarian states that were primarily concerned with the extraction of revenue. This was due to the fact that the competitive nature of the colonial powers in contest for Africa required colonising nations to have a strong physical presence in their colonies to exclude rival powers (Michael, 2004). Such an ideology was maintained by the imposition of centralised and authoritarian state structures as an imperative. At independence, it was this autocratic and patronal extractive state that Africans inherited and maintained whose balance of power between the state and society was skewed towards the state.

As Michael notes, authoritarianism, coupled with socialism in Africa cemented the power of the state over society. Socialist leaders in most African countries expressed the need for pursuing a socialist ideology to improve the lives of the previously neglected poor people through equality of citizens (Michael, 2004). These needs were to be achieved through a single party state. The single party state was proclaimed as the embodiment of the socialist principles and as the return of these newly independent countries to egalitarianism which is seen as the traditional African form of governing. As a result, it is these ideologies that thwarted the good relations between the state and NGOs because under this type of regime, no organisation was supposed to exist outside of the state.

Furthermore, Michael writes that most governments feared the outbreak of civil wars along ethnic lines, hence they formed centralist states with the aim of taking total control of activities happening in their countries. Dispersed populations, ethnic, regional, religious or linguistic divisions posed serious threats to governments. These conditions made the governments to restrict pluralist activity. This monopolisation of political power reduced the ability of NGOs to obtain access to the state and state actors and to impact directly on the state decision making process. As a result, it allowed the government to increase its dominance in the lives of the people (Michael, 2004).

As the state continued to enjoy a certain degree of dominance, it introduced rural development programmes at community level for popular mobilization programmes such as Harambee in Kenya and Ujamaa in Tanzania (Michael, 2004). Initially, participation at grassroots level was high, however, as these programmes became highly politicised, participation waned at the same time NGOs were dwindling in their numbers due to an unfriendly environment. Braathen & Palmero (2001) in using Mozambique as an example, argue that the country inherited a state without civil society, and that when Frelimo took over, it maintained the legacy of their former coloniser. Frelimo, introduced initiatives called grupos dinamizadores (dynamizing groups) which were aimed at opening a channel for participatory development. Although the idea seemed brilliant, institutional impediments plagued this channel between the government and the people. Soon the idea was fraught with corruption and it was regarded as tools of the Frelimo party for dominance. Moreover, Frelimo had made itself a one party state hence the participation from other actors like NGOs was absent. Braathen & Palmero (2001) further point out that lack of participation of NGOs in development emanates from the fact that the inherited state does not allow for participation of NGOs in policy formulation. Rather, policy formulation is heavily guarded as a highly political activity where NGOs are not supposed to come in. NGOs are only invited to come in
and pursue what the government outlines. The authors posit that while most NGOs continue to play an important role in landmine activities, children's rights, health, and social reintegration for former combatants in Mozambique, NGOs are still marginalised by the government. There is lack of an entry point for NGOs due to some institutional stumbling blocks, for instance, the lack of participation of NGOs in policy formulation.

Mungate (1993) concurs with Braathen & Palmero (2001) by stating that although the government in Zimbabwe recognises the role played by NGOs as important, there is lack of entry points and the government determines the scope and scale where NGOs can reach through institutionalisation of laws that do not allow participatory development. Although the above authors assume that the government recognises the importance of NGOs, it sounds like a political gimmick used by the politicians because they are the ones who are instituting the stumbling blocks that NGOs.

Michael, (2004) notes that the legacy of the state inherited by the post-colonial regimes which is reinforced by their subscription to African socialism has had a negative impact on the NGO-state relations in Africa. This resulted in the encroachment of a strong and bloated centralised government into NGOs and the resultant weakening and marginalisation of NGOs. The author further states that NGOs in Africa have been rendered weak and that this weakness is evident in the absence of material, organisational and ideological means required for NGO activity. NGOs lack the participation, coordination and leadership necessary to fulfil the organisational and ideological dimensions. The difficulties of planning and coordinating across competing ethnic, linguistic, and religious communities for instance have plagued the NGOs. In addition, there is lack of access to competent human resources. The tendency is that most qualified graduates prefer employment in governments or the private sector rather than in the NGOs. On this factor Michael concurs with Julie (2009) who has also observed that graduates prefer working somewhere else rather than with the NGOs. They can only work in NGOs if they do not have a choice. This is partly due to the fact that jobseekers often prefer long contracts unlike those of NGOs which are shorter.

It is not too far-fetched to argue that the efforts of the weak African states to consolidate their power led them to control and restrict NGO activities. This has had an effect on constraining the ability of African NGOs to develop capabilities needed to bring about development. Michael adds that NGOs in Africa, in particular Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Senegal and others reflect a lack of power to seriously assume a role in development. The author continues to argue that what is of paramount importance in this scenario is the fact that most African states never got the opportunity to offer their citizenry basic services in a sustainable and distributive manner.

It is against the background of this malgovernance by African states that the World Bank and IMF came up with structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) which were targeted at realising economic growth through deregulation of state enterprises, social welfare expenditure cutbacks and the globalisation of local markets. The argument behind SAPs was that government spending leads to economic inefficiency, hence the drastic reduction of government expenditure (Structural Adjustment Participatory Review International Network report, 2004). These reforms were geared to curb deficits and increasing revenues and also achieving large scale changes in the role of the state in the economy.

The core objective of SAPs was a radical shift away from the role of the state as a provider and guarantor of universally accessible social services to one of providing essential services in a targeted manner only to those on the margins. The reductions were said to be aimed at bringing about economic growth which would have “trickle down” effects to the poor thereby improving their lives. However, SAPs brought devastating results on the poor that further exacerbated their conditions. These effects of SAPs reduced state capacity to offer the little that they used to offer before. Therefore, it became apparent that NGOs were needed as important actors in development (Campbell, 1996).

Despite the fact that the state could not offer services to its citizenry, NGOs were not embraced as a partner for development by most governments. The state tried rather sluggishly to allow territorial access to NGOs, a process which is fraught with problems which still haunt their relations with the government to date.

4. The different types of regimes under which NGOs operate in Africa.

Swilling & Russell (2003) came up with different regime types in their study of the scope of NGOs in South Africa comprising the liberal regime, the social democratic regime, the corporatist regime and the statist regime. Accordingly, these regime types have a role in determining the scope of NGO activity in a given environment. The liberal regime is characterised by low government expenditure on development, coupled with a well-developed non-profit sector. It grows under conditions where there is a strong middle class which prefers social development spearheaded by the non-profit sector.

The second type is the social democratic regime which has strong government expenditure on social development and a weak non-profit sector. This regime emerges in a state where there is a strong middle class that has gained
political power to foster development. The social democratic state, to some extent resembles the South African state. The third type is the corporatist regime, where the state works with the non-profit sector to offer services to the people. This regime often arises where elites in power must accommodate NGOs. The form of states mentioned above resemble mostly the developed countries where most governments allow pluralist activities without fear that their legitimacy is at stake.

The fourth type of regime mentioned is the statist regime. This type of regime is characterised by low levels of social development expenditure, without the concomitant development of a non-profit sector with significant capacity to substitute for the state’s neglect. This regime arises where there is an authoritarian state which is self-serving and faces no obligation to offer social services to the poor because most philanthropic activities would have been thwarted in order to eliminate opposition.

In Zimbabwe, the attitude of the government towards NGOs soon after independence was that of mistrust, hostility, reticence and indifference. This kind of relationship can be attributed to the lack of knowledge of handling NGOs and was fuelled by political turbulence in some parts of the country. Moreover, the government had inclinations of a one party state. NGOs like Organisation of Rural Associations for Progress (ORAP) underwent considerable strain. Furthermore, the state’s ideology of development which emphasised development planning by the state ran contrary to that of NGOs who stressed the participatory approach with little interference from the government.

Of importance to note is that in some developing countries the notion of sovereignty tends to be overemphasised, especially by autocratic leaders. This situation often happens where the legitimacy of the state is at stake. In such circumstances, NGOs are normally treated with suspicion and can be regarded as instruments of the enemy that seek to overthrow the government. Where the state suspects no threats and assured of its legitimacy, its relationship with NGOs usually works better.

For instance, in Zimbabwe during the early 1980s the government’s legitimacy was at stake as manifested by symptoms of civil wars. During that time the state treated NGOs with suspicion and NGOs underwent considerable strains. The government started to openly appreciate the role played by NGOs after its legitimacy was established when the Zanu PF government won the elections by majority in the late 1980s. In his speech, President R.G Mugabe said:

A task of developing in Zimbabwe..... is an operation that must be tackled by the people themselves with government providing and/ harnessing all resources at its disposal. Government appreciates that NGOs can and do play a pivotal role in development, with the proper vision and approach and with good and open communication and collaboration with government; they can act as valuable partners in the development process. Silveira House has lived to this image for it has worked hard with the people for many years and has successfully built up a valuable grassroots network that readily facilitates further development.....(Mungate, 1993: 27).

Later in his speech the president quickly provided guidance on how NGOs should pursue development. This displays an element of mistrust whilst at the same time the government needed the help of NGOs. Mungate reiterates the same point when pointing out that the government lacked mutual trust in NGOs. This was also expressed by the late vice president Muzenda who raised the issue of security in 1987. In his speech, he gave a warning to NGOs that if they interfere with politics they will be subject to government intervention.

However, in some instances, NGOs are valued as partners when they complement government rather than substitute it. For instance, in Kenya, the Emergency Drought Recovery and Oxfam have become respected advisers to the government on community management of water and pastures in arid areas (Gibbs et al, 1999). Under such circumstances of sound relations, the government often acknowledges that NGOs have a comparative advantage.

Under an authoritarian regime, the government is more likely to restrict activist NGOs.

Although most states in Africa subscribe to international human rights movements and have even ratified some treaties like the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the state still continues to limit mobilisation. States like Egypt, Tunisia and Yemen used the threat of Islamist terrorism to suppress human rights activists’ access to international organisations and by instituting travel bans (Jalali, 2008).

Generally, dictatorships or single party states are often hostile to NGOs. The political history of Ethiopia also illustrates that NGOs under dictatorships experience a multiplicity of operational hurdles. When under Mengistu Haile Mariam’s military regime, NGOs in Ethiopia were subjected to extreme state control of the government. They were not allowed to work in conflict areas. In addition to that, most projects were supposed to be registered with the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission (RRC) and then cleared by the relevant ministry. Their relationship was characterised by state repression and reticence. Since the Ethiopian government denied NGOs an opportunity to work with the people, the
country was denied aid by donors on the account of human rights abuses. Aid donors preferred to fund NGOs to provide relief services only (Campbell, 1996).

However, state repression is not a phenomenon confined to the African continent, similar circumstances occurred when Prime Minister Indira Gandhi imposed emergency rule in India. A number of NGO officials, political leaders and political activists were imprisoned. As a follow up, information about NGOs with foreign ties was demanded and in 1976 the Foreign Contribution Regulation Act (FCRA) was passed. The passing of the Act was supported by the argument that there was need to control foreign intervention that could destabilise the country (Campbell, 1996).

Moreover, when the Junata party in India got into power after two years in 1978, it was committed to restoring democracy but their efforts were short-lived because the Congress Party of Prime Minister Ghandi gained power again. When in power, Gandhi sought to increase insight into the activities of NGOs by instituting changes to the FCRA of 1976. A commission was set up to investigate misuse of funds and punitive measures were put in place to control NGOs. The relationship was characterised by hostility and suspicion. However, to show that a type of regime shapes the relations between the state and NGOs, when her son Rajiv Gandhi took over, he restored democratic principles. He also increased funding for NGOs and changed some restrictive sections of FCRA Act of 1976 (Jalali, 2008).

This shows that a transition from authoritarian to liberal democracy can also pose serious threats to the cooperation between the government and NGOs. As Campbell points out, when going through a transition, ‘transaction costs’ may hamper relations of NGOs and the state. There can be uncertainty of the nature and extent of political reform which can reduce prospects for cooperation. Even though the reform process may be intended for increasing political space for NGOs, conflict can arise as NGOs and the state flex out their muscles in the new political environment.

For instance, when going through a transition, many changes occurred in Ethiopia. NGOs grew in number from 60 to 250 as a result; a board was established to ensure cooperation between the state and NGOs. However, new challenges arose that jeopardised the state-NGO relations. The transition coincided with the implementation of SAPs. As the state became more sidelined by the SAPs, there was uncertainty at the central level about which state institutions are responsible for coordinating NGOs. At the grassroots level, the local government institutions were dismantled due to SAPs.

Consequently, the requirement to register with the Ministry of Justice made NGOs reluctant to enter into cooperation with the government. The NGOs complained that they were better off under the dictatorship than with the new democratic government. On the other hand, an increase in resources channelled to the NGOs also raised government’s eyebrows who viewed NGOs as competitors because they expected funds to be channelled through the government (Campbell, 1996).

As Ethiopia settled politically, there was considerable evidence that NGO relations with the government had improved. By 1995, NGOs had come to accept that the government is entitled to coordinate NGO activities and to support the policy that promoted development. From the above illustration, one can observe that as democracy took root in Ethiopia, government legitimacy increased hence NGOs were not perceived as a threat. At the same time, NGOs finally realised that the new government did not mean any harm by requiring them to register. This goes to show that to a certain extent, mutuality between NGOs and the state can be established in an environment that is stable and democratic. Conversely, there are instances in the relationship between government and NGOs where governments can appreciate the willingness of NGOs to do unpopular things. Such areas include working with HIV/AIDS, control of sexually transmitted infections and prevention from parents to child transmission programmes. An example in this regard is that of the Kenyan government when they expressed their support for NGOs that work on these sensitive problems especially among the marginalised groups such as prostitutes and intravenous drug users (Gibbs et al. 1999).

At times NGOs are appreciated when they fill the gaps in the provision of essential services where the governments fail to provide. Jalali (2008) points out that in India, NGOs are becoming common and accepted mechanisms for the maintenance of public investments in rural water and sanitation systems in Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh. However, in other instances, if NGOs provide services where the government is failing due to misuse of funds, the government tends to react in a harsh manner by using its power anyhow to drive out NGOs in fear of exposure to the international community. For instance, NGOs were not welcome under the Mengistu dictatorship in Ethiopia. However, with the outbreak of a major famine in 1983/5 NGOs started to flock in offering relief services. The state also seized the opportunity to show the international community that it was committed to assisting its people although it was mere political rhetoric.

From the above exposition it can be inferred that the relationship between governments and NGOs is a political question that impinges on the legitimacy of various types of institutions to exercise power. There is competition for who...
has the right to assert to leadership, to organise people, and to allocate resources in the development enterprise (Campbell, 1996).

NGOs can also come under criticism by changing their functions from service provision to advocacy. States can regard that as lack of adherence to the contract terms particularly in a repressive state. Emphasis is often given where NGOs would have gained access on the merit of their functions. For instance, after the drought in Ethiopia, the Mengistu dictatorship allowed NGOs to provide social development services only. However, a French NGO was expelled after it criticised the government for its resettlement policy (Campbell, 1996).

In other instances relations between the NGOs and the state can be plagued by lack of commitment from the side of the government. Cannon (2000) concurs with this point by giving an example of Uganda where NGOs assumed a leading role in providing services to the people while the government withdrew its own services. The staff of a Ugandan NGO called The Aids Support Organisation (TASO) expressed displeasure when they were told that “we the ACP are the brains and you TASO are our arms” by an official of the Aids Control Programme, a government organisation. A relationship like this does not boost morale for the NGO staff, neither does it promote development. Gibbs et al (1999) argues that at times NGOs help the state to put services within the reach of all through augmenting the initiatives of the state. Moreover, money withdrawn from offering services as intended can be embezzled by government employees.

On the other hand, NGOs can also be blamed for causing bad relations. An NGO in Uganda raised suspicions of government by refusing to divulge its financial matters to the government officials. The NGO was supported by the World Bank in its STI/AIDS programme. The Bank then advised the NGO to apply for funding through the relevant ministry. A potential source of tension was identified as the lack of transparency on the part of the NGO. District medical personnel in Uganda also expressed unhappiness due to the unwillingness of NGOs to share information about their budgets and work plans. A director of the Ugandan NGO further confirmed their unwillingness when he was quoted as saying ‘we will tell the district about our activities, but we will discuss money only with those who gave us money’. Underlying these sentiments is the unanimous consensus of the NGOs to divulge information on their activities only. It is also under these circumstances that the government can begin to doubt the transparency of NGOs. Furthermore, a government can be offended by NGOs who by-pass relevant authorities in the implementation of their projects. In Uganda, an NGO that embarked on maternal child health operating in ten districts offended the ministry of health when it by-passed them. Although the NGO defended itself by arguing that the running of the project was under the management of the district officials, national government found it unbecoming.

In most Africa countries after the devastating effects of SAPs, NGOs took over the roles that used to be primarily the domain of the government. They operated through the state institutions or directly to the people. This has been referred to as the “internationalisation of public welfare” (Campbell, 1996). Tendencies of bypassing state institutions have been attributed to the disintegration of local governments under SAPs. This observation has been made by several authors, Campbell (1996:9) in quoting Palmer & Rossitter (1990) argues that:

The state is withering away at a local level in countries such as Mozambique and Zambia, though not quite in the manner that Marx predicted. Gallantly stepping into the breach come the [northern] NGOs [NNGOs]... Whole districts or sections of once-functioning government ministries are handed over to foreigners to run, especially in health and social services. This process is enhanced as structural adjustment programmes bite ever deeper... The more NNGOs are prepared to move in, the easier it becomes for governments to reduce support... But NGOs have notoriously short time frames; they are rarely able (even if willing) to commit themselves for more than 3 years ahead... The example of Mozambique is instructive. There, discovering an absence of (southern) NGOs, many NGOs responded by setting up their own operations, rather than working through the existing government structures... This clearly represents a process of institutional undermining rather than institution building... Surely it is a selffulfilling prophecy when NGOs then say that they are forced to become operational because of weak government structures. Governments have become increasingly suspicious of NGOs and this can lead to reticence. This behaviour often occurs when NGOs feel that they can replace the government through the services that they will be offering to the poor. According to Sinclair (1990) the idea that NGOs are more effective engines for social progress and economic development than government is almost universally popular and their importance have been popularised by international donors. At times this popularisation of NGOs shapes their behaviour whereby they undermine government authority. Under such circumstances friction is most likely to take place if the government feels threatened with the presence of NGOs because their existence, and the weakening of local government structures already poses a threat to the government.
5. **NGO-State relations: towards a sustainable partnership.**

Within this globalising world, the state has been made to share its power with other actors. These actors shape the agendas of the state in areas of rule of law, population policy, and policy for women’s equality, technical standardization and environmental issues (Jalali, 2008). Other authors view this development as the process of dismantling the African state for the benefit of the powerful donors to plunder resources in Africa.

Jalali in quoting Matthews (1997) argues that national governments are not simply loosing autonomy in a globalising economy but they are sharing powers including political, social, and security roles at the core of sovereignty with NGOs. However, it must be stressed that NGOs evolved largely as a consequence of government’s inability to provide social services. The dissatisfaction derived from the government’s inability among the citizenry prompted the formation of community activism. This activism demands a degree of political power which is often times viewed as threatening to vested public sector interests by the government (Sinclair, 1990).

The relationship between the government and NGOs is complex as governments are often driven by a political agenda that often deviates from the strict priorities of development (Sinclair, 1990). When political interests take centre stage, NGOs are often explained away as instruments of the outsider. Major issues like poverty and hunger are often sidelined with governments complaining that their sovereignty is at stake. Under such circumstances, the government must allow other actors to help without totally losing its power.

In the developed states, the absence of NGOs can be explained in terms of a powerful state that can offer social services to its citizenry. In any case the history of some NGOs like Oxfam emanate from the post-world war period when most countries like Germany were experiencing an economic downturn. NGOs rose to help the poor until a point where the states managed to recover in terms of giving services to their people. Therefore, both actors have a role to play in as far as development is concerned.

The major role of the state includes giving a foundation of law, a friendly policy environment for NGOs, investment in people and infrastructure, protection of the vulnerable and protection of the natural environment (Clayton, 2007). It is the one that has the power to open up avenues for other actors to gain access to local people. Even locally mobilised groups should be recognised by local authorities to operate. According to Krasner in (Jalali, 2008), domestic structures (political culture, political institutions, and civil society) and the links between them not only determine the impact of NGOs but also influence their institutional structures. Multinational corporations also require the approval of the state to secure territorial access and their existence depends upon property rights that are created and maintained by states (Jalali, 2008). Therefore, a variety of state actors depend on the institutional structures of the host states for their functioning.

In addition, the state still possesses the power to protect its security. Most states still exercise control over their foreign policies with respect to defence as compared to issues concerning health or economies. Defence remains the ample domain of a state and protection of citizens and territory must exclusively remain under the control of the state. Similarly the issues concerning ethnic minority rights, given that they overlap with demands of territorial rights, are perceived by states as threatening to national interests in a manner that women’s rights are (Jalali, 2008). Therefore, the involvement of NGOs in such areas should be treated with caution because serious questions of sovereignty will be at stake. For instance, although China and India differ in terms of domestic structures both of them do not allow foreign funding for minority groups such as Tibetans and Muslims respectively. This must not be interpreted as lack of NGO help but if territorial access puts the state’s security at stake, the state tends to restrict funding towards that area (Jalali, 2008). Given the fact that NGOs do have resources, a partnership between the government and NGOs can realise sustainable development through working together. The task of the government should be that of providing a favourable legal environment for NGOs to operate and working in collaboration with NGOs in service provision in critical areas.

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Complaint Handling in the Airline Industry: The Way to Enhance Customer Loyalty

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Abstract

Organizations with effective customer complaints handling enjoy high level of customers’ loyalty. Customers decide to continue with an organization according to its ability to offer what customers need and want. This study aims to understand how customer complaints are managed in the airline industry. A case study of Egyptair is used to achieve the research aim. Data are collected from customers and staff responsible for handling customer complaints. The study reports a number of problems with the process of managing complaints in Egyptair. This causes dissatisfaction of customers and makes it difficult to maintain loyalty. The study introduces a process model for a better handling of complaints in Egyptair. Further, the study suggests a number of implementations at different levels of Egyptair to satisfy customers and enhance customer loyalty.

Keywords: customer complaint; loyalty; airline industry; service quality; complaint handling.

1. Introduction

Customer complaints are indications of level of satisfaction with product/service quality. Research shows that organizations with effective complaints handling enjoy a high level of customer loyalty. It is argued that unless decision makers understand customer complaints behavior and value the return of complaint handling, they will not be able to recognize the strength of the relationship between complaint handling, loyalty and profits (Goodman, 2006). Customers do not necessarily express their dissatisfaction in the form of complaints, especially when their previous experience implies that the organization does not pay attention to customer complaints. Alternatively, the disappointed customer may choose to move to a competitor or engage in a negative word of mouth communication (Dinnen & Hassanien, 2011). Research on complaint handling reveals that a small fraction of unsatisfied customers complain. They do so to give the organization the opportunity to correct the problem. There is evidence that some customers do not complain because they are unsure about organizational willingness or ability to resolve disputes fairly. The simplest way for customers is to shift to competitive companies. This encourages the development of an effective and innovative system for handling customer complaints within organizations. The impact of not doing this results in business failure (Dinnen & Hassanien, 2011). Effective complaint management can save business unwanted costs. For example, negative word-of-mouth publicity from unsatisfied customers means lost revenue and necessitates additional investment in advertising to attract replacement customers.

In today’s highly competitive environment, large companies are highly concerned with obtaining information on customer satisfaction and loyalty (Carvajal et al, 2011). Customer loyalty is a response to company’s action as customers decide to continue with an organization according to its ability to offer what customers need and want (Lawfer, 2004). Customer satisfaction has been studied as a factor in its own as well as a determinant of loyalty. Loyalty has been defined as the customer’s perception of the extent to which his or her needs, goals and desires have been fulfilled (Oliver, 1999). Meanwhile, Carvajal et al (2011) describes satisfaction as the psychological result of a consumption experience that is not to be confused with its evaluation, but should be seen as the psychological and retrospective judgment of the experience. Accordingly, satisfaction is argued to be the well-being resulting from the consumption experience.

Handling of customer complaints is one of the major determinants of customer satisfaction as well as their decision to stay with an organization. A complaint is defined as an expression of dissatisfaction communicated to an organization with regard to its products (Fornell & Wernerfelt, 1988). Thus, organizations that do not take customer complaints seriously are likely to lose their customers quickly. Researchers describe desertion as the gradual termination of a relationship due to a number of problems that take place over a long time period (e.g. Hocutt, 1998; Bolton & Bronkhurst, 1995). Further, it is argued that a severe critical incident may cause an immediate loss of a customer. Nevertheless, slow handling of customer complaints is negatively affecting the organizational credibility, image, and reputation. This is a
strong reason for losing customers. Fornell & Johnson (1996) explain that the higher is the level of customer satisfaction with organizational products and/or services, the less is the number of complaints. Further, many researchers argue that satisfaction is a major determinant of loyalty (e.g. Ball et al, 2006; Chiou & Shen, 2006; Kristensen et al, 2000; Fornell & Johnson, 1996).

This study aims to understand the process of handling customer complaints in the airline travel. Using a case study of Egyptair, the research explores factors that cause customers’ dissatisfaction in handling complaints, investigates causes of problems in the process of managing customer complaints, and suggests a model for an effective handling of complaints in Egyptair.

2. Service quality and customer satisfaction

Research about customer satisfaction concludes that it costs more for an organization to gain a new customer than to retain an existing one (e.g. Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Shin & Elliott, 2001; Blodgett et al, 1995; Gummesson, 1994). It is argued that customer satisfaction is significant to accomplish profit (Shin & Elliott, 2001). Customer satisfaction is an important exit and entry barrier, helping the firm to retain its customers and protects the firm against competitors (Fornell, 1992). Accordingly, customer satisfaction has become a major objective of service organizations.

Meanwhile, in most organizations, satisfying customers means less complaints and lower costs in handling failures (Spreng et al, 1995; Clemes et al, 2008). Researchers argue that satisfied customers are willing to pay more for the benefits they receive, i.e. they are less sensitive to price increase (Shin & Elliott, 2001; Fornell & Johnson, 1996). Service quality is argued to be an antecedent of customer satisfaction (Cronin et al, 2000). This implies that delivering a high quality of service is the key to achieve customer satisfaction.

The most common definition of service quality is ‘customer’s perception of service excellence’ (Carvajal et al, 2011, p.13189). This definition implies that quality is determined according to customer’s evaluation of the level of service provided. As explained by Carvajal et al (2011), perceived quality is characterized by customer’s evaluation of the consumption experience that is based on customer’s expectation. The idea behind these definitions is that customers perceive service quality according to the current and past experience with service performance (Bhat, 2005).

However, the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction has been a controversial issue. There has been a debate in the literature regarding the distinction between the two factors as well as the direction of the relationship (e.g. Clemes et al, 2008; Brady et al, 2002; Cronin et al, 2000; Parasuraman et al, 1994). Parasuraman et al (1994) defined service quality as an attitude or a global judgment related to the superiority of the service and confined satisfaction to relate to a specific transaction. Nevertheless, Cronin & Taylor (1992) argued that service quality was an antecedent of customer satisfaction. Further, they reported that customer satisfaction had a stronger influence on purchase intention than service quality. Cronin & Taylor concluded that service organization should give a primary focus to total customer satisfaction programs. Similarly, customer satisfaction has been operationalized as a multidimensional construct (Sureshchandar et al, 2002). Sureshchandar et al (2002) argued that service quality and customer satisfaction have different constructs, at least from the customer’s point of view.

Different definitions of service quality were introduced in the literature however; all definitions focus on customers’ perspectives. They focus on the idea that customers are important dimensions of quality. However, the dimensions of service quality have been also subject to debate in the literature. For example, Parasuraman et al (1988) introduced five dimensions of service quality including tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. Rust & Oliver (1994) introduced three dimensions of service quality and concluded that the service product (i.e. technical quality), the service delivery (i.e. functional quality), and the service environment are critical dimensions of service quality. According to Berry et al (1994) service quality is a function of ten elements: listening to customers, providing reliable service, paying attention to basic service, understanding service design, surprising customers, recovering from service problems, practicing fair play, encouraging teamwork, listening to employees, and creating servant leaders. Four of these elements involve understanding customers’ expectations and perceptions and then meeting or exceeding them. These factors include: listening to customers, surprising customers, recovery from service problems, and practicing fair play (Rhoades & Waguespack, 2000).

Understanding the nature of service quality and its impact on customer satisfaction is significant in identifying the major problems of handling complaints in the airline industry. Different dimensions of service quality are important to evaluate the quality of complaints’ handling system.
3. Customer satisfaction in air travel industry

Air transport plays a vital role in moving people or products from one place to another, whether locally or internationally. Movement of goods, people, or freight from one place to another is significantly important. Any business, regardless of size or activity, should be customer focused (Daetz et al, 1995). It is argued that staying close to the customer as well as meeting customers’ expectations is the key to a successful business (Oyewole et al, 2007). Kotler et al (1996) argues that the successful business is proactive in its outlook. It anticipates customers’ needs and involves them in the early stages of decision making.

Air travel industry has been classified as a more intangible service industry (Clemes et al, 2008; Kloppenborg & Gourdin, 1992; Shostack, 1977). Although, the growth of the service sector offers new business opportunities, it provides a source of competitive threat for many service organizations (Ostrowski et al, 1993). This is true for air travel industry. There has been a high concern for the past few years in the sheer number of customers that airline industry has to deal with. Usually, airline industry deals with customers in a ‘direct contact mode’. This illustrates the importance of the relationship between the organization and its customers (Oyewole et al, 2007). However, customers are becoming more sophisticated and demanding. This increases the significance of a continuous evaluation to determine factors that satisfy or dissatisfy customers. As argued by Senn (1998), business success is not determined by the producer but by the customer. Accordingly, the airline industry has to be a dynamic one, responding to the ever changing demands of its customers (Gilmore & Pine, 2002).

Prior to 1978, airline industry was regulated by governments with respect to where and how airlines could operate (Piercy, 2001). Since 1978, because of the Airline Deregulation Act, the competitive structure of airline industry has changed (Levin, 1987; Bailey et al, 1985). Airline industries have been allowed to set their prices as well as to enter and exit the industry upon fulfilling insurance and safety requirements. As a result of this deregulation of airline industry, competition has become more intense. Further, customer satisfaction has become a major requirement to develop a competitive advantage that allows survival with the strong rivalry (Dennett et al, 2000).

Since 1990s, airline companies have been highly concerned with delivering a high level of service quality. Most airline companies started to offer different types of incentives to their customers such as the frequent flyer programs and using a computerized reservation system to build and enhance customer’s loyalty (Lee & Cunningham, 1996; Miller, 1993). However, what seems to make a real difference to customers of airline companies is the quality of service. As Ostrowski et al (1993) argue, when all airline companies have comparable fares and matching frequent flyer programs, the company with the better perceived service is the one that is likely to attract passengers – Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Importance of Effective Complaint Handling](image)

As shown in Figure 1, the system used to handle customer complaints is a major determinant of customer satisfaction that affects company’s reputation and image (usually through word-of-mouth communication). This draws attention to the extent to which Egyptair is successful in attracting new customers as well as retaining current ones through using effective complaints handling mechanism.
4. **Egyptair: Background**

Egyptair was founded in 1932 as Misr Airwork (Davies, 1964). It is a state-owned company with a special legislation permitting the management to operate as if the company was privately owned without interference from the government. The company is self-financing without financial backing by the Egyptian government. The company’s network extends throughout Europe, the Middle East, the Far East, Africa, Australia, India, and North America.

In 2002, Egyptair experienced a major corporate re-engineering as its structure was changed from a governmental organization into a holding company with subsidiaries. The move coincided with establishment of the Egyptian Minister of Civil Aviation and the government's ambitious strategy to modernize and upgrade its airports and airline. The airline was given the right to operate without interference from the government and the duty to do so without any financial backing by the Egyptian government.

In 2007, Egyptair was accepted as a member of ‘Star Alliance’. By then, Egyptair had already forged commercial and cooperative agreements with several members of the Star Alliance including Lufthansa, Singapore Airlines, Austrian Airlines, Thai Airways International, Swiss International Airlines, South African Airways, Turkish Airlines and bmi.

During 2009-2010, the airline announced a new venture with US Aviation Capital Group (ACG) and other Egyptian private and public shareholders to establish a leasing joint venture focusing on the Middle East and Northern Africa region. The new joint venture - named Civil Aviation Finance and Operating Leases (CIAF-Leasing) focuses on a narrow body aircraft.

Being a member of the ‘Star Alliance’ puts more pressure on Egyptair to meet international standards. An important standard of Airlines worldwide is the mechanism of handling customer complaints and the ability of the company to satisfy customers as well as maintain customer loyalty. Thus, it is significant to study the process of handling complaints in Egyptair. The aim is to identify possible problems in handling complaints and identify methods of improving complaints handling mechanism. This is significant to meet the international standards.

5. **Research objectives**

The aim of this study is enhance customer loyalty through improving the mechanism of complaint handling in Egyptair. Achieving this aim requires achieving the following objectives:

1. To understand the process of complaint handling in Egyptair.
2. To explore customer satisfaction with handling their complaints in Egyptair.
3. To demonstrate the main problems of the system of handling Egyptair customer complaint.
4. To identify possible methods of enhancing the process of complaint handling in Egyptair.

6. **Research methodology**

This study aims to explore issues related to the effectiveness of handling customer complaints in the airline industry. A single case study of Egyptair is used to achieve the research aim and objectives. A single case study research is useful in supporting the exploratory nature of the study. Further, it provides in-depth analysis and understanding of the issues studied including customers’ evaluation of complaints handling, staff commitment to complaints’ handling, and the mechanism of receiving and handling complaints in Egyptair. This in-depth understanding is essential to provide guidelines for a better mechanism of handling customer complaints.

Data were collected using four main sources: documents, questionnaires, and interviews.
Data collection was conducted at two stages. Stage one, was concerned with collecting data from customers (passengers). The aim was to investigate customer satisfaction with complaints handling. A randomly selected sample of customers (passengers) was asked a number of closed questions using questionnaires. Questions were related to the process of handling complaints and the extent to which it was meeting customers’ expectations. Questions were asked by the researcher and two assistants. Customers were randomly selected at the check in desk, as well as Egyptair office at Cairo airport. Customers were asked about the following:

- The methods of reporting a complaint.
- The attitude of customer complaints staff (e.g. interaction with the customer, attention given to the complaint).
- The speed of responding to a reported complaint (ensuring that the complaint has been received).
- The speed of handling a complaint.
- The steps/process of receiving a complaint (e.g. type of information customers are asked for).
- The steps/process of handling the complaint.

The second stage of data collection was concerned with the staff responsible for dealing with customer complaints. This included both managerial and non-managerial staff. The aim of the second stage of data collection was to clarify certain points that were reported by customers as well as to gain further exploration and understanding of the process of handling complaints in Egyptair. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with three managers and 10 employees. The interview focused on the following:

- Key points in handling customer complaints.
- The process of handling customer complaints in Egyptair.
- Staff satisfaction/evaluation of handling complaints in their company.
- The role of the interviewee (staff member) in handling complaints.
- Factors that influence customer satisfaction with regard to handling complaints.
- Measurement of customer satisfaction with handling their complaints.
- Selection of complaint handling staff.
- Training of complaint handling staff.
- Perception of the importance of handling complaints (i.e. to what extent is handling complaints important at different levels/departments of the organization?)
- Top management perception of customer complaints.
- Management commitment to achieving a satisfactory handling of customer complaints.
- Responsibility of handling customer complaints (i.e. who is responsible for handling customer complaints?).

Selection of the sample in the first and second stages of data collection was influenced by the nature of a case study research that uses an ‘analytical’ rather than a ‘statistical’ sample. The idea in a case study research is to choose respondents that best suit the nature of the research (Denscombe, 2000). Also, the size of the sample is highly influenced by the quality of data gathered (Saunders et al, 2007). The researcher should stop including further respondents when data collection reaches a stage at which data gathered from respondents is repetitive and nothing new is added (Yin, 2003).

7. Research findings

Studying the process of handling complaints in Egyptair shows that managing complaints is unsatisfactory to customers. All customers included in the study reported their dissatisfaction with one or more issue related to handling their complaints in Egyptair. Issues expressed by customers were further explored and deeply studied with managers and non-management staff. The aim was to compare customers’ views to staff views and to identify the main factors behind customers’ dissatisfaction. Interviews with Egyptair staff and customers reported a number of issues that are highly responsible for the ineffective mechanism of handling customer complaints. These issues are related to the way Egyptair views complaints and their impact on organization survival. These are explained below:

7.1 A lack of top management commitment to effective handling of customer complaints

Management attitudes are reflected in the conduct of employees and the performance of the company. An important finding of this study is related to the way top management perceives customer complaints. This influence the way complaints are handled in Egyptair. Unfortunately, top management perceives complaints as a subjective criticism of the
effort done by the company. This is reflected in the absence of an organizational philosophy that values customer complaints and an organizational strategy with clear procedures and rules of complaints handling. This was justified by the nature of the Egyptian personality that – as argued by top management- enjoys complaining and criticizing even if there is no real reason for the complaint. Thus, complaints are not seriously handled when they are related to Egyptian passengers (customers). However, complaints by non-Egyptians are differently perceived. Top management perceives complaints by non-Egyptians (especially American and European passengers) as serious ones. It is argued that these customers rarely criticize something, unless there is a strong reason for the criticism. Accordingly, top managers regard complaints from non-Egyptians as objective and have to be dealt with.

Nevertheless, complaints by valuable Egyptian customers are important. Valuable Egyptian customers are defined by top management as ‘business and first class passengers who are considered as a major source of income to Egyptair’. However, top management tends to be reactive rather than proactive in handling complaints. Customer complaints are not used as a tool for getting customers’ feedback nor improving operations. Also, once a complaint is handled, management and different members of the organization forget about it, i.e. they act as it has never occurred. Specifically, complaints are not considered by top management as a tool for improving service quality.

7.2 A reactive approach to complaints handling

Top management perception of customer complaints is reflected in the overall organizational philosophy of handling complaints. Across different levels of the company, complaints are handled using a reactive rather than a proactive strategy. A reactive strategy of complaints handling is reflected in number of issues. First, the main concern is to offer an immediate solution that seems to satisfy the complaining customer. Second, an analysis of the major causes and sub-causes of the problem is not a concern for management. Third, customer complaints are not considered an indication of service quality, rather they are perceived as subjective criticism. Fourth, feedback from customer complaints is not used to deal with the main causes of the problem and hence improve the quality of service. Fifth, there is a lack of a customer complaints database that can be used both for handling complaints as well as future improvement of the service.

It is arguable that handling complaints in Egyptair is not a strategic tool to improve the quality of service, improve customer satisfaction, and build and maintain customer loyalty.

7.3 Poor communication network reflected in a slow handling of complaints

Studying handling customer complaints in Egyptair reports a significant problem in communication that influences the effective handling of complaints. Communication presents a problem at different dimensions including communication between top management and lower levels of the organization, communication among different departments, and communication between the organization and its customers.

Communication from top management to different levels of the organization, and vise versa, is an issue that highly influences handling complaints. As discussed earlier, top management does not perceive complaints as a crucial issue. Complaints discussed with top management levels are not seriously dealt with unless they are related to a valuable or a non-Egyptian customer. This conveys a message to different organizational levels that customer complaints are not always a ‘priority’.

In addition, there is a lack of integration among different departments of the company. It is possible to argue that each department operates in isolation from other departments. Each department focuses on its own work regardless of the impact of other departments as well as its impact on other departments. There is a lack of the ability to view the organization as a whole and to relate different parts of the organization together. This is a strategic issue that does not only affect complaint handling however, it affects the quality of the overall company operations and hence service quality. Specifically, the lack of integration among different departments negatively influences service quality, customers’ satisfaction and loyalty.

Communication from the organization to customers, and vise versa, is another issue that negatively influences handling complaints. A common way of addressing a complaint by a customer is through personal relationships, i.e. to report the complaint to one of Egyptair staff that the customer knows personally. This implies that other customers will not be able to express their complaints. Further, it reflects unfair, biased and subjective way of dealing with customers, i.e. customers are not equally treated and not enjoying the same rights. Other methods of receiving complaints include telephone calls (only one line, with no answer most of the time), the complaint template onboard, a letter or an e-mail to the department of customer service. The issue here is that using any of these methods to report a complaint does not
8. A Process model for complaint handling in Egyptair

A major problem in Egyptair is the absence of a specific, clear path of complaints handling that is well-known, understood, and applied by different members of the company. A suggested process that facilitates an effective management of customer complaints involves the following steps (Better Practice Guide 1, April 2009):

1. Receive complaints.
2. Acknowledge complaints.
3. Assess complaints.
4. Investigate the complaint.
5. Respond to the complaint.
6. Follow-up.
7. Consider for system improvement.

![The Process of Handling Complaints](image)

**Figure 2.** The Process of Handling Complaints


### 8.1 Receiving complaints

The first step for effective handling of customer complaints is to have specialized staff and methods of receiving complaints. It is important for customers to know exactly how and where to express/submit their complaints. E-mail, telephone, or face-to-face communications are alternate methods of receiving complaints. Mail complaints through letters is not recommending in the case of Egyptair considering the long delivery time as well as the risk of losing the letter during delivery. What really matters is to make customers aware of these methods so that they can express their complaints easily.

### 8.2 Acknowledging complaints

What is more important than expressing the complaint, is handling it. When customers express their complaints and do not recognize an actual handling of it, they lose confidence in the company. This results in unsatisfied customers who usually shift to a competitive company. Quick acknowledgment of complaints is significant to raise customers’ confidence in the handling of their complaints as well as meeting customers’ expectations. Acknowledgement should outline the
complaint process and provide customer’s contact details. Also, it should illustrate the expected time needed to solve the problem, i.e. handle the complaint.

Sometimes, it is useful to use a written acknowledgement to avoid any misunderstanding from both sides (the customer and the company). This is crucial with electronic complaints. The electronic system can be programmed to send an automatic response to reassure the customer that the complaint was received and on processing. The automatic response should give the customer an email address as well as a complaint identification (ID) number to use in future contact. If the complaint is made by telephone and cannot be resolved immediately, it is important to explain to the customer how the complaint will be handled and to reassure by sending an email.

8.3 Assessing complaints

Early assessment of complaint is important for effective complaint handling. An initial assessment is significant and it is the responsibility of an intake screening unit. A further preliminary assessment by specialist staff is also useful, especially if the complaint is complex or difficult. As the nature of complaints differ widely, deciding whether priority should be given to dealing with one or more aspects of the complaint is necessary.

Assessment is important to clarify the nature of the problem as well as to clarify disputed factual or legal issues. Some complaints can be resolved by means of an explanation or an apology; others seek consideration of a decision, a policy, or a financial compensation. Based on assessment, priority should be given to one or more aspects of the complaint. For an airline company, as Egyptair, it is useful when handling complaints to ask customers (complainants) about their expectations, i.e. the outcomes they are seeking. In some cases, customers’ expectations are straightforward such as, an apology, a refund of money paid, or compensation. In other cases, customers do not have self-interest and complain to improve the welfare of the company. For example, they may desire to raise awareness of the problem or to ensure that other customers will not face the same problem.

8.4 Investigation

Acknowledging complaints is meaningless unless an effective investigation is done. Investigation aims to reach a fair, independent view of the issues raised by a complaint and provide an appropriate remedy of the complaint. It is important at this stage to consider three important principles: impartiality, confidentiality, and transparency.

Impartiality is significant to achieve fairness. It is vital to the credibility and success of complaint handling. Impartiality reflects two important issues. First, complaint handling staff should not be defensive about their company. Second, complainants should not be obliged to prove they are right or the company is wrong. A complaint should be handled with an open mind and objectively, regardless of the previous experience between the company and the complainant.

It is significant when handling a complaint to objectively evaluate the facts or evidence provided by the complainant. Special attention and additional investigation should be given to customers who have previously complained on different issues. Also, a complaint about a staff member should be investigated by a different person in the agency to avoid any type of personal bias. It is significant to guarantee that a customer will not face any type of negative treatment because of his/her complaint. This should be an important part of Egyptair policy.

Regarding confidentiality, customers’ privacy has to be respected and their complaints have to be investigated in private. A complaint should be investigated in private, and care should be taken when disclosing to others any identifying details of a complaint.

In addition, transparency implies that a complainant is entitled to know how a complaint will be handled and the outcome of the investigation. The complainant should be told about the steps in the complaint process and be given an opportunity to comment on adverse information or before a complaint is dismissed.

8.5 Response

Keeping the complainant updated with the outcomes of the investigation is highly influential in raising customers’ satisfaction and building an effective system of handling complaints. The more complex is the complaint, the better it is to respond in writing. An oral explanation is usually used if this is the method of communication preferred by the complainant or adopted in previous dealings.
The response should include a detailed explanation of all issues of the complaint. This aims to ensure the complainant that his/her complaint has been handled properly and to build trust between the customers and the company. Privacy should not be a barrier to transparency and accountability. Providing a remedy to the complaint should be taken into consideration. Potential remedies include a better or fuller explanation, an apology, changing decision, expediting action, and providing financial compensation.

8.6 Follow up

Complaint handling does not end by responding to the complaint; rather it continues to offer complainants the opportunity to seek review of how their complaints were handled. Follow-up is influential in building employees’ loyalty. One way to follow-up with customers is through a telephone discussion between the complainant and a supervisor of the person who handled the complaint. Giving priorities to complaints is useful in the process of follow-up. The more serious, critical, and complex is the complaint, the more significant is to follow-up. However, follow-up with complainants of routine, repetitive, or traditional problems is important as it conveys a message that the company cares for all customers with the same level. This is significant for building customers’ loyalty.

8.7 Use complaints for system improvement

Complaints might point to a systematic problem in the company. What makes a real difference between an effective and ineffective complaints’ handling system is whether these complaints are used to improve the system or not. An effective process of handling complaints does not end by resolving a customer’s complaint, rather it extends to using information gathered through the complaint to improve systematic issues.

A complaint might expose a need to improve the agency’s recordkeeping or a need for a better staff training and support. Also, a delay in resolving a complaint may suggest a problem with efficiency, integration among different departments, or integration between the company and other agencies that are jointly responsible for the subject of the complaint. A review of the company’s policies and procedures can be an important outcome of the complaint handling.

9. The way to a more effective complaint handling in Egyptair

Analysis of customer complaint handling in Egyptair reports that serious actions must be taken by the company to improve the mechanism of handling complaints. This is needed to convey a message to current customers that Egyptair has a culture that highly values customers and cares for their satisfaction. The impact of this message is to retain current customers and attract new one as well as enhance customer loyalty.

The following are important actions that Egyptair is recommended to take to improve the system of complaint handling.

9.1 Centralized handling of complaints

Establishing a department for the management of customer complaints is essential as a first step to improve the quality of service in Egyptair. This is important for raising customer satisfaction as well as maintaining customer loyalty. All complaints should be handled centrally through this department. This department is responsible for contacting other departments to take necessary actions to solve the problem. Follow up is also the responsibility of the complaint management department.

9.2 Build management commitment to complaint handling

Management attitudes are reflected in the conduct of employees and the performance of the company. Building management commitment starts from top management and extends to different levels of the organization. This might be achieved through implementing the following:

- The head of Egyptair (CEO) should be responsible for making complaint handling a priority for the company. One way to do this is to consider the standards of complaint handling as a major part of Egyptair business plan and service standards. Also, it can be achieved by receiving regular internal reports on the quality and timelines of complaint handling as well as using complaint information in improvement of service delivery.
• Supporting managers responsible for complaint handling to better to do their jobs. This could be done through recruiting suitable personnel and provide comprehensive training to complaint handling staff. Also, it is important to promote a strong internal network to enable complaint handling staff to work and be supported with others and to provide regular reports to other areas of the agency on issues arising from complaint handling.

• Top-level commitment to effective complaint handling establishes the motive and incentive for all personnel to strive for consumer satisfaction. Management’s role begins with the preparation of written policies and procedures for complaints handling. These policies and procedures must ensure fair and speedy complaint resolution. Effective and clear communication of these policies and procedures to all departments of the organizations must be ensured.

• Management role must extend to the regular review of complaint management policies and procedures. This review is necessary to improve complaint handling system, pay special attention to refining communication and coordination between complaint management and other departments.

9.3 Periodic customer survey

An organization that seeks customers’ satisfaction should not wait for customers to report a complaint, rather asking customers periodically about their satisfaction with service level is argued to be the key to maintain loyalty. Periodic surveys will reveal whether customers feel they have been well served by the complaint-processing procedures. Also, they explore customers’ assessment of different policies and procedures as well as their satisfaction with employees’ communication skills and face-to-face interaction. Feedback of customers’ surveys is significant for improving level of service quality, enhancing customers’ satisfaction, and maintaining loyalty.

9.4 Training & development of complaint handling staff

What is needed in Egyptair is not only staff training; rather staff development is a necessity. Development is a broader word than training. It aims to building employees’ personal skills rather than specific task issues. Training should focus on improving communication skills and heighten the staff awareness of customers’ needs according to different economic classes, educational background, social classes, and cultural background. What is needed for effective complaint handling system in Egyptair is a self-belief of different members of complaint-management department that the survival of this organization is based on customers. This belief should extend to all staff members to reflect the overall philosophy of the organization.

Staff of complaint-management department should be patient, articulate, and able to balance the interests of the company with the customers. Also, Egyptair staff should be able to communicate legitimate customer complaints to concerned management level to initiate and support any necessary modification in organizational policies and procedures.

9.5 Building a highly integrated system

Handling customer complaints in a way that satisfies customers and maintains customer loyalty requires an integrated system of different departments of the organization. A complaint handling system must be visible and accessible to facilitate serving customers. Integration and coordination between different departments is a necessity to maintain an effective complaint handling system. This integration will not be achieved without the commitment of top management. Top management commitment and support to complaints’ management is transferred to different levels of management and reflected in the development of an organizational philosophy that values complaints and recognizes that its management is the reason behind organizational survival. One way to spread this philosophy within the organization and convey it to customers is through using Egyptair posters and signs that contain a message reflecting the importance of customers and their complaints. These signs should be used in sales and service areas, on tickets and sales slips, in advertising, on tickets’ labels and covers, and in email messages.

9.6 Implementing complaint self audit checklist

This checklist aims to evaluate different departments and divisions with respect to effective complaint handling. It also
aims to check compliance evaluation to new policies and standards set by top management. This should be done regularly. It is recommended to do it monthly until the system is well established and understood by different members of the company. This is useful in system improvement through gathering information about factors that cause customers’ dissatisfaction. The checklist should be developed based on factors that cause customers’ satisfaction in general with specific focus given to factors that caused customers’ dissatisfaction with Egyptair. Past performance of Egyptair is important in identifying these factors. The checklist might be completed by senior members of the complaint team or by different members of the team.

10. Research limitations

This study introduces important results regarding the handling of customer complaint in the airline industry. However, the study was conducted in the Egyptian airline industry [Egyptair]. Thus, generalization of research findings makes it important to conduct the same study in other airline companies. Further, the study took place in Egyptair branch in Cairo. A further investigation of research issues in other branches in other Egyptian governorates (e.g. Alexandria, Port-Saied, Sohag) is important to generalize the findings of this study to Egyptair. Nevertheless, conducting the same study in other Egyptair branches may introduce new system problems and/or weaknesses.

Meanwhile, findings of the study are limited to Egypt. Generalization to other Middle Eastern countries requires conducting the same study in different countries such as Jordan, Lebanon, Iraq. A comparison between research findings in different Arab/Middle Eastern countries is expected to explore issues related to national culture and its impact on customer behavior.

11. Conclusion

Complaints offer businesses an opportunity to correct immediate problems. They frequently provide constructive ideas for improving products, adapting marketing practices, upgrading services, or modifying promotional material and product information. Research about customer satisfaction concludes that it costs more for an organization to gain a new customer than to retain an existing one. It is argued that customer satisfaction is significant to accomplish profit. Accordingly, customer satisfaction has become a major objective of service organizations. In most organizations, satisfying customers means less complaints and lower costs in handling failures.

The system used to handle customer complaints is a major determinant of customer satisfaction that affects company’s reputation and image. Air transport plays a vital role in moving people or products from one place to another, whether locally or internationally. Since 1990s, airline companies have been highly concerned with delivering a high level of service quality. However, what seems to make a real difference to customers of airline companies is the quality of service.

The aim of this study was to enhance customer loyalty through improving the mechanism of complaint handling in Egyptair. Studying the process of handling complaints in Egyptair showed that managing complaints was unsatisfactory to customers. This was because the way Egyptair viewed complaints and their impact on organization survival

A seven steps process of handling complaints is highly recommended to facilitate and improve the management of customer complaints in Egyptair. For a more effective complaint handling, Egyptair needs to apply a centralized system of handling complaints, build top management commitment, use periodic customer surveys, use complaint self audit checklist, and build an integrated communication system.

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Problems Involved in Improving the Quality of Life in Albania in the Years 2000 - 2012

Dr. Enriko Ceko

Abstract

There are some major issues to be clarified about the quality of life in Albania. The standard of living as reflected by GDP and GDP per capita do not give the full picture of the quality of life in Albania. The indicators of standard of living given by GDP and GDP / capita do not show the real quality of life. The purpose of this research is to identify the problems about defining quality of life through accounting and to improve the reliability of parameters to be used. The methods used in the research are gathering figures, information, data, comparison of data with other countries, revealing results, giving recommendations. The main conclusion of the research is that in Albania most of the indicators of quality of life are not reliable and cannot be used to draw conclusions about the quality of life index. Citizens’ level of education about the quality of life is low. Improving the quality of life is the basic and a major goal for a real guarantee on Albania’s integration into regional, European and wider structures.

Keywords: Albania, GDP, quality of life index, Indicators.

1. Introduction

The object of this study is to define problems involved in improving the quality of life in Albania for the period 2000 - 2012 and provide some ideas and thoughts about changing the current situation.

The aim of this study is to show level, procedures and deficiencies in the process of determining the quality of life in Albania. The method of conducting this study is the analysis of situation and on this basis drawing conclusions and recommendations, using official data and information from primary sources such as international and national institutions.

2. Methods

The methods used in the research are gathering figures, information, data, facts from (only) primary resources, processing them and making comparisons with other countries, writing the first draft of the paper, revising it several times, writing the final version of the paper, revealing conclusions and results, and under that base giving recommendations. The main hypotheses of the research were the question on the reliability of last years GDP figure of Albania. As per research the last years GDP of Albania is not a reliable figure, since there is not any evidence of proper calculation of this figure, because main sectors of the country’s economy are suffering problems and the measurement method for them is in question.

3. Results

In Albania there are no independent bodies that determine the level of quality of life and no reliable data on the level of quality of life, while there are some public bodies which measure its indicators and, which publish the figures and data for the country, economy, environment, health, population, etc, but these figures are not accurate. These figures have been used by international organizations for their reports, including those related to quality of life. Creating conditions whereby figures and data on quality of life in Albania come from independent bodies is an immediate requirement, increasing the reliability of figures and data on quality of life in Albania, to create conditions for a greater commitment to an improvement in quality of life and to make decisions for a fairer and more suitable performance and development.

4. Discussion

The Contemporary notion of quality of life is the exchange that follows the individual, and the level of personal choice that contribute to the creation of his personal identity amongst others. It was, for example, John Locke who promoted the individual’s natural rights for life, liberty and prosperity, including efforts to seek happiness as an individual order, stressing that humanitarian conditions include experiences of being human in social, cultural and personal context. This has to do with human nature and the conditions under which life is created and the human being passes the life (5).
Human needs are an amalgam of the concepts of survival, reproduction, security, vacations, understanding, participation, creativity, identity, freedom, and so on.

To achieve these, a certain level of human and social capital must be established. People have different perceptions of what constitutes quality of life and this is a function of their age, social class, and their particular conditions.

4.1 What is the quality of life

Quality of life relates to emotional state and personal life, but there are some other important aspects to have a good quality of life such as personal and collective safety, health, infrastructure, the availability of consumer goods, adequate housing, education, opportunities for vacation, and so on. Quality of life reflects the combination of environmental, political, social and economic factors. Quality of life factors are inter alia positive support for the individual, family, and community.

This concept is closely linked to the Meta-Motivation Theory of Maslow, who described the motivation of people who are self-actualized, designed to put forward, beyond their basic needs to achieve their full potential. People below the self actualization stage seek to achieve basic needs or have reached some, but not all of these goals during their lives. People who work towards meeting self actualization, want to reach their potential through Maslow’s Meta-Needs: List) supplementation (unity), excellence (balance, harmony), completion (end), fairness, complexity, simplicity, spontaneity, beauty, grace, individuality, convenience, truth (reality), autonomy (self efficiency), understanding (value), etc. (1).

4.2 The importance of measuring the quality of life

Real measurement of quality of life is of great importance because the quality of life indicators allow governments to understand and assess the actual situation against their objectives or with the quality of life in other countries. For this, a number of objective and subjective indicators have been used, most of them from different disciplines, including social – psychological indicators. These indicators, together with the concepts of freedom, human rights, happiness, etc, rather difficult indicators to measure have been seen and/or has been given special credence in the last ten years at international level.

Objective factors are measurable in economic and statistical terms, while subjective factors are dependent on data gathered from individuals that together make evaluation of these factors. Many of these important factors relate to data a real numbers but are also rely on peoples’ own perceptions of their general situation. This may be so, because (a) the perception of people may not be a reflection of reality, (b) it may be that even though the perceptions of people are real, those processing the data may not be able to draw accurate and clear conclusions about these perceptions and factors derived from them, etc.

Thus, the following may skew the results or lead to erroneous conclusions: wrong indicators, wrong interpretation, incorrect comparison (for example: comparison of purchasing power when the two countries have different market baskets), errors in data or in the method analysis, use of old data, inappropriate extrapolation, ignoring variability, and so on.

4.3 Models for measuring quality of life

Today countries around the world apply several models for measuring the quality of life, based on an interdisciplinary loop and data from sectors of the economy, education, health, environment, public safety. Some of these models are:

1. Quality of life indicators Calvert-Henderson
2. Mercer Index
3. Popsicle Index
4. Human Development Index
5. Canadian Welfare Index
6. Planet of Happiness Index
7. Quality of life index of The Economist Intelligence Unit
8. Quality of life index of International Living
Almost all these indices use measurements which take into account conditions and progress in terms of education, employment, energy, environment, health, human rights, income, infrastructure, national security, public safety, recreation, housing. Thus, social indicators of human welfare are worked out based on the results of the quality of life indices and show life expectancy and health. The aim would be to improve this through greater incomes. The assumption here is that health and positive experiences are universal concepts and are attained through the correct use of natural resources and other basic inputs.

A successful society supports the livelihood of individuals while minimizing the cost to the environment. These are the objectives and aims of Clinton's - "Green GDP" initiative (3) and Sarkozy's - "Calculation of the integrated environment & economy" initiative (14).

Based on these two initiatives, in June 2007, the World Forum "Statistics, Knowledge and Policy" - Measuring and Fostering the Progress of Societies, organized by the OSCE (9), has paid a great deal of time and attention and to measure support and the progress of societies. This has been achieved by improving policy making, democracy and the welfare of citizens, encouraging people to determine what constitutes progress, to identify best practices in measuring the progress by stimulating international debate on the progress and the creation of statistical capacity to understand the changes.

In November 2007, the European Community (EC), European Parliament (EP), Club of Rome, the OSCE (OECD) and WWF, the international conference undertook to determine which indicators should be used to measure progress and integrating these indicators into the decision-making process (10). In this conference the political decision was made to go beyond GDP indicators to include the use of time indicators, governance, psychological well-being, community vitality, community life, political stability, security and health at work, unemployment, freedoms, human rights and gender equality to name, etc.

4.4 Sustainable development and quality of life

Sustainability is a set of conditions and trends that may continue indefinitely. Sustainable development is a strategic process of constant change in terms of sustainability and has to do with standard of living, income, quality / validity of employment, inequality of classes, the percentage of poverty, quality / availability of housing, working hours be carried to purchase basic commodities, inflation, number of paid holidays per year, access to affordable quality health care, quality / availability of education, life expectancy, morbidity, cost of goods and services, infrastructure, economic growth, economic stability / political freedom political / religious, environmental quality, climate, security, etc.

While, quality of life, in addition to the above, relates to freedom from slavery and torture, equal protection before the law, freedom from discrimination, freedom of movement, freedom to live in the host country, the presumption of innocence, the right of marriage, the right to have a family, right to equal treatment regardless of gender, race, language, religion, political affiliation, social and economic situation, the right to privacy, freedom of thought, religion, free choice of employment, payment of fair and equal for equal work, the right to vote, holidays, the right to education, the right to human dignity, and so on. These are rights which have been important in Albania in the past and on which international organizations place great importance.

4.5 Quality of life, gross output and GDP per capita

One of the key indicators included in the calculation of the index of quality of life is the concept of national income, the distribution of income, level of informal economy. For these, it is essential that the data be reliable.

We note that accumulating wealth enables the individual and society to fulfill their aspirations. A society may not be democratic but if it is rich, the members of that society may be respected even though the family itself is not wealthy.

The gross domestic product is the sum of consumption expenditures, investment, government purchases and the value of exports minus imports. This shows the income and expenses with a material value because each seller has a buyer. Any money spent by a buyer is money earned by a seller. Economic growth is growth of production and consumption of goods and services. Economic growth means that the economy becomes larger, but not necessarily better. Economic growth might not produce happy people, healthy ecosystems, vibrant communities or opportunities for employment. Economic growth may not bring economic development. Growth of GDP does not mean that there is a justice or equity in income distribution among its citizens.
4.6 Quality of life index and the case of Albania

Since Albania is into the turning point of a transition phase, it is very important to understand that during the emergency phase the main issue was to raise revenues and not the quality of life, while in further stages of development it is the quality of life which is the main aspect of development. This is measured by the skills to make healthy humans, to have educated individuals who have self-respect and actively participate in areas of concern to the community and their future, increasing the ability of individuals to be free to choose which in turn leads to increasing prosperity.

Albania has made progress in relation to quality of life. Referring to the Human Development Index for the period 2000 - 2011 it ranked among 68 to 78, where previously it was on level 80 (15). According to The Economist Intelligent Unit (11), Albania has climbed 20 places and the country ranked 53 (2010), compared with 73 (2005 and 2007). In rankings of happiness, the Albanians, for the period 2000 - 2009 ranked 38th place (16). Even according to International Living (12) for the period 2009 to 2010, Albania has made progress, ranking the country 52. But these indices have been based mainly on gross domestic product and gross domestic product per capita, as well as on education and longevity.

The fact is that in the past ten years, Albania has had a positive economic growth, which for the period 2000 - 2008 has been averaging 6%, while for the last three years 2009, 2010, 2011 the average has been 3 – 3.5%. GDP per capita has increased to $7900 - 8000 in 2010, compared with $6300 of the period 2007 - 2008 (7).

Albanian GDP has been made up of approximately 20% from the agricultural sector, 20% construction sector, 30% the service sector (where tourism plays an important role), 10% the industrial sector, 10% transport and 10% from other economic activities (7).

For the agricultural sector regular increases in agricultural production of an average of 8% each year (1993 - 2010) have been reported. For the year 2011 the government has declared a greater increase, which makes agriculture contribute about 30% of GDP (See chart1). As a matter of the fact, it is very well known that agricultural production is subject of The Minimum Factor Theory (Liebig’s Law). In Albania, agricultural land has not been increased recently, it has 704,000 hectares left according to the figures, but in fact only 388,000 ha has been cultivated by farmers. Also, the number of farms has been declining. For the period 1998 - 2008 the number of farms which use fertilizers has declined and the amount of chemical fertilizer use has reduced by about 124,000 tons in 2001 to 103,000 tons in 2009. The Chemical fertilizers which have decreased in use are ammonium nitrate and super phosphate (4) (See Graphic 2 and Graphic 3).

As far as the tourism sector is concerned, in 2010 it was declared that about 3.5 million tourists (staying an average of 10 days) came to Albania and spent an average of 100 Euro per day. Roughly the same situation was reported for the summer tourism season of 2011 and 2012. When asked how the figure of the average daily expenditure of tourists had been there has been no response from official sources (8).

A quick analysis of these two sectors, agriculture and services (tourism) shows that the GDP figure is somehow not appropriate for calculating the index of quality of life in the case of Albania. Moreover, for other figures dealing with education, health, energy, etc, in Albania there is no any independent organization, willing or capable of calculating, processing and declaring figures which might challenge those figures of the Institute of Statistics, a government controlled agency.

For 2013, Albanian Government has declared an economic growth of about 4%, based mainly in agriculture and construction development. While in agriculture the situation remain the same with last years (explained above), the construction still is a problematic sector with a very low level of construction permits. Government has about 50 million Euro debts to construction firms for job done through civil works during 2008 - 2012, which has not been paid yet (16), while a GDP $9300/head/2012 has been declared by Prime Minister of Albania, during a meeting with journalists (17), an increase of about 20% compared with 2011.

There is a lack of data about health and environment sector, while several main economic indicators like unemployment are subject of grave debates between Government, which declares a level of about 13% in last 10 years and the opposite that pretends for a level of about 40%.

Also, the fact remains that the country lacks social cohesion, based on gender, economic and regional equality, and neither is there any great knowledge among the population at large for this concept (2).

5. Conclusions

1. In Albania there are no independent bodies that determine the level of quality of life and no reliable data on the level of quality of life.
2. In Albania there are some public bodies which measure its indicators and, which publish the figures and data for the country, economy, environment, health, population, etc.

3. Figures and data of governmental bodies are not accurate. This is especially true of GDP, which is still one of world’s most important elements for calculating the index of quality of life.

4. Figures and data obtained by governmental organizations have been used by international organizations for their reports, including those related to quality of life.

6. Recommendations

1. Creating conditions whereby figures and data on quality of life in Albania come from independent bodies: This is an immediate requirement.

2. Increasing the reliability of figures and data on quality of life in Albania will create conditions for a greater commitment to an improvement in quality of life and to make decisions for a fairer and more suitable performance and development.

3. The GDP figures do not reflect the standard of living and quality of life in Albania.

4. Quality of life in Albania is still a new concept amongst and across various sections of the population.

5. Albanian society, for various reasons, is still unprepared to deal with the issue of quality of life.

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Appendices

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<th>Happiness</th>
<th>Average Happiness</th>
<th>Happy Life Years</th>
<th>Inequality of Happiness</th>
<th>Inequality Adjusted Happiness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Possible ranges</td>
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<td>0 - 100</td>
<td>0 - 3.5</td>
<td>0 – 100</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.42</td>
<td>79</td>
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<tr>
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<td>35.2</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>38</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lowest score</td>
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<td>12.5</td>
<td>3.19</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Happiness in Albania. Current happiness: place on rank lists of Happiness in nations 2000-2009. UNDP
Graphic 1. Agriculture production increase in thousands of Lek (1996 – 2010), INSTAT

Graphic 2. Number of farms using chemical fertilizers and the amount of fertilizers used (1998 – 2008), INSTAT

Graphic 3. The level of superphosphat (blue) and ammonium nitrate (green) used by farmers in tons (1998 – 2008) INSTAT
Modernisation, Urban Renewal and the Social Cost of Development

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Abstract

Within the global development wave, urban renewal is seen as remedy to insecurity. Therefore, no reasonable government would leave strategic cities in disorder. But the question is: whose needs should first be addressed in acutely poor societies? Homelessness and hunger arising from demographic displacement and joblessness are the immediate result of urban renewal and gentrification. ‘The poor-indeed’ bear most of the brunt. Almost all natural cities in the world are first established by ‘the poor-indeed’. If modernization must force the poor out of their heritage, provision for resettlement should be made available, affordable and timely. Examining the displacements in places like Maroko, Lekki, other cities in Western Nigeria and the FCT, the welfare of the poor and menial workers, has been the social cost of development. With government acting as facilitators, the new occupants of the ‘hijacked cities’, though having the fund, neither have any link with, nor make any contribution to ease the resettlement plights of the displaced poor. The paper submits that development understanding in Nigeria has been elitist. It contends that with time, elite-fostering development that forsakes the plights of the ‘poor indeed’ will only serve to exacerbate insecurity. To be meaningful, development programmes for countries such as Nigeria where the wealth of the rich results from the poverty of the poor, should first seek to salvage the ‘poor indeed’ as current experience under some of the state governments.

Keywords: Urban renewal, modernization, gentrification, displacement, resettlement, the poor/the poor indeed, government, elites, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Africa is a region experiencing one of the fastest rates of urbanisation and associated challenges in the world, with sub-Saharan Africa leading the way. By 2030 Africa will have 760 million urban residents. By 2050 that figure is expected to grow to 1.2 billion (Siemens 2013). Nigeria, at present, is a typical theatre of urban transformation (Olukoya, et al 2012). Across Nigerian history of underdevelopment, the lot of the poor has been most negatively affected. Of all social classes, their interest has continued to be the opportunity cost of modernization. Due to elitist orientation of policies, the poor bear the brunt of development and their welfare shortchanged at the altar of political and economic opportunism. With Nigeria just attempting to foster democratic rule, it is envisaged that since the poor constitute the majority of the democratic social capital and expectedly the pillar of governance, their interest should count first in the planning and execution of development programmes. It is in the light of the above that this paper examines the recent efforts at modernization through urban renewal and its social cost in Nigeria.

2. Review of Literature

Historically, the policy of urban renewal and its associated gentrification, took place in ancient Rome and in Roman Britain the 3rd century, AD. One of the earliest urban renewal in the modern era took place in the United States with the federal urban renewal programme- the Housing Act of 1937, meeting the need of the lower-income group. In 1949 this was followed by a major rebuilding and displacement programme, which “allowed clearance of low-income housing and small buildings in downtown areas so that central business districts and public institutions could be expanded and enhanced” (sourced from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Public_housing_in_the_United_States on 6 July, 2013). This latter programme also initiated the first move towards provision for the assistance of persons displaced from their homes. Since then, every form of urban renewal has always resulted into displacement of people from their residential and economic base. It has always been the lot of the poor to be displaced.
Gentrification has been considered as a multi-faceted phenomenon. British sociologist Ruth Glass who coined the term “gentrification” in 1964 used it to describe the influx of middle-class people displacing lower-class worker residents in urban neighborhoods, noting that:

Many of the working class neighbourhoods of London have been invaded by the middle-classes — upper and lower. Shabby, modest mews and cottages — two rooms up and two down — have been taken over, ... all or most of the original working-class occupiers are displaced and the whole social character of the district is changed (Ruth Glass 1964).

It has been argued from US experience that as “the transformation of neighborhoods from low value to high value occur, it brings along with it the potential to cause displacement of long-time residents and businesses ... from a gentrified area because of higher rents, mortgages, and property taxes” (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2013). Apart from its demographic reconfiguration effect, urban renewal has also been found to have direct impact on economic and health, community's history and culture, and as well reduces social capital. As a politically charged variable, urban renewal and gentrification, according to Maureen Kennedy and Paul Leonard (2001), represent a “process by which higher income households displace lower income residents...”. The American urban theorist John Friedman proposed a seven-part theory that bifurcated service industry in world cities. His analysis, which was further expanded by Sakia Sassen (2001), Atkinson et al (2005) and Jason C. Booza et al (2006), composed of:

- a high percentage of professionals specialized in control functions and ... a vast army of low-skilled workers engaged in ... personal services ... [that] cater to the privileged classes, for those whose sake the world city primarily exists. The final three hypotheses detail (i) the increased immigration of low-skill labourers needed to support the privileged classes, (ii) the class and caste conflict consequent to the city's inability to support the poor people who are the service class, and (iii) the world city as a function of social class struggle (Friedman 1986).

This study finds relevance in the analysis of urbanization and gentrification by London and Palen (London and Palen 1984) to explain the roots and the reasons behind the spread of urban renewal and associated dynamics in Nigeria. London and Palen (1984) proposed a list of five approaches for analysis of urbanisation and gentrification: (1) demographic-ecological, (2) sociocultural, (3) political-economical, (4) community networks, and (5) social movements.

The first theory, demographic-ecological, attempts to explain gentrification through the analysis of demographics: population, social organization, environment, and technology. This approach was premised on the growing number of people in the 1970s, or the baby boom generation. In Smith’s analysis, the population boom, led to increase demand for housing as more affluent people having white-collar jobs wanted to live closer to work. The result was that the cities had to and were "recycled" to meet such demands (London and Palen, 1984). Hence the submission by Smith (1987) that gentrification is a structural economic process, and Ley’s explanation that gentrification is a natural outgrowth of increased professional employment in the central business district (CBD) were well reasoned. From this study, it was shown, just as it is presently occurring in Nigeria, particularly in state capitals and the federal capital territory, that the relationship between administrative activity and invasion by the upper class and displacement of the poor were positively correlated.

The second theory proposed by London and Palen, based on a socio-cultural explanation of gentrification, is also relevant in the Nigerian context. This approach argues that values, sentiments, attitudes, ideas, beliefs, and choices should be used to explain and predict human behavior, (London and Palen 1984). This analysis focuses on the changing attitudes, lifestyles, and values of the middle- and upper-middle-class who were becoming more pro-urban than before. These “urban pioneers” saw the inner-city as an “appropriate” and “viable” place to live, resulting in what is called "inner city chic" (London and Palen 1984). However, just as the political-economic variant will argue, for Nigeria, much of this displacement is facilitated with state resources (power, finance and communication) all of which lies at the disposal of the elites to the detriment of the poor. In Nigeria, the urge by the elites to live in the city is more compelled by the fact that, apart from the added automated boundless opportunities provided by the current techno-com-spheres, it is at the cities (seat of powers) that the wealth of the nation is administered and shared.

According to London and Palen, "powerful interest groups follow a policy of neglect of the inner city until such time as they become aware that policy changes could yield tremendous profits" (London and Palen 1984); aided by technological advances (Greer, 1962), once the inner city becomes a source of revenue, the powerless residents are displaced with little or no regard. In Nigeria, the influence of the so-called ideological successful urban pioneers, political-economic elites, land developers, speculators, and lending institutions who are staunch supporters of ruling governments...
have been noticeable in planning and enforcement of urban renewal. Displacement as experienced in Maroko and Lekki, most often for political, economic and administrative gains of the elites forsakes the interest of the poor.

As a back-up to the above, rent-gap theory describes the disparity between "the actual capitalized ground rent (land price) of a plot of land given its present use, and the potential ground rent that might be gleaned under a 'higher and better' use" (Smith 1987) as basis for urban renewal. Smith, in his analysis, has shown that:

Rent gap is fundamental to explaining gentrification as an economic process. When the gap is sufficiently wide, real estate developers, landlords, and other people with vested interests in the development of land perceive the potential profit to be derived from re-investing in inner-city properties and redeveloping them for new tenants. Thus, the development of a rent gap creates the opportunity for urban restructuring and gentrification.

This approach, also has found expression in some of the urban renewal programmes that have taken place in Nigeria. The case of Lagos and other state capital cities best illustrate this (Olawepo 2008:273-287). With dwindling revenues accruing from crude oil and the urge to increase internal generated revenues, state governments have resorted to reclaiming lands and properties hitherto neglected or under-utilized for higher economic use and returns. Revenue accruing from land use, usually referred to as tenement rates, has become a major source of added revenue to state governments in Nigeria. Response from the poor to urbanization and gentrification also varied in history and across spaces. While in some instances it propelled class conflict sometimes involving vandalism and arson targeting the property of the elites; and in others, establishment of inclusionary zones to accommodate the interest of the poor. With the low level of education and right advocacy, regrets and lamentations by the poor has largely been the order in Nigeria.

Reviewing the existing order on urbanization in Nigeria, analysts (Sani, Green, Udenta, Ugwu and Uyanga), have shown that urban development, renewal and administration are connected to several networks of political institutions, socioeconomic services, and are urban-based, affecting “the whole range of governmental organization and processes” (Green 2011). Except in unique circumstances, this often present some profound goal conflict (Udenta 2011). According to analysts, urban policies should strengthened public institutions which deliver services such as transportation, employment, health, education, sanitation rather than those that enable commodity producers to accumulate more capital (Idise 2010; Ugwu 2011; Uyanga 2011). They should also be:

designed to tackle the problems of urban centers and small urban centres side by side with rural development and government institutions are expected to conform to the national development strategy that are intended to achieve specific objectives (Cohen 2011).

In sum, comprehensive and coherent urban policies must clarify the appropriate role for the government with a focus on the imperative to improve the quality of both indigenous and new urban institutions and achieve minimum welfare of the poor. Non-achievement of these objectives, particularly in Nigeria, has been traced to poor, misplaced and ill-conceived conception and delivery of programmes by governments informed by the disguised ‘motives of the cult of elites’ for capital accumulation and self-aggrandizement.

While most approaches, planning and execution framework sees urban renewal or gentrification from the elitist viewpoint, the current experience in the State of Osun in Nigeria seem to offer some new and positive insights. From observation and analysis of the Osun case, urban poor, though more inconvenienced with structural changes, also appreciates and values the social, economic and infrastructural advantages of urban renewal. This is more so when certain cushion effects in form of compensation, no matter how little is provided for their immediate indemnity. Thus, from this experience, one can then be speculating a kind of ‘interclass mutual-needs and appreciation approach’ to urban renewal and development.

3. Historical development of urban renewal and development in Nigeria: a focus on the case of The State of Osun in Western Nigeria

Historically, urban and social segregation policy in Nigeria dates back to the colonial dispensation- Colonial Europe Reservations Policy of 1902, the Township Ordinance of 1917, the Nigerian Town and Country Planning Ordinance of 1946, and was later followed by the National Housing of 1972, the National Housing Policy of 1991 and the Millennium Development Goals adopted by Nigeria (Ugwu 2011; Uyanga 2011). At independence, cities that serve as seat of political administration across different levels of government, necessarily, had to witness some expansion and
infrastructural enhancement. Ever since then in Nigeria, one form of urban re-planning and renewal has been the hallmark of governance.

Three factors could be identified to have contributed greatly to urban renewal in Nigeria. One, creation of new sets of states through territorial disaggregation, two, election of new party and set of elites into government, and three, need to embark on major environmental and infrastructural development, such as road, rail construction, drainage, airport, markets. However, in Nigeria, just as we observed in rent gap analysis, very often, these developments occur bringing along with it some consequences both positive and negative. On the positive side are: better planned cities, solution to traffic congestion, better environment, better health for the people, reduction in travel times, attraction of new businesses, and overcoming of disorderly and spontaneously created shanties that poses serious security threat to the people and the social systems. On the negative, we have: loss of homes by the poor who are usually neither compensated nor rehabilitated, loss of jobs, inconveniences associated with increased distance between the new found home and the place of work, increased cost of transportation and travelling time for school children, displacement of menial workers, loss of socioeconomic ties by the poor, outright loss of livelihood by some of the ‘most poor’ families. While in some instances, rehabilitation have occurred in the past, most of such movements across great distance, apart from housing, rarely consider other factors, such as disconnection with their established means of livelihood (official employment) and other social and economic activities, that the displaced individuals required for their continued upkeep. The truncating effect of such displacement lasts for so long on their lives with some parents dying earlier than expected as a result of stress and unending frustration leaving under-aged and dependent children.

Apart from when new cities are created as an aspect of modernization and ‘national front office’ to disguise national poverty, such as Nigeria experienced in the mid-70s with FESTAC 77, and movement of the Federal Capital to Abuja in the early 90s, most other attempts at bringing about city and urban renewal and re-planning entails untold hardship for the poor. One case in point was the displacement of people at Maroko and Lekki in Lagos in 1992. Agreed these lands might have been acquired by government, but most inhabitants of Maroko and Lekki still had to acquire these lands from the traditional land owners, having to pay sum substantial amount for the land and also to erect houses that were used as dwellings and for businesses of various types. What was known of Maroko was that most of the inhabitants were only given notices to evacuate themselves from these vastly developed and densely inhabited areas. Neither compensation nor all-embracing resettlement alternatives were made available to the inhabitants before bulldozers moved in to destroy their houses and businesses within a period of one week in 1992 only to be gathering whatever was left of their households from the rubbles after their houses and businesses have been pulled down by bulldozers.

Olu Sule noted:

*Perhaps the only way to avoid the problem of a reduced housing stock in any urban renewal project, thus curbing the incidence of the spiral process of slums among the poor, as the Maroko example has demonstrated in Lagos, is by building new dwelling units for relocatees before demolishing their present homes. (Olu Sule 1990).*

Compounding the plight of the ejected inhabitants of Maroko and Lekki areas, the state institutions that midwived between the ejected occupants and the new occupants, did little or nothing to connect the former to the latter for resettlement aid, or compensation.

In the light of the above, and coupled with the fact that Nigeria, from the onset of the ongoing democratic dispensation in 1999 has witnessed another rounds of massive urban renewal and re-planning with its massive negative implication being more on the poor, it becomes compelling for analysts and social critics, to take interest in studying the effect of modernization as they occur on the lives of the poor. Just as it happened in Maroko, the ongoing urban face-lifting in the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) Abuja and other urban centres (Olukoya, et al 2012) are also not without their tales, as houses are being demolished, businesses (mostly of the poor people) terminated or disrupted and families made homeless.

4. An exception from the uncaring models of urban development and modernization in Nigeria: the ongoing experience in The State of Osun in Western Nigeria

As will be highlighted hereafter, while development having bearings on environment, particularly developed and functioning cities cannot occur without people still counting some costs, the ongoing urban development and renewal in The State of Osun seems to be adopting measures aimed at averting many of the negative consequences associated with urban re-planning and renewal on ‘the poor indeed’ in Nigeria. The state government is adopting multidimensional
measures to cushion the associated negative effects of urban re-development on the poor. Some of the measures that have so far been taken with public awareness are:

4.1 Attempt at decentralized and state-wide development of socioeconomic infrastructures

Realizing that massive urban renewal will necessitate some socioeconomic displacement of the poor, the state government is making serious effort at developing across the states, socioeconomic facilitating infrastructures, that could enable people that may be displaced from one form of business or another in the capital city to return to any of their preferred zones within the state to continue with their lives with less difficulties. On this line, while market and business districts are been created across the state, trading activities constitutes logistic problem, such as traffic congestion, security risks, health hazards, and violation of esthetic order of the capital and other cities within the state are been relocated to alternative sites. As step, towards facilitating state-wide socioeconomic interconnectivity and development, existing roads and markets are being rehabilitated and constructed across the state.

4.2 Compensation for victims of modernization

Apart from the readiness of the state government to compensate bonafide landlords whose houses or properties may be affected by the ongoing expansion of the existing road network within the state capital and other major cities within the state, the state government is confirmed (by 66 percent of respondents) from a survey conducted among those at the lower rungs of the society in April 2913 to be paying some compensation to cushion the effect of their temporary socioeconomic dislocations.

4.3 Vocational training for youths and categories of people

To cater for those who may suffer the loss of one form of business opportunity or another as a result of the development, people are being trained and retrained for some other jobs in areas that have through careful planning and analysis been identified not to have been fully tapped and that are needed for overall socioeconomic development of the State and the nation.

4.4 Increased state-facilitated agricultural training and activities

Towards boosting agricultural production, on-the-farm training are currently been planned for existing farmers, while youths and unemployed school-leavers and graduates are being encouraged and trained in various areas of agriculture.

4.5 Increased emphasis on functional education

Also, as a way of reducing social menace and unrest, greater emphasis is being given to functional education. This is signified with building of more schools and provision of Opon Imo (Tablet of Knowledge) across the state just as emphasis is given to better technical education to promote self-employment after school.

4.6 Health-related services

Apart from efforts at improving environmental conditions across the state, at present, the state government supplies medications to public hospitals which are given to patients free of charge to cover at least the treatment of primary ailments. Also, while there is a considerable increase in road repair and maintenance across the state, emergency services are provided with state-run ambulances and paramedics on most highways to provide first aid to accident victims.

Of all the strides so far recorded by the Osun State Government, one stands out as exception from the history of development in Nigeria. Response to various qualitative survey questions conducted in the month of April 2013, using purposive random sampling among people in the selected areas where there has been some measured demolition of houses, shops and business centres within Osogbo metropolis, the capital of The State of Osun, were quite revealing of public and interclass appreciation of the programme. The questions covered five major themes: (1) Effect of the ongoing urban renewal programmes (about 89 percent of respondents claimed they were affected one way or the other by the
ongoing programmes), (2) Ameliorative measures (not less about 66 percent of respondents claimed to have received some compensation), (3) Information flow (71 percent claimed they were given prior information about how they were likely to be affected), (4) Policy and General Advice, (Up to 49 percent of the affected respondents want the Government to continue with such programmes) and (5) General Assessment of the programme (over 70 percent of the affected respondents sees the development as good)

From the above abridged simple percentage analysis, while there are negative views, which altogether, is not unexpected for most government programmes, it is evident that the ongoing urban renewal and transformation in the state of Osun is a popular programme. This supports our proposition for ‘interclass mutual needs and appreciation approach’ to development insisting that both the rich and the poor can agree on certain programmes of development that caters for their mutual needs and interests not withstanding differing degrees of inconveniences.

While, the survey records a considerable acknowledgement of compensation, it is noted that not all affected victims were compensated. Also, seeming equalization of most categories of compensation failed to provide opportunity for determining and awarding commensurate indemnity for victims. It is noted from this research, where the government do not suffer from the usual disease of disguised ‘motives of the cult of the elite’, that the Government of the State of Osun is striving towards improved mass-oriented economic development of the state. The end-product will be historically unparalleled achievements that will further endear the government and its programme to the people. With measured inconveniences, there is a general acceptance and appreciation of the ongoing transformation. While there are genuine critical views (see Nigerian Tribune online, Osun and the challenge of urban renewal, sourced from: http://tribune.com.ng/index.php/features/51395-osun-and-the-challenge-of-urban-renewal on 22 June 2013), some are suspected to have been more influenced by either none or inadequate receipt of compensation, and more importantly, by political affiliation. On the whole, this experience can best be described as ‘progress assured with the least possible unavoidable pains’.

5. Urban renewal, welfare of the poor and further steps to mitigate social cost of development: lessons from the State of Osun

While as in the case of The State of Osun, as it has never been the case before now in Nigeria, certain positive measures have been adopted to cushion the effect of urban renewal on the poor, other measures considered necessary but yet not taken by governments in Nigeria generally to reduce the social cost of development, particularly as it related to the poor, includes the following:

- Government land laws should be made clear and public awareness constant.
- As observed in the case of Maroko, Lekki and their adjoining towns, networking the displaced and the new acquirees of the recovered plots should be given consideration.
- In this modern era, there should be dispassionate analysis of public urban needs. Increased official attention should be given to city and national planning to avoid unnecessary social disruptions.
- Unsuspected demographic estimation should precede every urban renewal to estimate the ‘opportunity social cost’ of development and forestall situations in which genuine victims are not covered in the administration of commensurate compensation benefits.
- Allocation and enjoyment of rehabilitative amenities such as market stalls, shops, farm plots and others should be liberalized and no form of cartelization should be encouraged. Beyond the roles of house rental agents, tenants/rental advocacy should be encouraged. This will help prospective tenants (dwellings and businesses) to ascertain the legal status of the properties in which they seek to live or establish their businesses.
- Demographic statistics should in addition provide facts about the categories of victims and their possible alternate negative predispositions- prostitution for homeless and jobless girls, crimes for boys, shock and health hazards for adults and aged, separation and break-up for average poor families and homes for official proactive mitigating measures.
- Following the example of The Redeemed Church, where existing land facilities in established areas are exhausted, rather than forcefully eject those that have naturally and inadvertently evolved with existing fully grown public and business centres, government should embrace the idea of establishing new towns and business zones in less or rarely inhabited virgin lands.
6. Conclusion

Urban renewal is a welcome development in every modern society. It however should be realized that to promote genuine development, every public programme should embrace 'interclass mutual needs and appreciation approach' embedding some measures of assured benefits for all categories of people. Just as the spiral effects mostly affect the poor in the long run, their welfare and commensurate programme of assistance should always be a constant on the mind of the governing elites and on the agenda of government as the representatives of the people. This becomes necessary as the poor is, in the generality of the developing world and sub-Sahara Africa, the harbinger of democratic rules and assured platform of its social capital and sustenance.

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US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention[12]

Marketing Health and Social Marketing the Importance of Public Health Campaigns to Create Public Awareness in Turkey

Prof. Dr. Emrah Cengiz
Dr. Esma Gültüvin Gür Omay

Abstract

Every year globally, public health campaigns are launched. These public health campaigns carry the aim of improving health behavior and creating public awareness on health. In the globalised world, health marketing can be defined as delivering health information through consumer-based strategies in order to promote public awareness. In this paper, we analyze the effectiveness of these campaigns to change health behavior. In Turkey, smoking and tobacco use has been a very serious health problem since years. In this context, The Ministry of Health launched a social marketing campaign in order to create public awareness against smoking. This campaign has been a successful campaign to create public awareness against smoking and tobacco use. In this paper, our purpose is to analyze the campaign against tobacco use of The Ministry of Health to what extent it created public awareness and the success of the campaign.

Keywords: social marketing, public awareness, public health campaigns against tobacco use, Turkey.

1. Introduction

Globalisation brought new perspectives on societal level. The changing nature of social life and difference in life styles made it necessary to adopt new strategies. Marketing is one of those key areas in developing new strategies. The introduction of social marketing made it possible to achieve social ends on issues like health. Social marketing began to comprise the social causes. Because campaigns that are launched without taking the market conditions into consideration remained ineffective. So, social marketing developed sophisticated methods to achieve ends in social causes. Every year public health campaigns are launched to create public awareness and to achieve social ends in public health marketing. In Turkey, the campaigns on smoking and tobacco use remained ineffective until the Ministry of Health developed a successful social marketing campaign on smoking and tobacco use.

2. Health marketing: A General Outlook

The globalisation marked a itself as a phase when dramatic changes took place in every aspect of life such as life styles, personal habits etc. As the techniques and scientific developments in health improved, the shift from curing infections to preventing chronic diseases started. Because the globalisation made a drastic change in lifestyles starting from 1970s onwards. Chronic diseases increased due to changes in life styles and personal habits. Therefore; preventive health and public health gained importance. Based on that, being physically active, quitting smoking and drinking, staying away from stress, dieting, getting preventive health services become key elements in staying healthy. Educating public and improving public health gained ground in the concept of health. While educating the public seemed an important goal, the ways to achieve it remained a problem. Public health experts looked in the area of marketing and communication to develop effective programs to implement public health education programs.

In the field of marketing, it all started when the famous question was asked by Wiebe “Why can’t you sell brotherhood like you sell soap?” He argued that when it came to the concept of selling social causes the strategies developed could be feeble. Social campaigns that are conducted without taking market conditions into consideration are rather ineffectual. He analyses four social campaigns and the reasons to their success or lack of success. In his article “he found that the more the conditions of social campaign resembled those of a product campaign the more succesful the social campaign would be” (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971: 3). This marked a shift from classical marketing techniques where commodities are simply being sold and enlarged the area of marketing. The marketing industry began to develop more sophisticated methods and techniques to meet the demands of differentiated markets where the concept of ‘product’ is broadened to include social issues as well. Therefore, the role of the consumer is foregrounded when the social issues are included in the marketing process, giving the field of marketing new areas of study such as social marketing.
3. What is Social Marketing?

In marketing literature one of the popular areas of discussion is social marketing. The reason why social marketing gained popularity is that there is an increasing degree of social responsibility in the societies world wide. Because the needs and interests of the societies change day by day. Social marketing exceeds one dimensional marketing and it is rather related with the multi faceted levels of marketing. The term social marketing is defined in the dictionary of American Marketing Association as follows;

"1. (environments definition) The branch of marketing that is concerned with the use of marketing knowledge, concepts, and techniques to enhance social ends, as well as the social consequences of marketing strategies, decisions, and actions. 2. (social marketing definition) Marketing designed to influence the behavior of a target audience in which the benefits of the behavior are intended by the marketer to accrue primarily to the audience or to the society in general and not to the marketer. Comment: Social marketing is sometimes confused with social impact of marketing. Social marketing can be carried on by for-profit, public, and private nonprofit organizations or by individuals. Examples would be attempts to influence individuals to stop smoking (by the private nonprofit American Cancer Society) or report crimes (by the public U.S. Department of Justice). An attempt of one friend to influence another to go on a diet is also social marketing’ (www.marketingpower.com).

The term ‘social marketing’ is introduced by Philip Kotler in 1971. Philip Kotler and Gerald Zalman in their article titled “Social Marketing: An Approach to Planned Social Change” defined social marketing as “the design, implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product, planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research. They introduced social marketing as the ‘promising framework for planning and implementing social change’ (Kotler and Zalman, 1971: 3) which indeed opened new areas of study in designing social change. In this case, the marketing principles and techniques are used to influence social change. In order to do this, the target audience is aimed by using marketing techniques to accept or change behavior for the sake of the society. As noted by Kotler et al.,

“Social marketing is the use of marketing principles and techniques to influence a target audience to voluntarily accept, reject, modify or abandon a behavior for the benefit of individuals, groups or society as a whole” (2002: 5).

Although the same techniques are used there is a specific difference between social marketing and commercial marketing. Social marketing differs from commercial marketing in the scope of their gains as one is financial the other is societal or individual (Kotler et al., 2002: 8). It is also argued that there is a kind of poetic justice in social marketing by borrowing the techniques used in commercial marketing used to promote cigarettes, alcohol and other harmful products and using them again for the benefit of society(Walsh et al.,1993:107).

Hence, Kotler et al. argues that by social marketing they are selling a behaviour change that is voluntary and this behavior change brings benefits to the society on the whole,(2002 :5-8) This behavior change is tried to be obtained by using methods drawn from marketing theory as well as behavior theory, psychology and communication theory. One of these methods include using 4Ps of marketing that include place, price, product and promotion in aiming behavioral change in the society. The integration of the 4Ps i.e the marketing mix is the important element in a social marketing campaign. Because it is the ‘mix that matters most’ (cited from Bill Smith by Kotler and Lee, 2009:185).

Social marketers use 4Ps to reach their targeted behaviors. The 4Ps should start to be developed with the order of product, price, place, promotion. Because each follows in sequence the other. The mix of the 4Ps creates a synergy together that makes a successful campaign possible. The product should be clearly defined to make the strategy successful. The product can be divided into three sub categories such as the core product (the benefits the audience will experience), the actual product (the desired behavior), the augmented product (helps perform the targeted behavior). Price includes the prices that target audience should pay to achieve desired behavior change such as time effort, energy or physical discomfort. Place is where the audience will obtain services related to the campaign. Lastly, promotion includes effective communications to tell the audience the scope of the project and various communication channels are used such as advertising public relations, events sponsorships, and personal selling and word of mouth. Media channels they can be online or offline, or both (Cheng et al, 2011:10). In this respect, online media includes online material from web sites to blogs and and offline media includes the print media and radio and television as well as billboards and other material related to it.

As mentioned earlier, social marketing tries to make behavioral change in the audience by selling behavior to them. The four major areas that social marketing focuses on are; health promotion on issues such as smoking and
tobacco, drinking, obesity, eating disorders, cancers etc., environmental protection on issues such as air pollution, water conservation, litter, forest destruction etc., safety on issues such as domestic violence, drinking and driving, gun storage etc, community related issues such as voting, literacy etc. (Cheng et al, 2011:3). Social marketing campaigns concerning public health is more concentrated when compared to other fields of social marketing because public health issues affect the society as a whole concerning health.

4. Social Marketing to Improve Public Health

Social marketing paved the way in solving health problems by providing powerful tools to public health. International public health campaigns were launched in the early years of social marketing in third world countries on issues like sanitation, immunization, family planning, nutrition etc. (Walsh et al, 1993: 107). In 1980s WHO (World Health Organization) started to use the term social marketing and began to promote social marketing in areas of public health and in public health problems world wide. With the incorporation of all the strategies of social marketing the public health practitioners found an effective way of promoting health through out the world. Social marketing is used and developed for the campaigns for smoking, drug use, preventing chronic diseases, infant mortality etc. Therefore, public health promoters found an effectual method of changing health behavior.

When we talk about social marketing for health we see it is not only health communication. It is the synergy that surrounds all those strategies:

“Social marketing is widely used to influence health behaviour. Social marketers use a wide range of health communication strategies based on mass media; they also use mediated (for example, through a healthcare provider), interpersonal, and other modes of communication;and marketing methods such as message placement (for example, in clinics), promotion, dissemination, and community level outreach. Social marketing encompasses all of these strategies” (Evans, 2006: 1207).

As social marketing encompasses all of those strategies, it is obvious that social marketing is a dynamic and continuous process as shown in Figure 1. But it should be noted that social marketing comprises many elements and when all those elements come together social marketing becomes meaningful.

Figure 1. Social Marketing Wheel

![Social Marketing Wheel](image)


The six stages of social marketing can be summarized as follows; firstly plan strategy is developed, and then channels and materials are selected to develop behavior change along with the materials and pretesting, implementing the campaign and assessing the effectiveness of the campaign whether it creates public awareness or not such as giving up smoking (behavior change) and lastly getting feedback to reinforce the programme. The social marketing wheel is in the shape of an eternal circle one stage giving way to the other (Evans, 2006: 1207). This shows the structure of social marketing that supports development and betterment in the society. Because feedbacks are important keys in specifying the strategies that follows. In short, it can be suggested that social marketing is in harmony with Kaizen philosophy.
On the other hand it has to be kept in mind that a successful social marketing campaign lies in the utilization of different formats of communication and media usage of media channels. They cover a great range of formats and channels from advertising to sponsorships and personal communication. As Wakefield puts it;

“Media campaigns can be of short duration or may extend over long periods. They may stand alone or be linked to other organised programme components, such as clinical or institutional outreach … Multiple methods of dissemination might be used if health campaigns are part of a broader social marketing programmes”(2010: 1261).

If media campaigns are a part of the social marketing programmes, broad dissemination methods and channels and formats should be used by the social marketers. But when increasing the number of communication formats and the media channels, it shoul be noted that the ‘integration of these channels to achive a one sight - one sound effect’ is rather important. The twofold integration efforts include to ‘orchestrate the delivery of messages into the marketplace’ and to 'apply the strengths of each communication discipline or technique so that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts and the optimal message impact is achieved’ (Cited from Schultz and Schultz by Cheng et al., 2011: 10). When these ends are achieved we can refer to a successful media campaign that is the part of social marking programme.

5. A Success Story of Social Marketing: The Anti- Tobacco Campaign in Turkey

Turkey had a serious problem of smoking and tobacco use prevailing in its adult population during the recent years but could not overcome this problem and failed to complete legislations concerning tobacco control. It had the highest tobacco use prevalence levels in Europe and was home to tobacco growers (Adams, 2012). All these aspects contributed to a society of ill-health suffering from chronical diseases. According to Nazmi Bilir, professor of public health, tobacco use climbed among Turkish population with the arrival of ad icons and their counterparts in the 1980s. The next two decades saw the doubling of tobacco use with sales going up to 98 billion Turkish Lira (US$ 55 billion) to more than 178 billion Turkish Lira (US$ 100 billion) in 2000. Therefore, this brought the toll of the five million patients hospitalized in Turkey in 2000, 20 % of which had a smoking induced disease such as cardiovascular conditions and ‘accounted for more than half of all hospital deaths’(Adams, 2012).

Although the first tobacco control law was signed in 1996 and the parliament approved World Health Organization Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHO FCTC) in 2004, nothing seemed to change when it was the year 2006:

“According to a government survey of tobacco use conducted in 2006, some 33% of adults were daily smokers, including just over half of all men and approximately 16% of women aged 18 and over. In a Gallup poll conducted in 100 countries the following year, two out of three Turkish men said they had lit up the day before they were surveyed, as did one out of three women. That was, Gallup said, “by far the highest incidence reported”. It also confirmed a stereotype common to countries across Europe: that to smoke heavily was “to smoke like a Turk” (Adams, 2012).

Tobacco use had the highest incidence in Turkey throughout the Europe in 2006. On May 19 2008 the law passed that banned the use of tobacco in indoor spaces. A national media campaign was launched to increase public awareness against smoking and tobacco use. A unit established in the Ministry of Health to carry out the national tobacco control programme and action plan. The slogans “Smoke–free Air Zone” and “Save your Air” were developed for the campaign. Increasing awareness on second hand smoke was also aimed. A uniting approach was aimed for the media campaign. A web site was designed to inform the public against tobacco use and second hand smoke. The ministry of Health along with WHO, UNION, CTFK helped to increase public awareness against tobacco use. Media advocacy was sought to spot broadcasting, and billboards and posters, print media magazines and news papers. A support line was established for smokers which is called “Alo 171 - Ouit line” (www.havanikoru.org.tr).

As noted by Dağlı, media was not very keen on helping this campaign until the legislation was enacted:

“Yet, it wasn’t only the industry Dağlı and colleagues were up against. “We were fighting the media, too”, she adds, citing newspapers’ reliance on revenue from tobacco advertising as the main reason for their opposition to the 1996 law. “In a way, we were actually promoting tobacco when we held a press conference because the newspapers would call the tobacco companies and say ‘Hey these health guys are organizing a meeting, do you want to buy an ad on the same page?’ And the next day there would be a few lines about us next to a giant Marlboro man” (Adams, 2012).
As it clearly shows from the citation noted above, a social marketing campaign was needed in order to integrate all parts of the society in the campaign and media advocacy was also needed to orchestrate all the messages delivered to the public.

The first phase of the campaign covered the dates May 14, 2008 - June 18, 2009. By the Smoke-free Air Zone Campaign, a large public support was aimed. In order to promote public awareness, the support of opinion leaders, artists, and political party leaders were asked. The second phase covered the dates June 18, 2009, and February 2010. Because the law would comprise the restaurants, cafes, bars in July 19, 2009, the concept of %100 Smoke-free Air Zone was developed. The emphasis was made on the harms of second-hand smoke and display posters were used drawing attention to the issue. The third phase November 2010 focused on the deadly results of tobacco use; and smokers are forwarded to National Support Line Alo 171 to seek help to quit smoking. In the campaign, role models, opinion leaders, and political leaders acted as the spokespersons of the campaign reinforcing the message of unity and support.

When the strategies used in the campaign are examined, it can be noted that it is a social marketing campaign which covers the strategies used in a social marketing campaign. Turkey used the lessons learned from other successful social marketing campaigns. In this campaign, in order to achieve public health goals, we see successful development of the marketing mix. The core product in the campaign is the benefits of being a non-smoker and not being exposed to second-hand smoke. The actual product is to reject smoking and reject being exposed to second-hand smoke. The augmented product is the information that makes the target audience educated about smoking and tobacco use. As for price, an increase in price decreases cigarette use and giving prizes for non-smokers. As for placement, banned smoking indoors and to create %100 Smoke-free Air Zone. Also, it is illegal for people under 18 to purchase cigarettes in Turkey. Ban on ads of tobacco in Turkey is for promotion, and there is extensive usage of media with the help of media advocacy through various communication channels. That led to integration of messages to create one sound effect.

Turkey’s social marketing campaign has proved very effective to quit smoking and exposure of non-smokers to second-hand smoke. As a result, Turkey has been one of the top 15 countries that reduced tobacco use. WHO encourages the other member states to follow Turkey’s example. WHO had devised MPOWER package that includes monitoring measures for tobacco use (see Figure 2). WHO’s MPOWER package concentrates on monitoring tobacco use and prevention policies; protecting people from tobacco smoke; offering help to quit tobacco use; warning about the dangers of tobacco; enforcing bans on tobacco advertising, promotion, and sponsorship; and raising taxes on tobacco products.

Figure 2. Measures of MPOWER

- Monitor tobacco use & prevention policies
- Protect people from tobacco smoke
- Offer help to quit tobacco use
- Warn about the dangers of tobacco
- Enforce bans on tobacco advertising, promotion, & sponsorship
- Raise taxes on tobacco

Source: GATS Fact Sheet Turkey 2012.

Turkey became one of the countries that enacted Mpower criteria for reducing tobacco use in the World. In order to monitor tobacco use and prevention policies, Turkey made research on monitor policies through Global Adult Tobacco Survey, Global Youth Tobacco Survey, and Health Professionals Tobacco Use survey. In terms of protecting people from tobacco smoke, Turkey became a %100 smoke-free by banning the use of tobacco in indoor spaces. In offering help to quit tobacco use; National support and quitline 171 services were established. Warning about the dangers of tobacco, all TV channels have an obligation of broadcasting programs and spots not less than 90 minutes a month since 1996 and with the addition of new material it is implemented successfully. On the cigarette packs, messages such as “smoking kills”, “smoking seriously harms you and others around you”, “health institutions can help you stop smoking”, “smoking causes ageing of the skin”, “smoking can cause a slow and painful death”, “smoking can cause a strong addiction do not start it”,...
“smokers die younger” is printed since 2008 and pictures are also added in 2010. Enforcing bans on tobacco advertising promotion and sponsorship: All kinds of advertising promotion and sponsorship on tobacco was banned by law in 1996. Raising taxes on tobacco; total tax on tobacco is %75 which was recommended by WHO (Bilir and Özcebe, 2013: 1). Therefore Turkey is considered successful in meeting the MPOWER criteria.

Source: GATS Fact Sheet Turkey 2012.

GATS is the The Global Adult Tobacco Survey which is a global standard for systematically monitoring adult tobacco use and tracking key tobacco control indicators. GATS is a national survey that represents Turkey across other countries. GATS helps countries to improve their capacity in designing and implementing tobacco control programs (www.who.int). When we look at GATS survey 2012 in Turkey, it is conducted as a household survey among persons aged 15 and above by TURKSTAT (Turkish Statistics Institute) with the coordination of Ministry of Health:

“A multi-stage, geographically clustered sample design was used to produce nationally representative data. A total of 11,536 households were sampled and one individual was randomly selected from each participating household to complete the survey. Survey information was collected electronically by using netbooks. There were a total of 9,851 completed individual interviews with an overall response rate of %90.1” (www.who.int).

According to the survey tobacco use showed a daily frequency of 41.5% of men, 13.1% of women, and 27.1% overall (14.8million adults). Tobacco cessation shows a range of 27.2% of ever daily smokers that have quit smoking and 42.9% of smokers visited a health care provider in the past 12 months and they were advised to quit. The remaining 55.2% of current smokers planned to or were thinking about quitting. In terms of second hand smoke, 15.6% of adults who worked indoors (2.4 million adults) were exposed to tobacco smoke at the workplace, 38.3% of adults (20.8 million adults) were exposed to tobacco smoke at home. 26.4% of adults who own private cars (5.3 million adults) were exposed to tobacco smoke in private cars, 12.9% of adults (2.8 million adults) were exposed to tobacco smoke when visiting restaurants. When economics is considered the average monthly expenditure for manufactured cigarettes was 146.10 Turkish lira [81.12 USD]. On behalf of the outcomes of the media campaign 92.0% of adults noticed anti-cigarette information on the television or radio and 94.3% of current smokers noticed health warnings on cigarette packages and 53.0% of current smokers thought about quitting as a result of seeing the warnings. If we look at changing knowledge attitudes and perceptions ‘96.2% of adults believed smoking causes serious illness. 96.2% of adults believed exposure to second hand smoke causes serious illness. 95.5% of adults favor the law prohibiting smoking inside workplaces and public places’. That means the campaign has become successful in changing attitudes and perceptions (www.who.int).

Therefore; the achieved success is awarded by World Health Organization. The Minister of Health in 2008, the Prime Minister in 2010, and the President of Health Commission of Turkish Grand National Assembly in 2012. They received three World Health Organization awards to protect Turkish citizens from tobacco smoke in a short time. And lastly, in May 31, 2013 in Turkey received another award in World No Tobacco Day (www.havanikoru.org.tr).
6. Conclusion

Social marketing is a popular subject that reflects the changing nature of societies. The strategies that meet the needs of changing societies social marketing looms large among them. In creating public awareness and achieving social ends social marketing takes the floor by enlarging the concept of marketing to encompass public health. In Turkey, campaigns that were launched before to create public awareness and to prevent tobacco use in the society remained as mere media campaigns that could not promote public health. But the recent campaign on tobacco use is an effective social marketing campaign that included the marketing mix and creating a perfect synergy to achieve that social end. The marketing mix made it possible to include all the elements of an effective campaign with right policies and media advocacy. Therefore, it is important to notice that social marketing principles made it possible for Turkey to achieve a successful campaign on tobacco use and create public awareness.

References

Public Debt in Albania and Some Ideas on the Good Management of Public Finances

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Abstract

The material aims to make an analysis of all the numerous public discussions today in Albania regarding the public debt and ways and manners to balance it. Not only in Albania but also in the Euro zone countries like Greece, Spain, Ireland, Cyprus, Portugal, the management and control of public debt is the priority of the economy because of the threat that brings the high public debt on public finances due to macroeconomic instability. Albania’s public debt reached in early 2013 to 63.8% of GDP, while the countries of the region have a lower debt level and higher GDP. There is a law in Albania on the basis of which it is realized such budget management to determine the level which was 60% of government debt. This level was changed by the Albanian Parliament in December 2012 going to 62%, a change which was accompanied by heated debates among parliamentary parties and groups of economists. But what should be the level of public debt in order to give breathing to the economy, to promote employment and reduce the unemployment. How will the government be able to come out of the parliamentary elections June 2013 to face the task of improving public finances, efficiency in revenue administration and increasing the sustainability of the fiscal regime, through the implementation of reforms agreed by all political forces and public.

1. Introduction

State borrowing, public debt, budget deficit do not represent a simply accounting financial issue. Rather they have a certain content, not just financial, but also economic, social and political one.

Through economic programs and instruments to influence these concepts really and by measuring their impact on welfare of the people, governments are elected and they develop further their political war against opponents.

We can bring to the attention the greater public discussion that accompanied in Albania the government borrowing of 250 million Euro for the construction of a Public Work (street segment Rreshen – Kalimash). Debates about this issue has been ongoing between different political forces, in which are engaged also domestic and international experts.

We can mention also numerous discussions between the main political forces about the flat tax and progressive tax and their application manner in Albania.

There is a direct connection between the budget deficit and effectiveness of public spending. Any further deepening of deficit beyond the permitted norms prevent public investments, economic growth, employment with immediate consequences on economic stability. Therefore, the main objective in terms of management and improvement of public finances is and should be to reduce the budget deficit, borrowing and debt.

The budget as a basic instrument in the hands of the government to implement its policies and goals is the most important point of departure where are applied the fiscal and economic development policies.

Actually there is a law in Albania No. 9936 dated June 26th, 2008 “On budget system management” where it is provided the following budget definition: “The state budget is the entirety of the income, expenditure and financing of the central and local government and of special funds adopted by Law from the Parliament of Albania.

Adoption of the budget in Parliament is not a simple process, but there is a struggle between political forces regarding the discussion for the budget adoption.

The budgets of the last two years have been discussed a lot and they are regarded as unrealistic by the opposition in Parliament regarding the planned level of income and determination of rates of economic growth. And in fact since in the early budget years the government has sought to change the budget figures which showed incorrect and responsible planning.

But the biggest discussion ever made about budget changes and still continues to be discussed (and in this discussion are included also the economists circles, representatives of business and academic world) is that about changing the flat of government debt.

And this happened at a time when the budget deficit in Albania had reached to 62% of GDP.

The Albanian economy in recent years has been developed at a time when the world economy is developing in conditions of financial and debt crisis spread to developed countries that gave its effects indirectly also in other countries such as Albania, affecting in reducing the economic growth rates. As Greece and Italy became part of the debt crisis,
countries with which Albania has the largest trade exchanges (our country has two thirds of exports with Italy) and the largest number of immigrants caused that the financial crisis gave its effects in Albania a) at the beginning through the fall of remittances and b) return of a large number of immigrants in Albania due to loss of jobs. These were accompanied by a decline of needed liquidity in the economy and declining of domestic consumption.

Discussions of public debt and its role in the stability of public finances and economic growth are realized at its level in relation to GDP, taking as optimal level 60% of GDP referred to the nominal convergence criteria set by the EU for countries aspiring to become members, while for countries under development it is recommended a debt level below 50% of GDP.

In Article 58 of Law No. 9936, dated June 26th, 2008 “On budget system management” it is required ... “Total public debt, including guarantees, shall not exceed 60% of GDP limit ...” practically setting a numerical rule on public debt. This fiscal rule is considered easy and does not constitute any legal strong restriction (the law isn’t organic and it can be rejected by any annual budget law), but it has established a political order which has played an important role in forcing governments not to exceed the limit of public debt up today, which was decided to pass by adoption in December 2012 of the budget for 2013.

But on the other hand, it is recognized what is important for the public finances is not the numerical level of debt than its durability, ability to finance it and the ability to repay the debt along with interests.

2. How it is presented the progress of public debt in Albania over the years?

Tab.1. Public Debt 2005-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Denomination</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011(plan)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Total Debt</td>
<td>214,169</td>
<td>494,669</td>
<td>516,934</td>
<td>595,799</td>
<td>682,389</td>
<td>710,400</td>
<td>789,688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Domestic Debt</td>
<td>149,439</td>
<td>348,936</td>
<td>369,536</td>
<td>400,456</td>
<td>415,028</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>External Debt</td>
<td>64,730</td>
<td>145,733</td>
<td>147,398</td>
<td>195,343</td>
<td>267,361</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Total Debt in % of GDP</td>
<td>52.34</td>
<td>56.07</td>
<td>53.48</td>
<td>54.77</td>
<td>59.68</td>
<td>57.85%</td>
<td>59.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>GDP in million ALL</td>
<td>409,209</td>
<td>882,209</td>
<td>966,651</td>
<td>1,087,867</td>
<td>1,143,373</td>
<td>1,278,068</td>
<td>1,329,104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig.1
3. What advise the International Financial Institutions

World Bank and IMF, the two institutions that over years monitor the progress of economic and fiscal policies in Albania are in unison in terms of public debt. Although they appreciate the fact that the Albanian government and the Central Bank managed to cope till now to afford in an efficient manner the external environment by avoiding a drastic drop in production, or increase and instability of inflation, these two institutions again emphasize the fact that Albania’s public debt is high, among the highest in the region, with a high proportion of short-term domestic debt taken mainly (about 70% of domestic debt) by foreign banks with Albanian deposits.

In an interview with the Albanian daily Panorama, in January 2013, Nadeem Ilahi, the IMF representative states “The further increase of the debt can affect the confidence of those who bought the government debt, it can be deteriorated and come additional risks, as well as restrict the private lending and investments…”1

This issue was really verified in early 2013 in treasury bill auctions held by the Ministry of Finance where there was a significant increase in interest rates and a lack of willingness of commercial banks to finance public debt again.

Meanwhile, business is complaining every day about the lack of liquidity due to unpaid debts by the government for the work performed by it mainly in infrastructure, which has put it in serious financial difficulties and in a mistrust position of banks towards business and consequently the contraction of credit granting for business.

In Tirana Chamber of Commerce stated that the debt government has towards the business goes to 200 million Euro, of which 120 million Euro only towards the construction companies that are not paid for the works they have carried out. While the World Bank estimates that this debt is up to 2% of GDP and represents a new increased risk for the Albanian economy.

Regarding this issue the Governor of the Central Bank at the VOA’s show in Albanian language would state: “... it is necessary and a urgent issue the liquidation of debts to businesses. It is the main injection into the economy. No other financial instrument can perform this role at the moment ...”2

The World Bank states that it would be good to deduct the debt level to 40% as an appropriate level, but also emphasizing payments to businesses.

While the IMF suggested a reduction of debt with a 5-year plan. “... We recommend that the adjustment would be made in the next 5 years, in order to allow a more gradual reduction. At the same time, to perform reliable adjustments, it must be accompanied also by a solid anchor and specific consolidation plans. We have advised the authorities not to cut the projects capital because such activities stimulate the economic activity and create new job positions, especially in difficult times.”3

But despite this fact, both institutions that require debt reduction, follow different paths in achieving this goal.

According to the IMF, Albania would have to increase taxes to reduce debt. Tax increases and spending cuts are the safest method for reducing the debt, regardless that according to the experts of the Albanian economy, this model does not stimulate the economic growth.

While debt reduction under the WB should come from tax breaks and business climate that manufacturers mostly. This method would generate income to reduce later State obligations.

In February 2013 WB stated that it would condition the assistance for Albania with the debt reduction and this is the only way to proceed forward with programs of support for Albania.4

While the EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development) in early 2013 appear more optimistic than the other institutions related to economic growth in Albania. According to its forecasts for 2013, the economic growth is expected to amount to 2% from 1.3% to this growth forecast by the IMF and WB.

But it strongly emphasis the attention our country should have towards neighbor countries like Greece and Italy. The report of the EBRD for the Albanian economy progress during 2012 noted: “The close connections of Albania in terms of remittances and investments from Greece and Italy, which continued to face economic problems, will continue to intensify ongoing”.5

According to EBRD’s President Suma Chakrabarti borrowing is a policy followed by governments in moments the economy has no stimulus, but when borrowing space is limited the attention should be turned on the private sector. “I think this country has decided now is the time to attract private investments to take forces to achieve growth and

1 Llahi N, january 27th, 2013 Panorama
2 Fullani A, february 14th, 2013 VOA Broadcast in Albanian Language
3 Llahi N , january 27th, 2013 Panorama
4 Top Channel, february 22nd, 2013 the news emission
5 EBRD, 2012, Annual Report
development. The public sector can not do still everything, and this is very understandable. Therefore, to further improve the investment climate, we will help in bringing investments in the country as we have done in the past.  

But in a report issued in May for regional economies, EBRD has revised in reduction the previsions for economic growth of Albania from 2% to 1.5%.

According to EBRD Albanian economy slowed significantly when production fell to 1.6% and it comes at a time when the government and the Bank of Albania do not have spaces to stimulate the economy, due to increased debt and because of the banking sector is involved by a high percentage of bad loans.

According to EBRD Albania and other Balkan countries should rely more on its own resources and must take a series of internal reforms to prevent the deepening of the crisis.

4. What really provides the Ministry of Finance.

And with all the advices and suggestions of international institutions under the government's economic plan, public debt is expected to reach 10 billion dollars by the end of 2016. The government forecast in the 2014-2016 economic plan increases it by almost 1.2 billion dollars, compared with the end of 2012.

8.3 billion dollars was the government debt for 2012. This level of debt is expected to grow to 1.2 billion dollars by the end of 2016. 574 million dollars is expected to increase the debt interest in 2016, of these, 120 million dollars interest on external debt and 454 million dollars for domestic debt. Forecasts for 2013 were to held the debt at 62.6% of GDP, but only a month after the budget adoption, the government has announced a new figure. In 2013 the debt is expected to increase to 63.8% of GDP and it is expected to remain at 63% level up to 2015, just after this year the debt could be reduced at 62.3%.

According to experts, there is a factor that can aggravate this prediction and that is situation of the power sector. Forecast of debt stock reduction in 2016 at 62.3% level could go to 64,4% if there are implications from the energy sector as there was at the end of 2012 and in early 2013. The largest and most notable privatization of the government in the last eight years was that of electricity distribution proved to be a huge failure because of problems the company CEZ had in the Albanian realty with the old not accumulated debts by not paying the energy in mass by the citizen and a great lack of cooperation between the company and the government. The government was forced to take back the control of the company and the problem has actually passed to international arbitration.

5. The campaign and economic programs of parties

2013 coincides with the political elections in Albania. And if we see the economic programs or what the opposition has promised and what has so far made the position there is a little change.  

This because ".. in early of this new century, the policy facing and its specific decision-making on matters of socio-economic development of any country is made conditional on some typical and sustainable phenomena such as globalization, regional integrations, crises or as known otherwise challenges of modernization, possible scenarios of models of capitalism and its modification etc..".  

".. Any government that will emerge from the elections should be prepared for the efficiency of public finance and tax administration. There is no place for tax cuts, not only in Albania but in the whole region ..." stated IMF representatives in their public pronunciation in February 2013.

6. But what’s really happening?

Larger discussions between the position and opposition are about flat and progressive tax. The government is supporting the flat tax with the arguments that it is paid less, but all pay and because of the simplicity of application of this tax. So the government has an optics with a more liberal economy, small state with limited powers and public responsibility. While the opposition supports the progressive taxation, who earns more, pays more and with criticism on the flat tax that it has not increased employment at all.

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6 Chakrabarti S, february 07th, 2013 Panorama  
7 Data provided by dailies february 10th, 2013 Panorama and april 22nd, 2013 MAPO  
8 Civici A, march 16th, march 17th, 2013, MAPO The author is Rector of the European University of Tirana and member of the Supervisory Board of BA.  
9 IMF, february 22nd, 2013, Top Chanel, the news emission
It seems that the Albanian government driven also by electoral campaign has chosen the model of WB. In recent months it has removed VAT payment from all machineries entered in our country for investments and it is in the process of a Law draft for VAT exemption from all machineries, equipment and raw materials for the agricultural sector. The government has promised VAT relief in the tourism sector. It has approved the removal of 10% tax on the minimal wages, measure which would affect 215 thousand employees in the private sector and exemption of youth employed for the first time from all taxes for the first 3 years.

According to experts of the Ministry of Finance, all these measures that will further continue with further reforms in the business environment aim in increasing domestic production and consequently also the exports. Since 2000 the Albanian exports have been increased eightfold bringing about 2 billion Euro in the budget. Their further increase strengthens the Albanian currency (ALL) and the debt repayment becomes easier with a stronger currency.

7. The effects these measures will have in the state budget

“In Albania, population and electorate seem to obscure continuously the pure economic and financial logics, but above all the self coherence of economic and social model we apply for. We can not take a little or tax a little and offer many and favor so many. Or the liberal model, tax a little - offer a little or social democrat model – tax a lot and offer a lot. Every promise that affects only one side of the equation, is just a good desire, but very hard to be real as a policy or possibility”.

8. Which is the best solution in the current conditions?

Economic growth-oriented policies that does not require increase of public spending. Economic growth oriented by domestic product growth, by production and not by consumption, as it is currently oriented, accompanied this with focus on the maximal entering of modern technologies and expansion of human capital, the inclusion of the more active population in contributions and benefits of economic growth.

“The economic growth that exists in an economic and financial terrain dominated by the deficit of payments balance, trade considered deficit, the food market greatly dependent on imports, encouraging the subjective domestic demand, not broad involvement of different social groups and of the territorial integrity in profit contribution from growth, is not assessed as a stable and efficient economic growth.”

There are many things that can be done to improve the business climate such as property registration, relief in tax payment, an element in which Albania is ranked the last in the world. Also the improvement of the power supply or facilities in providing construction permits.

Another important element is the development and growth of exports. Albania has access to the entire European market, which is a market of 14 trillion dollars. We should overview this market and not only the domestic market when it comes to economic growth. In 2004 our exports were about 22% and increased to 35%, but in a small country like ours they must go to 50-70%.

9. Recommendations

- Maximal efficiency in performing public spending.
- A strict implementation of fiscal policies.
- The injection of liquidity into the economy through payment of debts owed to the business, as necessary.
- Encouraging and supporting the banking system to increase business financing.
- Restrict of public borrowing only for investments.
- Promoting the competitiveness of businesses by facilitating the regulatory and fiscal burden.
- Structuring the economy.

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Ethnic Conflicts and the Role of the Media: The Case of Turkish Media

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Abstract

Since the World War II the history has showed us how media can be directly involved in ethnic conflicts. Sudan, Rwanda, Yugoslavia, UK-Northern Ireland, Spain, Chechnya, Sri Lanka, and Turkey are current examples of these conflicts. In Turkey, an armed conflict between the Turkish Armed Forces and the Kurdish armed organization PKK has caused mass human rights violations and loss of human lives and; strained the economy and damaged the environment. In this study, the following points are examined: 1) what are the connections between ethnic conflict and the media; 2) how do Turkish mainstream media framed the ethnic conflict; 3) what role do the media can play to prevent/resolve ethnic conflicts. The study also includes comparison of fundamental approaches of peace journalism and war journalism towards the conflict. Although most of the examples that shows what role the media played in ethnic conflicts are negative. The study concludes that the media can play an effective, positive role to prevent or reconcile ethnic conflicts and to contribute to the post conflict resolution, reconciliation and peace building.

Keywords: Turkish media, ethnic conflict, Kurdish question, media framing, peace building

1. Introduction

In the beginning of the 21st century, it appears that a much desired peaceful future is being overshadowed by armed conflicts. Today, peace is the ultimate goal for humanity. Hamelink (2008: 77) says that “A rough count would tell us that after the Second World War and the solemn pledge by the international community that it would not allow this barbarism to happen again, the world has known fewer than 40 days during which nowhere in the world was a war fought.” Besides interstate wars, “Following the end of the Cold War, the number of violent internal conflicts went up sharply and new conflicts emerged at the global level.” (Gilboa, 2009: 89) Not only underdeveloped countries also in developed and developing countries’ peoples have suffered the internal conflicts such as; Britain, Spain, Turkey where ethnic armed conflict was occurred related to minority issues respectively Irish, Bask, and Kurdish question.

The role of the media was mentioned often before, during and post conflict processes but mostly studies focused on negative effects of the media and the capacity of the media for peace building remained unexplored and neglected. (Gilboa, 2009: 88; Laplante and Phenicie, 2009: 252; Wolsfeld quoted in Spencer, 2003: 56) However, the role of the media is so crucial that even “the presence of reporters on the ground in Bosnia in certain instances prevented or at least postponed atrocities” as Hawkins (2011: 63) cites from Botes.

Even if there is no study that assets, measures and proves impact of the media on ethnic conflict, yet in most of the cases the effect of the media on ethnic conflict is agreed and “There is an emerging belief that the media may well be the most effective means of conflict resolution and preventing new wars” (Howard, 2003:2) Therefore “Nearly all modern post-conflict peace-building efforts have included media programs” (Kalathil et al. 2008) According to Howard (2003:1) estimated 1 billion US dollars was invested in interventions relating to media in ten years. Some important efforts relating to media’s conflict prevention, resolution, reconciliation or peace-building role is employed by UN in numerous conflicted areas.

2. Relationship between Ethnic Conflicts and the Media: The Media as Warmonger

The most drastic and well known examples of hate speech communicated through the media that have brought worldwide attention to the phenomenon experienced in Rwanda and Yugoslavia were both incited by media hate speech. Davison (2006: 50) suggests that the ability to successfully convey the politics of hate relates to a number of factors including media control for mass mobilization “Nazi and fascist parties took advantage of press laws, urbanization and mass communication to agitate and attract followers. Likewise, Milosevic in Serbia and the Hutu extremists in Rwanda
established ultranationalist networks and controlled important media outlets." Genocide, brutal massacres, using rape as a tool of genocide was common features and results of ethnic violence in both Rwanda and Former Yugoslavia. In both countries the media played a negative role to escalate the conflict and served to murderers.

If we look at more closely what happened in Rwanda, we can see deadly consequences of wrong doings of Rwandan media. "The private broadcast company Libre des Mille Collines and the national Radio Rwanda took active roles in fomenting ethnic hatred among citizens driving the Hutu people to kill at least half million of the Tutsi population in 1994." (Laplante and Phenicie 2009) Even they broadcasted suggestions on how to kill Tutsis. "The ensuing conflagration resulted in the deaths of some 800 000 Tutsis and moderate Hutus... Key to the brutal efficiency of the massacres were Rwanda's radio and newspapers. Rwandan newspapers published a "hit list" of targeted victims deemed unfaithful to the mores of the nation. Reportage from the national radio reinforced the perception that national security depended upon eliminating- rather, "exterminating" or cleaning out-not only the minority view but the minority members themselves" (Adrien and Mark; Wing and Jhson; des Forges quoted in Bernard, 2009:190, 191). Because of such powerful effect of the media in conflicted areas UN is employing new media policy.

General Dallaire who was UN Commander in Rwanda during conflict, said simply jamming Hutu broadcasts and replacing them with messages of peace and reconciliation would have had a significant impact on the course of events (quoted in Metzel, 1997). The role of the media in escalating conflict and causing genocide in Rwanda is so clear that even it is approved by UN's tribunal verdicts. Court decision on genocidal role of the media in Rwanda declares that "mass media hate speech constitutes genocide, incitement to genocide and crimes against humanity" (Int'l Crim. Trib. For Rwanda trial Chamber I: Prosecuted v. Nahimana, Barayagwiza and Ngeze, (Media Case))

Link between the media and mass slaughters was also clear in Bosnian case. In the Republic of Bosnia Herzegovina, conflict between the three main ethnic groups, the Serbs, Croats, and Muslims, resulted in genocide committed by the Serbs against the Muslims in Bosnia. As a result of conflict 200,000 Muslim civilians had been systematically murdered. More than 20,000 were missing and feared dead, while 2,000,000 had become refugees. It was, according to U.S. Assistant Secretary of State Richard Holbrooke, "the greatest failure of the West since the 1930s." Bennett who is director of International Crisis Group’s Richard Holbrooke Project explains how Serb nationalists harnessed the media to destroy Yugoslavia and stresses that "media have arguably been the most destructive weapon in the wars of Yugoslav dissolution. Indeed it is said in the former Yugoslavia that all victims died twice: first on television and then in reality...Myth, fantasy, half truths and brazen lies were packaged each night into the television news...Milosevich was able to beam his new Serb nationalism into every home in Serbia and beyond via saturation television... The allegations against anyone who dared to question Milosevich on any matter were ludicrous, yet by this time reality had gone out the window." As it was in the case of Rwanda, perpetrators of genocide in former Yugoslavia went before International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY) and sentenced. In the ICTY one of the indictments against Serbian leader Milosevic was his use of the Serbian state-run media to create an atmosphere of fear and hatred among Yugoslavia’s Orthodox Serbs by spreading “exaggerated and false messages of ethnically based attacks by Bosnian Muslims and Catholic Croats against the Serb people...” Milosevic succeeded this by centralizing Radio Television Belgrade, Radio Television Novi Sad and Radio Television Pristina and they became a part of Radio Television of Serbia. Besides that he controlled the independent media by creating shortages of paper, limiting their distribution, stopping supplies and equipment, imposing heavy fines and punishments. La Brosse (2003) reports all this details in his expert report that is compiled at the request of the Prosecutor of the ICTY.

3. Information Intervention: Jamming Genocide

In view of these considerations, international-intergovernmental organizations employed “information intervention” methods in order to end ethnic conflicts. Although information intervention methods are criticized from freedom of press point of view, yet warning of General Dallaire should be kept in mind; simply jamming Hutu broadcasts and replacing them with messages of peace and reconciliation would have had a significant impact on the course of events. (Metzl, 1997: 1) Moreover it is suggested that UN should establish an independent information intervention unit with three primary areas of responsibility: monitoring, peace broadcasting, and in extreme cases, jamming radio and television broadcast. (Metzl, 1997: 2) Also Hamelink (2008: 82) stressed on monitoring media for detecting early warning and suggested that an international media alert system is needed to monitor media contents in conflicted societies.

NATO’s more aggressive responses are still in minds. In Bosnia, against Serb Radio Television’s biased and distorted news NATO troops seized one of the station’s transmission relay towers and held it for five days until “Serb hard-liners agreed not to air “inflammatory” anti-NATO broadcasts and set aside one prime time hour a day for programs
expressing “other political views”. At the same time, the north Atlantic Council authorized NATO peacekeepers in Bosnia to take all actions necessary to “suspend or curtail programming that is hostile to the spirit of the Dayton peace accord. (Metzel, 1997:2) Moreover, in Kosovo war NATO fired on the TV building in Belgrade and justified by that “Serbian TV was a legitimate target because it was spreading propaganda that incited hatred of Kosovo Albanians. Later justification was changed: suspicious military signals had been detected from the building.” Another example that shows war is fought in the media as well as battlefield is from Kabul. Same justification was used by American troops in Afghanistan. “When Kabul was taken, an American missile completely destroyed al-Jazeera’s editorial office” (Nohrstedt, 2009: 109) that was the only Arab TV station to report war victims. Because of these incidents media interventions are debatable and get criticism as well as praise. On one hand, in defense of human rights “jamming genocide” is sometime necessary; on the other hand, there is abusive use of it, especially in asymmetric wars.

4. Covering and Broadcasting Peace: The Media as Peace Maker

It is thru that the media single-handedly cannot start a war; it is also thru that the media single-handedly cannot end conflict. Nevertheless there have been an increasing number of successful “information interventions” in recent years. UN or NGOs’ radio stations and programs in peace missions in several countries have disseminated impartial, reliable news and information and developed conflict resolution strategies. Recently media and peace building efforts has become integrated into the humanitarian aid and intervention policies by EU, UN, the World Bank and donors like US, international NGOs and foundations and a survey, that was by no means a complete, shows in mid 2002, 115 million Euros budgeted for projects related to media and peace-building. (Howard, 2003: 8-9) Media interventions for peace-building have focused on training journalists on human rights reporting and conflict analysis and content production as news, dramas, documentaries, children programs, etc. most of that address the roots of conflicts.

In last decades sufficient evidence has been accumulated to justify the role of media on resolution, reconciliation, and peace-building and peace development in conflicted areas from Europe to Africa, from Asia to America which has proved media can play a role as peace makers even peace. Harnessing words against wars can create a new peace forces. Some examples can explain the constructive role of the media and communication.

Several peace oriented media projects served to resolution, reconciliation, and peace-building. Rwanda, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo and former Yugoslavia where the cruelest conflicts occurred, some of the most effective media projects applied. La Benevolencia, UNHCR information campaign, Radio UNMIR, Studio Ijambo, Radio Agatashya, Radio Okapi, Radio Isanganiro, The Hirondelle News Agency in Rwanda, Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo and TV Open Broadcast Network, Radio FERN, Project SPEAR, Peace agreement media campaign, Radio Blue Sky broadcasted several campaigns, dramas, programs to promote peace in former Yugoslavia. Beside that examples there are more media projects in Africa such as; Search for Common Ground Studio (Angola), Radio MINURCA, Radio Ndeke Luka (Central African Republic), STAR Radio, Talking Drum Studio, TRC of Liberia, Moses (Liberia), Radio Soap Opera (Senegal-Casamance region), Talking Drum Studio, UNHCR Campaign (Sierra Leone), Radio Voice Hope, Gurtang Peace Media Project (Sudan), Peace Media and Counterterrorism Project of Center for Global Peace (Uganda).

Also in Asia and America we can see useful and effective peace oriented projects such as; International Organization of Migration Media Program (Afghanistan), Radio UNTAC (Cambodia), Studio Moris Hamutuk, Geng Bola Gembira comic book (Indonesia/East Timor), Medios par la Paz (Colombia), Media projects that are harnessed to reconciliation Israel-Palestine conflict are also remarkable such as; Voice of Peace Radio, The Common Ground News Service, RAM FM, Radio all for Peace, Sesame Street program.

Before, during and after a conflict to form peace oriented media is a useful and effective tool to stop conflict and promote peaceful communication, but the most important approach is to establish the media that is respectful to the journalism and broadcasting ethic codes and principally aim to play a constructive role to provide social peace. In Europe the role of the media during the peace process of Northern Ireland is one of constructive example.

A journalist states “I think it is fair to say that there would have been no Good Friday Agreement without the media. There was simply no forum to get this thing started except through the news.” (Spencer quoted in Reuben, 2009:59) As it is reminded “It is important to educate the public about the sources of conflict and the potential for violence or conflict resolution.”(Gilboa, 2009:106), thus in Britain “by promoting political contestations between parties, carrying dialogue and mediating between oppositional parties, television news became a significant influence on the field within which those contestations took place and in so doing, took on a participatory role within the politics of peace.” (Spencer, 2003:59)
5. The Kurdish Question of Turkey and the Conflict in a Historical Context

Kurds and Turks have a long common history as citizens of the Ottoman Empire. Since a large part of the Middle East was part of the Ottoman Empire, Kurds used to live under the Ottoman rule and had autonomy in their quasi-independent tributary provinces. Today, Kurdish citizens of Turkey constitute a large ethnic and linguistic group and around 15 million of the country's citizens identify themselves as Kurds and speak Kurdish. (Tarhan, 2013) The Kurds have been subject to systematic state oppression and denial of their ethnic identity since the creation of the Turkish Republic in 1923. (Dizkimli, 2013: 28)

As it was same all around the world, 1960s and 1970s was the time of political struggles. The Civil Rights Movement in North America, Marxist-Leftist movements in Latin America and Europe was dominating youth and the working class. The political atmosphere was not any different in Turkey. The leftist youth and workers movement was rising. In this climate, some Kurdish political activists split from the Turkish socialist movement under the leadership of Abdullah Öcalan to form the Partia Karkeren Kurdistan (the Kurdish Workers’ Party) or PKK. The PKK made its first appearance in 1974 (Laciner and Bal, 2004) In 1980, the Turkish Military, in order to eradicate leftist opposition, seized power and stayed until 1983. Mass human rights violations and severe oppression occurred across the board regardless of ethnic background.

In 1984, under these circumstances PKK started an armed struggle against the Turkish Army. Turkish authorities have treated this conflict as a security problem and a terrorist act and thus, the prevention of this conflict was considered in the context of war against terrorism. In 1999, seizure of Abdullah Öcalan by the Turkish government did not improve the situation.

Since 1984, the violent conflict has been continuing for 29 years but the framing the issue as terrorism did not bring any solutions. During this time, more than 40 000 people died and around 6000 persons became victim of extra judicial execution. In 1990s, according to the official Turkish sources, 820 villages and 2,345 smaller settlements were depopulated. However, according to Diyarbakır Bar Association 3 000 villages were depopulated and 2 million people were internally displaced. Also, according to the government sources, 50% of the displaced people have already returned to their home but these figures are found unreliable by the Human Rights Watch in their report.

6. Armed Conflict and the Media in Turkey

“No examination of contemporary Turkish State Discourses discloses that the Turkish state has, for a long time, consistently avoided recognizing the Kurdishness of the Kurdish question. This is hardly surprising, since the republican Turkish state denied that the Kurds existed. From the mid 1920’s until the end of the 1980’s, the Turkish state ‘assumed’ that there was no Kurdish element on Turkish territory” says Yeğen (1999:555) “The majority of Turkish citizens and institutions have in past decades considered the “Kurdish Question” as only a terrorism issue, in which the “answer” to the “question” was to be found in the successful elimination of the separatist terrorist organization, the Kurdish Workers Party (PKK).” (Aydınli and Özcan, 2011: 441) Turkish media acted in same way and denied existence of Kurds and the Kurdish question and rather than the constructive language the media preferred to employ destructive approach. Instead of taking side human rights and peace the media took side with war. It can be seen in the study of Somer (2005: 591) “in 1984 and 1985, the mainstream Turkish daily Hürriyet published only 25 articles that were fully or partially related to the country’s ethnic Kurds. Only 3 of these 25 articles used the word Kurd in reference to a person, group, concept, or place. In those days, the media rarely covered issues related to Kurds and, when they did, did not use the word Kurds.”

As it is stated by Wolfsfeld1 the discourse of the media is determined by political elites and politics almost always comes first. The media do not initiate but follow or “reflect changes in the political environment because news stories are, for the most part, reactive...” As Schudson puts it news “does not constitute political discourse but relays, refines, and reuses it.” (Wolfsfeld, 2010: 30) Accordingly, as a result of changed political climate in Turkish media the discourse has changed and “in the first 5 months of 2003 alone, Hürriyet published a total of 114 articles related to Kurds within Turkey; 47 of those made a reference to Kurdishness as a group identity at least once by using terms such as Kurds, ethnic Kurds, or Turkish citizens of Kurdish origin.” (Somer, 2005: 591,592) Although by time the media have made references Kurdishness and used the words like Kurd or Kurdish, unfortunately most of time news employed hate speech related to Kurds. According to Hrant Dink Foundation Hate Speech Media Monitoring Report (January-April 2011, p: 5, 6), Kurds

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1GadiWolfsfeld, (undated article) The Role of the News Media in Conflict and Peace: towards a more General Theory, available online at: http://politics.huji.ac.il/gadiwolfsfeld/pdf
are one of the most targeted group by the Turkish media that employ hate speech against them. Hate speech against Kurds are produced in various ways in news, mostly words or stereotypes like blood thirsty-sanguinary, invader, separatist were used to define them.

East Anatolia wisepeople committee member Sibel Eraslan expressed emotional burden of being a member of the committee in an interview on TV\textsuperscript{2} and stated that since East Anatolia is one of the most affected regions by armed conflict’s human rights violations, she heard the most dramatic stories that region’s people experienced and it was so difficult to deal with such emotional burden. She pointed out also that “I was not prepared to hear such dramatic stories because I had not read news about all these realities in the media. The media did not cover most of what happened to the Kurds. We Westerners of Turkey do not know what happened during the armed conflict to the Easterners of Turkey.” Eraslan is not an ordinary citizen she is a former president of woman branch of Refah Party which government party is successor of, so she is politically quite active person. Also she is a story writer and a very well known newspaper columnist of Islamic milieu with a distinctive feminist approach. Therefore her sincere confession is an important indicator that proves even a columnist and politically active person can be deprived to know the truth about what is going on in her/his country because of the silence or ideologically biased coverage of the media. Thus the question of Reuben (2009:47) gains a special importance; “Under what conditions does the news media’s coverage of conflict lead to constructive or destructive outcomes?” It is obvious that mainstream news media in Turkey did not covered the Kurdish Question objectively if they ever did their coverage was biased and echoed the voice of state’s dominant ideology that favors militaristic approach which was an example of destructive media outcome. This is the characteristic of war journalism which “War journalism is driven by propaganda and manipulation and is therefore biased and distorted.” (Galtung quoted in Gilboa, 2009: 101) This type of media outcomes polarize people, escalate conflict, otherize distinct group(s) of society as ‘them’ and dehumanize, demonize the ‘other’ easily. As a result of it even if national or international human rights organizations try to give voice to the truth, people become deaf and blind just as media is and it changes when elites especially political elites changed their attitude toward the question.

Although since 1991 governments has declared their ‘recognition the Kurdish reality’ but it never turned to a resolution or peace process because of the dominant nationalist and pro militarist political climate. Recently, after eradicating dominance of military forces over civil politics, Turkish society is experiencing a difficult transformation process that also presents opportunities for democratization. In mid 2009 pro Islam AKP (Justice and Development Party) government launched a ‘Kurdish Opening’ (it is also addressed as Kurdish opening, democratization opening, resolution process, peace process etc.) that was the boldest attempt ever made by a Turkish government to reach the resolution to the Kurdish question. Even if the process is interrupted more than once, finally Erdoğan’s government started negotiations with PKK to end armed conflict and to solve the Kurdish question by democratic reforms at the beginning of 2013. Therefore it is crucial to understand the role of the media that if whether it serves to democratization and social resolution or fuels conflict. Thus the study focuses on the attempts by the Erdoğan’s government to promote the peace process and its reflection on the Turkish news media.

In order to promote the peace process and to get accustomed public to talk about solving Kurdish question, the government established a wisepeople committee for geographically seven different regions of Turkey that are Marmara, Aegean, Mediterranean, Black Sea regions and Central, North Eastern and South Eastern Anatolia regions. (Kurds are intensively live in respectively South East and North East shortly called East that connotes Kurdish area. For a long time ‘Question of East’ referred to the ‘Kurdish Question’). Total of 63 persons who are academics, writers, actors, singers organized meetings within their regions people who are pro and con for peace process, NGOs, and visited special groups who are specially affected by arm conflict such as families of soldiers and forcibly disappeared or extra judicially executed persons who died during conflict. During this meetings, groups that are against and for peace process first time gathered together to discuss the issue, in doing so they talked to each other face to face and listened each other’s opinions and stories first time. At the end of the almost three months the wisepeople committee that includes public figures and celebrities reported, peoples’ demands, concerns, warnings, suggestions and opinions related to peace process to the Prime Minister of Turkey Recep Tayyip Erdoğan in a meeting on 26 June 2013.

7. Scope and Method of the Study

In this study, two Turkish newspapers, nationalist Sözcü and left-liberal Radikal will be examined and compared related to how they approached, framed the wisepeople committee’s efforts and peace process, and what kind of discourse they

\textsuperscript{2}24 National TV Channel, Moderatör Gece Haber (Moderator Night News), 26 06 2013 at:11 pm
employed in their news. Therefore the scope of the study includes news related to wisepeople committee’s activities which were realized between 3 April and 26 June 2013 in Sözcü and Radikal newspapers. Two newspapers are chosen according to their different ideological and political attachments. Sözcü newspaper is known as secularist, republican, nationalist and pro status quo as a result against peace process. Radikal newspaper is known as left-liberal and against status quo as a result pro peace process.

8. Findings

8.1 Peace Oriented Framing and War Oriented Framing of the Conflict

Pauly (2009: 7) asks “Is journalism interested in resolution or only in conflict” which is a fair and important dilemma for journalists and the media organizations that must be questioned. What the media is interested in can be examined by framing analysis of the news. According to Entman (1993:5) framing is “to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evolution, and/or treatment recommendation for the item described.” Also Gamson and Modigliani (1989: 3) stress that framing is “central organizing idea…for making sense of relevant events, suggesting what is at issue.” In our case two opposite framing are dominant as peace/conflict oriented framing of news in Radikal and war/violence oriented framing of news in Sözcü. Newspapers respectively show the characteristics of peace/conflict journalism and war/violence journalism.3

As it is explained by Galtung, McCormick and Lynch and others Peace/conflict Journalism is peace/conflict oriented, truth oriented, people oriented, and solution oriented while war/violence journalism is war/violence oriented, propaganda oriented, elite oriented and victory oriented. According to these fundamental features, news in Radikal and Sözcü takes opposite positions that can be seen in the headlines of news, such as:

“An honorable peace for both two parties” 17 04 2013; “I have been started the peace process by getting married with a Kurd.” 31 05 2013; “Altan Tan: West worries about division of country, East worries about to be deceived” Radikal framed the peace process as win-win situation for both parties. However Sözcü suggested zero-sum situation in favor of security forces in its headlines such as:

“Actors, apostates, separatists: Bahçeli: 63 dark faces will tell you with enthusiasm how Turkey will be divided” 05 04 2013; “A veteran soldier threw his prosthesis leg to the ‘Wises’” 26 05 2013

Furthermore while Radikal focuses on the solutions in its news such as:

“South East wants education right in mother tongue” 21 05 2013; “Ensaroğlu: The problem of hate against Korucu (village guard serves to the Turkish Military) must be solved” 25 04 2013; “Wiseperson Uşşak: Calling names (for PKK leader) as ‘baby murderer’ is meaningless anymore” 04 05 2013;

Sözcü focuses on victory rather than solving the problem:

(Citizens) Made life unbearable for ‘wises’ in Kayseri: Since citizens showed a great rebuff in their visit to Kayseri city, wisepeople committee of Central Anatolia had to run away from Kayseri city” 18 04 2013;

“Rebuffs against ‘Wisemen’ are continuing: Rebuffs against ‘wisemen’ that are continuing for days all around the country also continued in Hatay and Denizli cities’ 20 04 2013; Rebuff to the ‘Wises’ in Black Sea Region” 15 04 2013

8.1.1 Framing the reaction and support

In most of the headlines of Sözcü, Rebuffs and shock are the most used words to define the reactions of the people against activities of wisepeople. In using such emotional and exaggerated words to define reactions news frames peace process and the activities of the committee as unacceptable attempts by majority of people and refers antagonistic character of the conflict which means no support for peace process and the committee. (“First reactions to the wisepeople: List of wisepeople that was declared by Prime Ministry draw a rebuffs from various section of the society” 03 04 2013; “A rebuffs from an AKP (governing party) member to the wises” 13 04 2013; “The question that shocked wisepeople” 17 04 2013; “Another shock for Wises in Bandirma town” 27 04 2013; “Reactions against wisepeople is getting bigger” 19 04 2013; “Big shock for the ‘wisemen’” 17 04 2013) Also using mostly the words of rebuffs and shock creates negative tone in headlines. Not only in headlines but also in content and context of the news in Sözcü are...
focused preclusion of dialog of parties and blocking the channels of dialog between parties in doing so news served to create opposition between parties.

However, Radikal frames the reactions as protests that are normal. (”Tension in wisepeople’s meeting” 26 05 2013,”Yılmaz Erdoğan: Being protested is normal” 17 05 2013, “Wisepeople are protested in Balıkesir city” 03 05 2013, “The Police offered water to the angry protesters” 04 05 2013) And also public supportfor peace process and the committee is covered in the news of Radikal (”Yılmaz Erdoğan: Support for peace is 110 % percent” 19 05 2013; Support for ‘Peace’ came out from the convention of Alaoute 12 05 2013; “Support for resolution process from Diyarbakir Prison” 03 05 2013; “Demirtaş: This time resolution process is different” 30 04 2013)

8.1.2 Framing and Defining the Wisepeople

Name of the committee first introduced as ‘Wisemen Committee’ by Prime Minister Erdoğan, but importance of using gender sensitive language was pointed out and the name of the committee has changed as ‘Wisepeople Committee’. Despite of all discussions and warnings, Sözcü newspaper insists to use the degrading names for the committee such as ‘wises’ or wise man/men in doing so, Sözcü newspaper ridiculed the intelligence of the committee members and denied the existence of women members of the wisepeople committee. Moreover Sözcü Newspaper defined the wisepeople committee as greedy (“They were promoted to the seven stars hotel from five stars: Latest news from Prime Minister’s wisepeople” 22 05 2013 “Are wisepeople getting paid?” 17 05 2013), coward (...the wisepeople committee of Central Anatolia had to run away from Kayseri city” 18 04 2013), ridiculous(“Wise cat” 28 04 2013; “Empty hall for ‘Wisemen’s meeting’ 7 05 2013) and humiliates their effort and their selves as misleading (“Just a tent theatre (illusionary and cheap, banal show)” 04 04 2013; “Is he ‘wiseperson’?” 05 04 2013; “Look what wiseperson is talking about!” 24 04 2013

On the other hand Radikal used a gender sensitive and respected language about the wisepeople committee and made salient positive developments that is related to being member of the committee in such headlines:”They peaked (in media coverage) as a result of being chosen wisepersons” 30 04 2013 and paid tribute them. Also headlines such as: “Wisepeople picked roses” 21 05 2013; “Wisepeople danced in an Armenian village” 21 04 2013; “Wisepeople participated to a wedding party, visited a marketplace” 15 04 2013, portray the committee members as humanist, respected and peaceful individuals who has good relations with people and welcomed by people.

In contrast Sözcü portray wisepeople as disrespectful and against the Turkish national values like national anthem and flag (“As wises did not say the national anthem: Wisepeople shocked by reaction of hall since they did not sing the national anthem” 15 04 2013; “Intervention to the Turkish flag from ‘Wises’” 20 05 2013) and at least supporter of leader of PKK that implies being terrorist (“Apo (leader of PKK) chooses the wisepeople” 18 04 2013) Also headlines like “The Police rescued the ‘Wises’” 19 04 2013 define wisepeople as if they are under attack of people who hate them.

Contrasted framing and portraying of two newspapers can be seen also in the headlines of the news related to a member of wisepeople. Lami Özgen is the president of Confederation of Public Sector Trade Unions which includes Union of Education that advocates the right of education in mother tongue for Kurds. Özgen was chosen as a member of the committee of wisepeople. Almost one month later he was front of the prosecutor to answer the acclaimed accusation that was being a member of the terror organization PKK. Coverage and the framing of two newspapers’ show opposite directions of journalism practice. Whereas Sözcü demonize and criminalize Mr. Özgen who also represent more than 200 000 union members, (“Wise turned out terrorist: President of Confederation of Public Sector Trade Unions Lami Özgen is prosecuted of being member of the terror organization “ 07 05 2013) Radikal emphasize the contradiction between governing bodies of the state that Mr. Özgen suffers by headlining that “According to government he is a wiseperson, according to the prosecutor he is a terrorist: President of Confederation of Public Sector Trade Union Lami Özgen will try to prove that ‘he is not a member of terror organization front of the judge” 06 04 2013

9. Conclusion

In the light of these findings we can say that the media can employ both peace oriented discourse and war oriented discourse by framing the issues by using peace/conflict and human rights based journalism or war/violence based journalism. In any case the media plays a central role to escalate or reduce the conflicts and violence. But we should remember that “War journalism is driven by propaganda and manipulation and is therefore biased and distorted.” (Galtung quoted in Gilboa, 2009: 101) This type of media outcomes polarize people, escalate conflict, otherize distinct group(s) of society as ‘them’ and dehumanize, demonize ‘other’ easily. As a result of it even if national or international human rights organizations try to give voice to the truth, people become deaf and blind just as the media is. Therefore the
media workers should keep in mind that especially journalists, generally the media workers have social responsibility both for a better media and democracy. In order to fulfill that responsibility journalists should be aware the *guidelines for peace reporting*\(^4\) such as: (1) understand the conflict; (2) report fairly; (3) report the background and causes of the conflict; (4) present the human side; (5) report on peace efforts; (6) recognize journalists’ influence. Last principle of the guidelines reminds responsibility of journalists on the ground of conscience: “We should always be aware that our reporting will affect the conflict and the lives of people in it.”

The study concludes that the media can play an effective, positive role to prevent or reconcile ethnic conflicts and to contribute to the post conflict resolution, reconciliation and peace building. Harnessing the media for peace building saves the media from serving to the warmongers and keeps the media with peacemakers.

**Recourses**


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From “Contrarevolucionarios” to “Economic Migrants”:
Portraits, Perspectives and Meanings of Cuban Emigration Phenomenon

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Abstract

In the aftermath of 1959, Cuban citizens’ social behaviour became subject to political interpretation and emigration practice was openly defined as a form of political dissent. Since then, the Cuban Government has maintained a rigorous control over exits from the island and emigrants have been excluded from the nation and been branded as “counterrevolutionary”. This resulted in strict politics of mobility control and in the creation of the juridical category of Emigrado [lit. emigrant], a status defining “counterrevolutionary” emigrants and which implied important restrictions of citizenship rights in Cuba. Nowadays, even if de facto it is a figure no longer considered a political traitor but an “economic migrant”, de jure the Emigrado is still political, because the normative and juridical corpus concerning migration has remained almost unchanged since 1961. Tracing the origin of these divergent interpretations of the Cuban migration - as political or economic act - to the different phases of the Revolution, this paper aims to analyse the polar perspective regarding Cuban exodus and discuss the meanings of this case as a migration phenomenon.

1. Introduction

Migration between Cuba and US originated in the colonial past, but it’s only when the Revolution came to power that it could be defined as a mass migration phenomenon. If before the Revolution, Cuban mobility to Florida can be read as a migratory process between colonised and colonizer country, even if the United States have “always thrown themselves outside casting off all traditional colonialism fatter locks” (Del Lago, 2005), after the triunfo de la Revolución [lit. Revolution triumph], Socialism and Cold War are the framework that define symbolic and material relations between the two countries, fundamental elements in order to understand Cuban migration phenomenon and its diverse meanings.

Along this migratory root, which is a polysemous space, not only because it is a political frontier but also for its worth of real war front (Del Lago, 2005) the US administration represented the Cuban migratory flux as a model of political dissent, using it as a symbolic and material weapon in the discourse on “totalitarianism” of communist system (Verdery, 1996: 8). Spurred by the geopolitical conflict between “Communism” and “free world”, the US Government has provided with unparalleled material assistance those who, emigrated as traidores [lit. traitors], were received as golden exile (Aguirre, 2006).

The restrictive measures imposed by Cuban Government on emigration in the aftermath of the Revolution must be considered on the same symbolic and material level. Cuban Revolution was a project of social justice which aimed to overcome racial discrimination, educational and health inequalities; it was a political asset which radicalised independentism and national sovereignty after centuries of colonialism, and centered on clases populares [lit. popular class] interests. Within a political project involving any aspects of social life and establishing participation of the building of the Revolution as the main criterion of political and social inclusion, emigration was depicted as a practice of radical rejection of the new shared values and considered a counterrevolutionary act. People emigrating were represented in...

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1 From 1959 Cubans in the US took advantage of the particular immigration politics adopted by the US administration towards those people leaving “Communist Bloc” countries and this is why most of Cubans living abroad settled in the US. According to International Migration Organization (OIM) data, 1 million and 300,000 settled Cubans in the United States of America. Most of them left Cuba after the political, economic and social changes carried out by the Revolution (Garcia, in O’Reilly Herrera, 2007: 75).

2 Translation of orig.: “sempre proiettati all’esterno senza le pastoie del colonialismo tradizionale” (Del Lago, 2005).

3 In 1976 Ley de Migracion n°1312 [lit. migration bill] established a permission system to regulate exit and entrance mobility practice of Cubans. The permissions are granted by Ministry of the Interior, which reserves the right to deny them (Reglamento Ley de Migracion, http://pdc.cuba.org/derechos-humanos/leyes-cubanas-e-internacionales/447-reglamento-de-la-ley-de-migracion-de-la-republica-de-cuba.html).

4 This term comes from the distinction used in Cuba before 1959 between clases economica / clases populares, where the first was used for landowners and the rich people involved in the mainstream of Cuban economy, while the second was used for the working class (Perez-Stable, 1999).
Fidel Castro’s public speeches as *gusanos* [lit. worms] and submitted to governmental practices in order to build their “otherness”, the most important of which was the creation of the juridical category of *Emigrado* [lit. emigrated], a category created for all those leaving Cuba after Fidel Castro proclamation of the Revolution socialist path in 1961.

Today, the perception of emigrant as social figure has changed towards an economic interpretation but the legal framework defining emigration practice is almost unchanged because *Emigrado* is a still existing category in the legal framework concerning Cubans mobility practices.

Based on my ethnographic research among the meanings of Cuban migrants mobility paths in Milan, this paper aims to discuss the evolution of Cuban migration representation from counterrevolutionary practice to economic act, assuming this shift as coming from different politics of the gaze, pursued by the different actors involved in it.

2. **The “Emigrado”: the contrarevolucionario Cuban emigrant**

   The category of *Emigrado* is not just an element belonging to common lexical or a figure of the social sphere, but it is a civil and juridical status which entails severe restrictions in the full enjoyment of citizenship rights. These restrictions are based on Ley no. 989, de 5 de diciembre de 1961 [lit. law n° 989, 5 December 1961], a law issued after the huge migratory flux in the two first years of the Revolution which marks a distinction in Cuban citizenship between *Residentes* and *Emigrados*; a juridical distinction based on the political one between *revolucionarios* (i.e. those who embrace Revolution values and stay in Cuba) and *contrarevolucionarios* (i.e. those emigrating to US as political exiles) (Aguirre, 2006; Pedraza-Bailey, 1985).

   The Ley no. 989 is based on the principle of residence - resulting from *ius soli*\(^5\) adopted by Cuba - which is the criterion through which those who fully enjoy citizenship rights are differentiated from those who are partially deprived of them.

   The Ley no. 989 provides that the citizen who leaves the country unlawfully or who doesn’t come back within 11 months must be considered an *Emigrado* and be deprived of permanent residence rights in Cuba. Under article 1, the law says that exit and entrance permits are given by the *Ministerio del Interior* [lit. Ministry of the Internal Affairs] and that the citizen not coming back within this time limit will be considered a definitive emigrant. In that case, the only possibility of coming back for the *Emigrado* will be submitted to the obtaining of an entrance permit as temporary visitor (granted for 30 days).

   Besides the impossibility of coming back in order to settle in Cuba permanently, the *Emigrado* is prevented from the enjoyment of others citizenship rights. Article 2 declares that all his immovable and movable properties, every kind of rights and shares will be nationalized by confiscation in favour of the Cuban State\(^6\). At last, it is established that the *Emigrado* can’t exercise his political and civil rights, his paternal authority, inherit properties and obtain food aids (*libreta*) from the State. Italian law considers *Emigrado* status comparable to a stateless person (an *apolide*) since both of them can’t exercise all rights connected with citizenship, beyond the criterion it is based on (*ius soli* o *ius sanguinis*).

   Originated from the very first beginnings of the Revolution, this law passed through the evolution of emigration as social practice without alteration. It is possible to say that in spite of the decreasing social stigmatization of *Emigrados*, a parallel evolution in their juridical status hasn’t taken place (Pedraza, 1985; 2007).

   In my fieldwork research in Milan, *Emigrados* I interviewed judged this juridical mismatch as a deep contradiction. In order to understand how it was determined and in which terms this mismatch represents a contradiction, we need to consider the emigration history and the emigrant figure representations in the social background along the Revolution.

3. **Cuban emigrant’s portraits: from “political” to “economic” emigration**

   For the political and cultural reasons outlined above (Socialism and Cold war), Cuban Government kept a severe control on mobility over the national territory since 1959 and those who moved from Cuba to the United States have been cut off from the nation and they have been called in different ways such as *gusanos* [lit. worms], *escoria* [lit. scum], *traidores* [lit. traitors], *comunidad* [lit. community] or *quedados* [lit. those left out], according to the historical and political phases of the Revolution within emigration had place (Mette, 2006: 302).

   Through the analysis of these portraits we can discuss Cuban emigration and the emigrant moral figure evolution in the Revolution context. The aim of considering the Cuban emigrant as moral figure comes from anthropologist Aiwa

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\(^5\) Lying on *ius soli* principle, Cuba citizenship is assigned to those born on the territory of the State, beyond their parents’ nationality.

\(^6\) Bertucci, Moretti, 2008 (http://immigrazione.aduc.it).
ties and to an increasing circulation of commodities and consumer goods brought by emigrants to those living in Cuba. With relatives abroad was a practice subjected to strong forms of social exclusion. Speeches encountered high social consensus and not only emigrating was a moral deviance act but also keeping relations with the "Communist Bloc" and they were denied of the refugee status. For them the US administration created the category of "entrant:" a temporary resident. Furthermore it's important to highlight how this phase saw emigration practice meanings sliding from a public to a more private dimension. In that phase Cold War logic ruled daily life and prevailed over family ties.

When socialist field fell down and the '90s economic crisis spread, a new phase of pragmatism – which subordinated the Revolution political project to the necessity of facing daily economic difficulties – took place. These dynamics favoured a drastic change of emigration meanings in the social sphere, deeply contrasting the one sustained by the Government.

The hard reality of the periodo especial determined a shift of emigration interpretation from political practice to economic practice and of emigrant representation from negative moral figure to positive one; as Teresita Sanchez sarcastically stated – a woman interviewed by the sociologist Silvia Pedraza-Bailey – for Cubans the gusanos had transformed into mariposas [lit. butterflies] (Pedraza-Bailey, 2007: 152).

The comprehension of the economic possibilities deriving from the act of emigrating started to turn into a strong counterpoint vision not only towards the Government's negative approach to emigration, but also towards the stigmatization of having relations with the Emigrados. Isa – a woman I met in Milan and who had migrated to Italy in 1996 – sarcastically stated – a woman interviewed by the sociologist Silvia Pedraza-Bailey – for Cubans the gusanos had transformed into mariposas [lit. butterflies] (Pedraza-Bailey, 2007: 152).

The comprehension of the economic possibilities deriving from the act of emigrating started to turn into a strong counterpoint vision not only towards the Government's negative approach to emigration, but also towards the stigmatization of having relations with the Emigrados. Isa – a woman I met in Milan and who had migrated to Italy in 1996.
- told me that keeping in touch with a relative settled in Miami didn’t mean to be “blemished” but to be “privileged” (Isa, 10 November 2011) in facing daily economic shortages.

If it is possible to trace the origin of this evolution in the ‘80s and in the events of Mariel as well as in the coming back of Cuban exiles from the United States, it’s with the periodo especial and the balseros crisis that this dynamic emerges definitely.

Balseros crisis\(^{10}\) - referring those who try to sail through the Florida Strait to go to the United States with a balsa [lit. raft] – raised its peak in August 1994 when more than 22,000 Cubans landed on American coasts.

A documentary about this migratory episode is Balseros (2002), a film by two Spanish film makers, Carlos Bosch and Josep Maria Domènech. It tells the stories of life, hopes and travel of 7 Cubans trying to reach the United States coasts, just at the peak of the crisis. Besides the different migratory and reception politics within these emigrants move and the harshness of this experience of mobility - swinging time and again between frustration and hope, imaginary and reality - Balseros unveils a Revolution phase in which emigration ended up being considered a counterrevolutionary act in the social fabric. One the most revealing scenes is caught during the departure of a young Cuban named Oscar del Valle; it is described through the words of his sister, Lirio, a young and beautiful dancer. Lirio is astonished by the crowd following Oscar to say goodbye to him; “it seemed” she says “that he was a celebrity going away”\(^{11}\). The image of “celebrity”, used by Lirio to indicate the huge interest generated by his brother’s departure, is in conflict with the idea of emigration as a political betrayal. Even if in Balseros it is still possible to see public demonstrations of consent towards the Government stigmatization discourses of emigrants, emigration is increasingly seen also as a way to succeeding and gaining better life conditions.

Analysing the measures adopted by the Cuban Government in this period is a way to highlight how relevant is the economic element is in the semantic redefinition of emigration meanings. Cuban Government carried out some relaxation in the migratory restrictions adopted till ‘90s and started to represent emigration in the public speeches as an economic act.

The crisis of ‘90s - after the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 - pushed the Cuban leadership to launch reforms motivated by economical pragmatism.

The most important reforms for the redefinition of emigration practice and relations with Emigrados were the introduction of the double currency system, the promotion of international tourism in Cuba and the development of a legal system to reap remittances from emigrants abroad. When the remittances system was legalized in 1993 in order to compensate the economic national situation, again those who had a family member abroad were privileged in facing daily shortages. Playing sarcastically at semantics, the sociologist Ted Henken says that Emigrados shifted from being traidores [lit. traitors] to trae-dolares [lit. bring-money]. (Henken, 2006: 3), where these two terms concern a transition from a politicized vision of emigration practice to an economic one; they are not considered to be against Revolution and Government anymore.

Another relevant element for discussion about emigration meanings is the Programa especial de emigracion cubana [lit. Cuban emigration special program], an agreement in which the United States guarantees 20,000 immigration visas a year to Cubans citizens. In Cuba this program was known among people as el bombo [lit. dicebox] and it was a sort of visa lottery that every two years allowed thousands Cubans to settle in the United States, a unique immigration system in the world (Henken, 2006: 144). El bombo brought more than 200,000 Cubans to the United States legally. The Cuban Government stopped it in 1998. Henken says that these numbers could appear remarkable but they are not to be seen as Cuba were a different case from other Latin American countries. If a visa lottery were implemented for Mexico or Colombia we could observe a greater immigration phenomenon (Henken, 2006: 146). Besides the existence of clear as well as ambiguous migratory politics adopted towards Cuban immigrants by both countries, what el bombo shows us lies in the failure of the politicization of emigration as counterrevolutionary act, in favour of its representation as economic practice in the Cuban Government discourse too.

From this moment, those who had left Cuba without respecting the migratory rules, are still categorized as Emigrados and a capital “E” marks their passports, but in the social sphere, being an Emigrado has lost definitely its negative political connotation as counterrevolutionary figure. When a person doesn’t come back to Cuba without the relative’s permission of residence abroad (Permiso de residencia en el exterior), it is called that “se ha quedado” [lit. stay-abroad]. The use of verb quedarse [lit. stay], places the emphasis in the choice of not coming back and of staying

\(^{10}\) Even if being a balsero had always been a way to exit from Cuba, we can recognize two main moments: the first one, since 1959 to 1974, when more than 16,000 balseros landed on American coasts, and the second one, occurring between 1989 and 1994, when they were more than 45,000.

\(^{11}\) Translation of orig. “parecía que se iba una personalidad” (Lirio del Valle, Balseros, 2002).
abroad, expressing a different concept of exclusion - mobility is thought not in political terms but just in spatial terms. Not more con Cuba o contra Cuba [lit. with Cuba or against Cuba], as Fidel Castro said many times in his public speeches, but simply outside Cuba. Only quedados abroad for working mission, such as doctors or athletes, are still judged in a negative way, both politically and socially.

Nowadays, being an Emigrado, resulting from the act of quedarse or from illegal exit (i.e. without any permission from Cuban State) isn’t depicted in a morally negative way in the social sphere, neither in a politicized way in the Government members’ public speeches, but for those who are labelled with this juridical category it constitutes a strong rent in their several belongings and a deep contradictory condition in relation to the “economic” character of contemporary Cubans emigration practice.

4. “Economic migrants”: the contemporary perspective of Cuban migration

During my fieldwork in Milan among Cuban migrants I met Esteban, a man who was born in Holguin (south east of Cuba) in 1975 and quedado with his wife in 2004 in Rome. Esteban told me what being an Emigrado has meant to him. He paradoxically felt a stranger in his own country, a stranger in regard to his own national, cultural and emotional belonging. He kept on saying how this juridical status was unjust for it derived from a political past that wasn’t part of his daily life. Esteban claimed a lot of possible motivations for contemporary Cubans’ migration practice, against the political one expressed by Cuban exiles in the early time of the Revolution. Besides love affairs and desire of travelling abroad, Esteban recognized how the first motivation for most of emigrants – as for himself - was an economic one.

It’s interesting to highlight that, on one side Esteban seemed to share the perspective that Government adopted on emigration after the periodo especial, which represented it as an economic phenomenon and not a counterrevolutionary one, while on the other side he used this dichotomous vision as a starting point in order to argue contraditoriness of Emigrado as still existing category in the legal migratory framework. Just because his emigration was not conceived as a political exile, his Emigrado condition didn’t reflect and respect him as “economic” migrant. He didn’t perceive himself as a traitor of the Revolution but the legal framework through which his mobility practice had been defined by the Cuban State was the same as the political exiles and this was a diffused reasoning among both Emigrados and legal migrants I met in Milan.

The dichotomous perspective that assumes Cuban migration phenomenon as composed of two distinct phases – those of political exiles and those of economic migrants - concerns not only the Cuban Government and the discourses of Cubans citizens but also scholar’s interpretations.

In their study about Cuban immigrants in the United States, the sociologists Nelson Amaro and Alejandro Portes (1972) judged that over time the emigration from Cuba ceased to be a political act and became an economic act. If de jure in 1972 Cuban immigrants were still considered political immigrants, they affirmed that de facto tended to resemble “the classic immigrants”, coming from a lower social class than the one of political exiles, and seeking greater economic opportunities than those provided in a socialist society (Amaro, Portes, 1972: 13). In 1985 the sociologist Silvia Pedraza-Bailey, taking into account Amaro and Portes’ study, judged this distinction “the same that for twenty years have framed the debate over the meaning of the Cuban migration” (Pedraza-Bailey, 1985: 29). Pedraza-Bailey affirmed that interpretations of the meaning of this exodus have always polarized into the only two positions that have lead discourse on Cuba, but this kind of distinction is a result of the ideological filters used while approaching it:

at one pole, the immigrants, were said to be a manifestation of the loss of legitimacy of the Cuban revolution, discrediting it. At the other pole, the immigrants were said to be propelled by the scarcity of consumer goods (See, Fernandez, 1982). Hence, at one pole the immigrants are political refugees; at the other, economic refugees. […] Without doubt, the polar answers depend on the different ideological convictions that filter reality. But, in addition, the question is poor. For all societies are simultaneously and inextricably political and economic. […] But when people grow politically disaffected, even for underlying economic reasons, they can no longer be disposed of as simply economic refugees. Cuba’s refugees are and have always been, fundamentally political (Pedraza-Bailey, 1985: 29-30).

After assuming Cuban migration as a fundamentally political phenomenon for the reasons outlined, Pedraza-Bailey addressed the discussion on the role of dissent in society, and recognised it as the main meaning of this case study.

12 To describe their Emigrado condition, other migrants used the image of the “tourist”; like a tourist the Emigrado wasn’t allowed to stay in Cuba more than 30 days and own real properties or enjoy other residence rights (such as libreta).
This debate shows how this polar perspective had been always characterizing the interpretations of Cuban migration since the beginning of the Revolution political process, in the Cuban context as in the scholars’ debate.

In accordance with Pedraza-Bailey, I assume this perspective as depending on the politics of the gaze and ideological filters used, a product - as I tried to show through the analysis of emigrant figure portraits - of the different political and cultural phases that framed the Cuban migration.

Furthermore, for Pedraza-Bailey Cuban migration has always been fundamentally political because the economic perspective on emigration can be seen in the end lying in a political disaffection (Pedraza-Bailey 1985: 30). This idea can be connected with Abdelmalek Sayad’s thought (2004) about Algerian migratory case and his sociology of immigration. Sayad’s reflections constitute an outstanding critic towards those kinds of perspectives that reduce immigration to its economic or demographic dimension. This kind of interpretation fails to consider the political dimension of migration practice and it concerns both the host society as the society of origin. I think that this was the perspective assumed on emigration practice by the Cuban Government after the periodo especial but - as Sayad argued – emigrating is a political act, for it is a breaking with a territory, and so with a population, and with a social, economic, politic and moral order (Sayad, 1999 trad. it. 2002: 123). In this sense, although peculiar (Geertz, 1973 trad. it. 1998: 16) in its dynamics, I consider the Cuban migration as political as any other migration case, hence, a normal (Geertz, 1973 trad. it. 1998: 16) political practice as any other migratory act.

In the end, if Pedraza-Bailey addressed the question about the dichotomous perspective on emigration to the more interesting analytical path of the role of dissent in society, my aim is, instead, of going deeper into the analysis of the peculiar (Geertz, 1973 trad. it. 1998: 16) elements that characterize the act of emigrating from Cuba and that show us how and to which extent the act of emigrating from Cuba is a political act and not simply economic. The reasoning emerged primarily from the question of remittances, raised as a fundamental question for most of the Cubans I interviewed during my fieldwork.

The migrants I met in Milan complained about the Cuban State remittance system because sending cash to relatives in Cuba or bringing there goods (for example clothes or copybooks for students) and technologies are very expensive practices13. Furthermore, for those who are excluded from enjoying their citizenship rights, such as Esteban, sending remittances to help his relatives in Cuba was perceived as greater frustration. As Esteban, Isa, who emigrated legally as residentes en el exterior, told me she was disappointed by the way in which the Cuban Government had structured the system of remittances. She claimed a different kind of participation in respect to that proposed by the Government, strictly based on residence and physical presence on the national territory and she judged that the remittances system didn’t facilitate it. What she aimed for was to help her family by sending goods and cash from abroad, which meant not abandoning her country but participating in the construction of the society in a different way. But this “different participation” is a practice that redefines from below participation to the Cuban society and here - I argue - lies one of the meanings of emigration practice from Cuba. With their remittance practices emigrants subordinate national belonging to the familial one, inverting the values order with which they were educated as “children of the Revolution” (Mette, 2006) and as Hombre Nuevo [lit. new man] (Ernesto Guevara, 1977) in order to embrace patriotic socialism instead of capitalist individualism (Mette, 2006: 304). The remittances can be seen as economical practices that amount in an antithetical participation to society in relation to that pushed forward by the Revolution and resulting in a form of change from below which is – in the end – political. The remittances question shows us the peculiar meaning of emigration practice from Cuba and the normal political dimension of the act of emigrating, making evident that approaching migration - not only Cuban – as divided between political and economic dimension is a product of a specific politic of the gaze rather than a character of this phenomenon itself.

5. Conclusion

This paper has attempted to discuss Cuban migration interpretations - from counterrevolutionary act to economic practice - as depending on a politic of the gaze that originates in the changing phases of the Revolution. I tried to make evident that the depiction of the emigrant as negative moral figure (contrarevolucionario) within the cultural and political asset established by the Revolution had lead to its institution as juridical figure (as Emigrado) in the legal framework. I argued

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13 Coming back to Cuba, a citizen can bring a luggage up to 30 kilos; every exceeding kilo is expected to pay a custom tariff of 20 CUC (10 euro), but there is also the case that the luggage is confiscated.
how this normative framework had been fundamentally unchanged in spite of a progressive moral emigrant figure evolution (as economic migrant) in the social sphere from '80s, and in the Government discourse from periodo especial.

*Emigrado* is a still existing category of the Cuban migratory legal framework and its application to contemporary mobility practices is lived by migrants as a deep contradiction. If today migration isn’t seen as a political act anymore, the existence of *Emigrado* status doesn’t reflect the “economic character” of the practices of migrants.

I tried to show how this dichotomous perspective on emigration doesn’t concern Cuban Government and Cubans citizens only, but also scholars’ interpretations.

In their study about Cubans in the United States, Portes and Amaro (1972) affirm that, if *de jure* in 1972 Cuban immigrants were still considered political immigrants, they judged that *de facto* tended to resemble “the classic immigrants” seeking greater economic opportunities than those provided in a socialist society (Amaro, Portes, 1972: 13). I agreed with the idea of partial evolution of emigration practice – in the moral and social dimension and not in the legal framework - but not with the perspective which considers Cuban migration divided into political and economic practices. Instead, adopting the anthropologist Abdelmalek Sayad’s perspective on migration and according to sociologist Silvia Pedraza-Bailey’s reflections on Cuban migration, I think that Cuban migration is a fundamentally political act (Pedraza, 1985), because emigrating is always a breaking with a social, moral, economic and political order (Sayad, 1999 trad. it 2002: 123). In this sense, even in its peculiarity (Geertz, 1973 trad. it. 1998: 16), Cuban emigration is a political practice, as any other migration act. Finally, taking into account the question of remittances raised by migrants in my fieldwork in Milan, I tried to deepen the political peculiar meanings of Cuban mobility practices and show why a dichotomous perspective - between a political and economical dimension - ought not be taken into account only for Cuban migration, but for all other migration cases.

On 14th January 2013 a new migratory regulation was issued, replacing the *Ley de Migración de 20 septiembre de 1976* [lit. migratory bill of 20th September 1976]. It constituted a deep change for Cubans mobility paths. The permissions system was abolished and the temporary limit to stay abroad was extended from 11 months to 24 and other meaningful changes were introduced. What concern our discussion is that Emigrado status still remains a juridical figure of the legal framework, even if *Ley no. 989 de 5 diciembre de 1961* was derogated. Those who were *Emigrados* before this date, keep on being categorized with this status and they are allowed to visit Cuba for 3 months, instead on 30 days.

References


Economic and Political Strengthening of Women and Their Position of Decision Making: Case of Kosovo

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Abstract

After 1999, Kosovo has undergone not only politically major changes but also social and economic development. This paper has to focus, researching on all information pertaining to women, seen from the perspective of increasing her role in society and the economy of Kosovo. Is analyzed the participation of Kosovo's women in the labor process, leadership and decision making positions and their leadership in public organizations and private economic power with women in the world. Women confront many challenges in front of men on their way to career, because they are affected by the patriarchal tradition that is still present in Kosovo. Also, through analysis, public policy on gender equality programs in support of women's entrepreneurship we are trying to understand themselves and the perception of women in this process and their commitment. Obviously, in this paper as a starting point contributed a number of authors, books, reports and articles of international organizations, which in their essence prove that a developed country has economically empowered women. As well research provides an overview of the results and interpretation of the data provides the quantitative research conducted through questionnaire and interviews.

Keywords: decision making, education, leadership, political strengthening and economy.

1. Introduction

A quiet economic and social revolution is taking place. Worldwide, 1 billion women work. More than half of university students world-wide are women. Women control half the wealth in the United States. The female economy will have a global economic impact greater than the BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India, and China). (Michael J. Silverstain and Kate Sayre, 2009) This Economy represents the most important commercial opportunity in our lifetime. There may not be violence in the workplace, turmoil in the home, radical change in the marketplace, and struggle for influence in government and society as a whole. It is a revolution of, by, and for women – driven by a desire for more: for ongoing education, better ways to nurture themselves and their families, increased success as executives and entrepreneurs, higher earnings, and better ways to manage and leverage their accumulated wealth. It is a revolution of dissatisfaction in which women are using their check-books to vote no on large sectors of the economy, including labour process, leadership and decision making positions.

The developed economies have serious problems with population replacement, poverty, and domestic violence. The Women's World Index ranks countries in terms of economic opportunity for females. Providing paid parental leave and healthcare for women holds the potential for substantial changes in GDP.

In the world also in Kosovo, the socio-economic development and it's overall progress is dependent and under-utilization of women who in figures are 860.274 of total population is a major obstacle to rapid socio-economic development of the country. The Government of Kosovo has taken measures to address gender concerns in the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo, by drafting and approving specific legislation that adress Kosovo women representation and participation status as well-being and by mainstreaming gender perspective though various macro and micro policies, strategies and programmes. (Kosovo Analysis, Government of Kosovo, 2011-2013).

Women have become the dominant engine of the economy worldwide, as well in Kosovo and are the primary drivers of changing spending patterns and accelerating social change across the globe. The "movement" has only just begun: women will demand more, better goods, will grow economically, and will take more leadership jobs.

2. Materials and methodology

The low status of women in much of the world is not only a critical human rights issue, but also a pressing economic issue. Women's disempowerment causes staggering losses in human capital, productivity, and economic activity.
Indeed, entrenched gender discrimination remains a defining characteristic of life for the majority of the world’s bottom two billion—a key factor widening the gulf that exists between the chronically destitute and the other nearly five billion people who share this planet. Conversely, when women are educated and can earn and control income, the benefits are large: infant mortality declines, child health and nutrition improve, agricultural productivity rises, population growth slows, economies expand and cycles of poverty are broken. (Government of Republic of Kosovo, 2011 2013). As multinational companies increasingly search for growth in the developing world, they should explicitly focus on breaking down barriers and creating opportunities for women—not simply out of the goodness of their hearts, but because it makes strong business sense. Just as corporations have found that “going green” can improve their bottom lines, companies that recognize women’s empowerment as critical for increasing labor-force productivity, improving the quality of their global supply chains and expanding their customer base and distribution networks will enjoy a competitive advantage. With their influential brands and promises of investment and employment, the private sector can be a powerful partner to governments and non-governmental organizations in a transformative twenty-first century push for improvements for women.

The methodology used for preparation of this paper is based on research and analyses conducted by the Government of Kosovo, as well as civil society and international reports. Research also provides an overview of the results and interpretation of the data provides the quantitative research conducted through questionnaire and interviews.

2.1 Economic - and political strengthening of women

Kosovo, Europe’s youngest democracy, is striving to become a regional leader in women’s empowerment. The country’s legal framework ensures gender equality in both the constitution and in labor laws.

While having strong female role models is a significant step towards female economic and political empowerment, the success of a few individuals in Kosovo does not necessarily translate into a culture of gender equality. Kosovo’s progress towards women’s empowerment remains miles behind the aspirations of its legal framework. Economically, women own only 6.5% of businesses, and on average these businesses are twice as small as their male-owned counterparts. Women also have an average of two years less education than men, and, perhaps most staggering, the unemployment rate for women is over 60% (Kosovo’s overall unemployment rate is at 45%). (Government of Republic of Kosovo, 2011). True democratic governance entails an enabling environment for all citizens, including women, to participate and have equal representation in the decision-making process. Despite Kosovo’s political representation quota for women, parties continue to be dominated by men, and women in decision-making positions remain an exception to the rule.

3. Results and discussion

It is evident that countries with less gender equality are confronted with lower economic development and have more obstacles in alleviating poverty then those countries where gender equality is at a satisfactory level. To understand the real situation of those four areas, this paper will present the results of research conducted with 275 respondents. Structure of the respondents is composed of the 52 employees in economy, polical and decision making position , and extends over the entire territory of Kosovo.

Figure 1: Women employed

Research shows that over 58% of women surveyed, have experience in public institutions, followed with 26% of women working in private institutions.
Kosovo boasts a female president, two female Deputy Prime Ministers, and a quota for female representation in the parliament (30%).

However, women holding positions in other institutions where they work are mainly professional positions with 31% in managerial positions, middle managers 21%, 19% lower management, while 19% have top managerial positions and 11% have technical administrative positions.

The results presented that the advancement, despite the low number of women involved in the political and business way is still small compared with other countries in the world, but also is growing every day because women have the potential to change their own Economic status, are economically empowered, they raise healthier, better educated families. Their countries are more economically prosperous because of it, too.

4. Conclusion

1. Strengthening of women in economic, politically and decision making is closely linked to many policies and development programs that are needed many interventions, strategies and “pro gender” policies to ensure positive changes in women life. This requires the establishment of a system of indicators to evaluate periodically the extent of women empowerment and assess the efficiency of policies and programs.

2. Increase of participation of women in decision-making structures and political life is already recognized and accepted as a tool for empowerment of women. There are three reasons why women in decision making present a strategies objectives for empowerment of women:
   a. It has been proven that countries where women participate in political life with the ratio of less then 30% have less equality and are less inclusive and democratic.
   b. It is well-known fact that women represents different interests from men. Their direct participation in decision-making structures affects prioritizing of issues that are not specified by men. And last the participation of women in political life and decision – making improves significantly level of governance.
3. Improvement of labour indicators, participation in the labour force, reduction of level of unemployment for women, improvement of employment structure. In Kosovo’s society should to encourage employment through increase of vocational institutions and it’s expanding in rural areas.

4. Participation of women in politics - low representation in politics remains one of the unfulfilled obligations that society has towards democracy. Therefore, active civil movements of women, their participation in politics and their engagement in high management levels of public administration remain one of priorities worth to be promoted any time.

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Migration of Youths in Russia: Impact on Sex-age Structures

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Abstract

Migration (especially internal) changes sex-age structures substantially both in donor and host areas. As long as migration involves mainly young people, their relocation to the big cities (mainly regional centers) accelerates population ageing in peripheral areas and thus depopulation. Ageing is particularly fast in the Russian hinterland. Here you can find areas with the median age of population reaching the edge of 50 years. The cohort research on youth’s migration to the centers on the last two Russian census data shows that up to 70% of school graduates leave the regional periphery for good. At the end of the article there is an author’s method which presents the attempt to estimate the trend in regional center’s migration attractiveness for the youths.

Keywords: Youth migration, periphery depopulation, center-peripheral population dynamics, cohort migration studies, method of shifting ages.

1. Introduction

In the face of depopulation (Russian reality of the last decades) migration becomes the key factor influencing the demographic structures. According to the idea of the Third Demographic Transition migration’s impact on the dynamics of the population is growing significantly in the most demographically developed countries (Coleman 2006). This tendency became clear on the international level only in the last several decades when, after the Second World War, the developed countries experienced a great inflow of international migrants (Fassmann, Münz 1992; Massey, Arango et. all 1993). But on the internal level of migration researches the significance of migration impact on population dynamics was noticed much earlier (Ravenstein 1885, 1889; Hicks 1932; Price 1948; Lee 1966; Greenwood 1975; Frey 1995; Moiseenko 2004). But the empirical verification of the theoretical constructions came much later and firstly on the international level. It’s easier to control and register the movements over the countries’ borders.

The research on migration in Russia has its own historically determined features. One of the most peculiar is that in the USSR the current migration record was declared as the main source of information about spatial mobility of the population. The accuracy of the current record was the reverse side of extremely severe rules of the registration in the USSR. After the fall of the USSR this system was shaken to the core. The liberalization of the rules of tabulation by place of residence in Russia caused a lot of problems in migration statistics (Chudinovskikh 2005). And the most problematic group proved to be the youths, especially the “student” ages. That’s why we are focusing our biggest part of attention on this particular age group in this paper.

The research on Russian migration using the Census data is important not only because the current migration record can’t provide us with the precise information (apart from distorting the age-sex proportions of the migration flows). The comparison of two main sources of migration statistics brings us new valuable information. But the main idea of using the data from the last two Censuses is about analyzing spatial mobility of the population on intraregional level. Only Census data allows us to operate in this scale. The intraregional movements change the demographic structures most dramatically. The research for the previous period between two Censuses in Russia (1989-2002) showed that up to 40 per cent of school graduates leave regional periphery in the search of better opportunities (Mkrtchan 2012). Our research demonstrates that the migration situation of Russian hinterland is becoming more and more negative.

2. The selectiveness of migration.

Migration is the lot of young. This thesis is very well known. The selectiveness of migration was noted even in Ravenstein’s “Lows of migration” (Revenstein 1885, 1889). The term of “differential mobility” was introduced by Dorothy Thomas (Thomas 1938).
The key role of the youth’s in spatial mobility is invariable. Even the Russian current migration record shows it. In our research we’ve chosen five key regions for the intraregional migration studying: Altai Krai, Kostromskaya oblast’, Kurskaya oblast’, Rostovskaya oblast’ and Bashkortostan Republic. The age profile of intraregional migration “caught” by current migration record in these regions is odd (Figure 1). For some reason (surely the one mentioned above) there is a great difference in the young ages. The peak for Kurskaya oblast’ and Bashkortostan Republic is precisely at the age of 18. Thou for the rest of the regions this maximum is not visible. Our hypothesis states that here we are seeing the problem of current migration record.

![Figure 1. Age specific profiles of intraregional migration (inflow, age group share in the total number of migrants). Source: Rosstat, current migration record, 2010.](image)

3. **Spatial differentiation of demographic structures as the consequence of internal migration.**

Census could be seen as an X-ray image of the population which we may use for “diagnosis”. The demographic structures, which we can analyze with the Census data, demonstrate the imprint of the whole number of demographic processes experienced by the population. And the role of migration becomes crucial at the end of the Demographic Transition.

Center-peripheral migrations (accumulation of the population in the centers of attraction - mainly regional centers) in not a new phenomenon for Russia. The whole period of urbanization may be considered from this point of view. But in the face of depopulation this kind of spatial mobility accelerates the ageing and “slow extinction” of the peripheral population. The outflow of the young deprives Russian hinterland of the sustainable demographic development.

We can clearly see the result of the process on the maps build on Census 2010 data (see Appendix 1-8). These maps reflect some demographic features of the population formed by the time of the Census. The maps are built on the level of municipal districts (2343 in Russia). This scale gives us the opportunity to see the intraregional differences.

Firstly, let’s have a look on the maps of the mean (Appendix 1) and the median (Appendix 2) age of Russian population. The indicators are quite similar but there is still a difference. The mean age is an arithmetical mean of the ages of all people. The median age divides the population in halves: one half is younger than the median age, the other is older. We prefer the median age because it responds dynamically to the changes in the demographic structures.

The rapid glance on the map of the mean age of Russian population indicates the spatial differentiation of the modes of reproduction. The green (young) regions of The Northern Caucasus and The Southern Siberia are far from the end of the Demographic Transition. High fertility (the rudiment of the traditional mode of reproduction) responses for the great share of children in the age structure. High level of mortality keeps the share of old people insignificantly small. In the result we have very low median age (Figure 2).
Figure 2. The demographic structure of the Kurchaloevskiy municipal district, Dagestan Republic. Median age: 20 years.

Figure 3. The demographic structure of Norilsk, Krasnoyarskiy Krai. Median age: 33.7 years.

The Far North regions (green on the map) have another story of “young” population formation. USSR started to populate these land forcefully in 1970-s. The migrants (enormously numerous compared to the aborigines) haven’t become old yet. That’s why the top of the sex-age pyramid is so shrunken (Figure 3). The other factor which deforms the pyramid is the outflow of pensioners to the warm regions of the country.

We started with these cases deliberately. Further they will interest us much less than the center-peripheral movements in the most populated parts of Russia. Here lies our biggest interest and here we consider the main goal of the research.

The regional centers are clearly visible on every our map (Appendix 1-8). The median age of the population here is much lower than in the hinterland. And in this we see the unmistakable proof of the center-periphery migration significance. Migrants, who are much younger than the locals due to the mentioned selectiveness of migration, contribute largely to the reduction of the median age of migration attractive center.

The impact of migration comes distinctly from the Table 1. With the growth of territory’s attractiveness the share of the youths (6) grows, gender disproportion (1) rises such as the median age (2), (3), (4), the burden on the working age population (5) increases. The distinction is not clear only between the groups with the number of the population “More than 250 K” and “More than 100 K”. The “Closed areas” have their own specifics.

Table 1. Russian municipal districts grouping by some demographic features of the population. * The groups are sorted by the hypothetical attractiveness (except “Closed areas”).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of territories*</th>
<th>Women per 1000 men</th>
<th>Mean value</th>
<th>Burden on the working age population</th>
<th>The share of the young (16-29 years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional centers</td>
<td>1218</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 250 K</td>
<td>1169</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 100 K</td>
<td>1160</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>40.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The median age of male and female population maps (Appendix 3, 4) comparison gives us the horrible picture of male’s exciting mortality in Russia. When the male’s map is mainly green (young population), the female’s is red. And here is the rare case for our maps when green is not so good. The same picture is shown on the next map (Appendix 5) – the sex ratio. This indicator doesn’t spotlight the regional centers because women are more active in the internal migration (Ravenstein 1889). At the same time center-peripheral migration and forthcoming depopulation form the “grannies land” in the most depressive parts of the hinterland. A bit clearer the regional centers are on the similar map for the “student” age group - 18-22 years (Appendix 6). Here the role of mortality is still tiny. Our estimates show that they are less than 1% for the cohorts during the last period between Censuses.

Let’s have a look on the most characteristic samples of the center-peripheral youth’s migration impact on demographic structures.

The demographic structure of Tomsk (Figure 4) is quite similar to the Russian one. The key distinction is the “skirt” in the “student” ages. Tomsk is a very important learning center.

![Figure 4. The demographic structure of Tomsk, Tomskaya oblast'. Median age: 32.9 years.](image)

The opposite picture is typical for the most depressive hinterland districts. Look at the demographic structure of Pustoshkinskiy municipal district in Pskov region. We can see the result of youth’s flee for the decades. The author visited this particular district once. The evident depressiveness of it oppresses.

![Figure 5. The demographic structure of Pustoshkinskiy municipal district, Pskovskaya oblast'. Median age: 48.8 years (51.4 for women!).](image)
Let’s have a look on the map of the youth’s (16-29 years) share in total population (Appendix 7). Our estimates reveal that this age group accumulates more than 40% of all internal movements in Russia in 2010. And let’s recall that some of the relocations were obviously not recorded. The regional centers are spotlighted on this map better of all. The mean share of youths in the regional centers is 24,5%, with the Russian average 19,8% (see Table 1). We want to add that the most attractive migration centers pull the biggest part of international migration (Lee 1966; Massey, Arango 1993). Our calculations show that during the period 2003-2010 the towns of Rostov region accepted 65,4% of international migrants, the towns of Altai region even more – 72,8%.

Finally, we’ll have a glance at the map of the burden on the working age population (Appendix 8). Here we have the crystal picture. Migration attractive centers don’t suffer from the burden because they are “nourished” by the young migrants. This indicator is very nice because it crosses out the territories which population is not far from the traditional type of reproduction. The big share of children is a burden too.

To the end of the paragraph we would like to give an example of visual analysis of the spatial differentiation of the demographic features. This analysis is possible only with the help of cartographic research method. It is known that the big attractive center form’s a depressive “ring” around itself (Treyvish, Nefedova 2010). The size of the ring is proportioned to the attractive force of the center. The huge depressive ring of Moscow (diameter is about 500 km) is clearly visible almost on all the maps. Smaller zones we can see around St.Petersburg (200-250 km), Ekaterinburg (150 km), Barnaul (100-120 km), Kazan’ (80-100 km). Quite predictably, the most depressive districts are placed in the area of attraction of several centers. For example the eastern parts of Kursk and Orel regions which are in the area of “migration interest” of seven (!) centers at once: Belgorod, Kursk, Orel, Tula, Ryazan’, Lipetsk, Voronezh. And, on top of everything, ubiquitous Moscow. All these curious observations are possible only due to the cartographic visualization of the demographic data.

4. Intraregional youth’s migration estimation

For the deep research on intraregional youth’s spatial mobility we decided to choose several contrast regions. Our choice fell on five regions with available statistics: Altai Krai, Kostromskaya oblast’, Kurskaya oblast’, Rostovskaya oblast’ and Bashkortostan Republic.

For the cohort research we took the ones of 1988-1992 years of birth. At the moment of the Census 2010 they were 18-22 years old. “Student” ages. All of the cohorts must have experienced the 18-years peak of migration activity during the period between the Censuses 2002 and 2010. Naturally at the moment of the Census 2002 they were 10-14 years old.

So the idea of the method is quite simple. People can live, die or move, not vanish. As we already mentioned the mortality is quite insignificant in the young ages (for proof see Table 2). So we can evaluate the migration balance by the comparison of the Censuses data considering mortality. This method is known as the method of “shifting ages”. Here is the cohort research on migration.

Table 2. The discrepancy in youth’s migration statistics: the Censuses and the current migration record.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cohort of 1988-1992 years of birth</th>
<th>Region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Altai Krai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population in 2002</td>
<td>183477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population in 2010</td>
<td>172493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dead in 2003-2010</td>
<td>1617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change by the Censuses</td>
<td>-10984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered migration in 2003-2010</td>
<td>-5880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrepancy</td>
<td>-3487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unaccounted change, %</td>
<td>-1,9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Censuses 2002 and 2010, the current migration record.

The discrepancy strikes. The sources of migration statistics are incomparable. If we take the Censuses as the main source (there are more reason for such assumption), unaccounted decrease in cohort size reached 10,5% in Kursk
region. At the same time in the Rostov region the current migration record missed the 12.9% increase in the size of chosen cohort. The number of registered migrants is less than the number of dead during the period in Rostov region! (Table 7).

The scale of the research allows us to look at the inter-Census (almost precisely migration) losses of the regional periphery by every municipal district. And the picture is really horrible. Up to 70% of the youths (cohort 1988-1992)! We can only imagine the future of the population where just 30% of the youths are willing to stay. And I bet there are not the best 30%.

Figure 6. Change in cohort size during the period between Censuses 2002 and 2010. Altai Krai.

Figure 7. Change in cohort size during the period between Censuses 2002 and 2010. Kurskaya oblast'.

The maps (Figures 6, 7) show that only the big cities can attract the youths. In the case of Kursk region only the regional center is attractive enough for the young. Unfortunately, our research shows the demographic fatality of Russian hinterland.

5. Cohort intensity of intraregional migration

We found highly interesting to compare the cohort intensity of intraregional migration by several adjacent one-year...
cohorts (from 1988 to 1992 in our case). Using the data of current record we calculate the intensity of migration for every age of every cohort in every possible calendar year. The size of the cohorts was calculated from the Census 2002 data. We considered mortality and the balance of the external for the region migration. Then by comparing these intensities we can make some conclusions about the dynamics of intraregional youth’s migration in the region.

Figure 8. The intensity* of the intraregional migration of Kosstromskaya oblast’.

* Left: the mean value of migration intensity for 5 cohorts at the same age. Right: the shade of grey shows the relative value; the absolute value of intensity is inscribed over the diagram.

Figure 9. The intensity* of the intraregional migration of Kurskaya oblast’.

The given graphics (Figures 8, 9) point out the decrease in migration intensity in Kosrtoma region and an increase in migration intensity in Kursk region. We compare only migration intensity of the adjacent one-year cohorts at the same age. Thus we can only make the full matching for the ages 15-18, because every single cohort from our choice (1988-1992) lived in this ages during the period 2003-2010.

The author’s hypothesis states that by the means of this analysis we can roughly judge the dynamics of regional center (centers) migration attractiveness.

6. Conclusion

This research focuses on the way the demographic structures form under the influence of migration. In this paper we are consider mainly the internal migration (more intraregional, less interregional) as the key factor. The research is held on the level of municipal districts, which allows us to analyze the intraregional migration dynamics.

We note the increase in the intensity of the centripetal movement in the regions. The pace of the depopulation and ageing in the hinterland is accelerating. The most depressive districts have lost more than 60% of school graduates during the last inter-Census period. Migration proves to be the main factor of changes in the demographic structures.
The remoteness of the peripheral district determines the level of its depressiveness as well as the attractive power of the center. Every big center of migration attraction forms a depressive ring around itself. This is the result of “migration exhaustion”. We can see no sustainable demographic development of Russian hinterland.

At the end of the paper an author’s method of estimating the dynamics in attractiveness of the regional center is given.

7. Acknowledgement

The author of the paper expresses his sincere gratitude to his scientific adviser Nikita Mkrtchan.

Reference


Appendix (links to maps)

The whole gallery of maps (18) can be viewed and downloaded here:

Via Google Drive https://drive.google.com/folderview?id=0B1Cid1hm5YLRRk5oQ09Zd3FJX00&usp=sharing
Via Yandex Disk http://yadi.sk/d/4RNwbvgb6NGoo
Via Dropbox https://www.dropbox.com/sh/uxp809hqos4gyt/po1grLna-w

Maps of Russia one by one (better for watching online):

Mean age of the population, the whole population. https://www.dropbox.com/s/57s5njp4b4ye9ov/Appendix_1-Mean_age.png
Median age of the population, the whole population. https://www.dropbox.com/s/k71a6qey01peeqb/Appendix_2-Median_age_all.png
Median age of the population, male population. https://www.dropbox.com/s/n7iyv0s223yn效力 ef/Appendix_3-Median_age_male.png
Median age of the population, female population. https://www.dropbox.com/s/y07p6iacqekjip2/Appendix_4-Median_age_female.png
Sex ratio, the whole population. https://www.dropbox.com/s/qibwc828i0677/Appendix_5-Sex_Ratio.png
Sex ratio, young population. https://www.dropbox.com/s/zz4hstpx04anr1m/Appendix_6-Sex_Ratio_16-29.png
Young population. https://www.dropbox.com/s/x8rkbmq688c4p/Appendix_7-Young.png
Burden on the working age population. https://www.dropbox.com/s/vhe0ammkfelmzzz/Appendix_8-Burden.png
A Research to Determine the Effects of Emotional Labour on Emotional Exhaustion and Job Satisfaction: The Case of Health Institutions

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Abstract
This study is to examine the relationship between emotional labour which is defined as workers’ exhibiting appropriate emotions designated by the organization towards the customers of the organization, and emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. In this context a field study was conducted on the employees of a health institution operating in the province of Konya. As a result of this study, it is found that there is a statistically significant relationship between emotional labour and emotional exhaustion. Also, it was found that job satisfaction was decreasing as emotional exhaustion levels were increasing and there was a statistically significant relationship between emotional labour level and job satisfaction of workers. At the end of study, it was determined that there was a statistically significant relationship between emotional labor and emotional exhaustion and that the levels of emotional labor of the employees, whose the level of job satisfaction are high.

Keywords: Emotional Labour, Emotional Exhaustion, Job Satisfaction.

1. Introduction

In reaching the success of today’s organizations, besides economic factors, social factors also become important. Therefore, organizations have to consider the emotions of its employees, their internal dynamics, as a value. Considering emotional labor, defined as bringing the emotions into the standards determined by organization and exerting effort in this direction (Oral and Köse, 2011: 465) as a value has a great importance especially in health sector, one of the sectors, where there are intensive relationships with the customer. In an organization like health sector, exerting the emotional labor in high level brings together the positive and negative results on the employees. In the scope of this study, examining the relationships between emotional labor, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction of the employees in a health institute being in active in the province Konya, the positive and negative results of emotional labor will be attempted to be described in the frame of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

2. Conceptual Framework

2.1 Emotional Labor

The concept of emotional labor, considered in the frame of social psychology, handles the emotions in two dimensions organismic and interactive account. According to the organismic view, considered in the perspective of thinkers such as Freud (1911), Darwin (1955) and James (1922), the emotions reveal a sudden reflex depending on instincts and motives. Interactive account, described in the basis of Freudian and Neo-Freudian thought and considered by social psychologists
such as Gert and Mill (1964), Goffman (1956), Lazarus (1966), puts forward that in showing and reflecting the emotions, the role of social factors should be included in the model (Hochschild, 1979: 553-555). In 1983, in the book, called “The Managed Heart”, of Hochschild, this approach was first time defined as emotional labor and has begun to develop. Hochschild (1983: 7) defined the emotional labor as making a facial and physical indication, arranging the emotions, as a necessity of job, so that the others can see them.

When the literature of emotional labor is examined, it is seen that emotional labor is considered in three dimensions as deep acting, surface acting, and genuine emotions. Deep acting is a process to control of the employee his/her emotions and thoughts as a necessity of indication rules (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 22). Surface acting is that employees, in the frame of the institutional and professional indication rules, fixing their emotions, reflect them on the customer or receiver in different way from the emotions they actually feel (Hochschild, 1983; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 22; Basım and Begenirbaş, 2012: 79). And genuine emotions are expressed that the employee reflects out his/her emotions inherently (Basım and Begenirbaş, 2012: 79).

2.2 Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion, a dimension of burnout, is defined as exhaustion of the emotions and feelings of individual toward the other people (Leiter and Maslach, 1988: 297; Bruce, 2009: 58, Yıldırım and İçeri, 2010: 124). Emotional exhaustion represents the dimension of basic stress of burnout (Maslach and Goldberg, 1998: 64). When the relationship between burnout and emotional labor is examined, burnout is evaluated as an outcome of emotional labor. Grandey (2000), in his study he conducted, in case that in the relationships with the customer, the emotional participation is high, put forward that burnout emerged. Brotheridge and Grandey (2002), in their studies they conducted, determined a positive relationship between the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization of burnout and the dimensions of deep and surface acting of emotional labor. Kim (2008), in the study he conducted, determined a positive relationship between deep acting and depersonalization, considered the sub-dimension of burnout. Similarly, Lee and Ok (2012), in their studies, considered the emotional labor as an emotional effort and put forward that there was a positive relationship between emotional effort and emotional exhaustion.

2.3 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined in the organizational literature in many ways, but the most general definition on job satisfaction is in the form that it is a satisfying or positive emotional state from evaluating of individual his/her job or work experience (Locke, 1976:1300). Job satisfaction is the degree of at which degree the needs and expectations of employee are met. Spector also defined the job satisfaction as at what degree the employees like their jobs (Lee and Ok, 2012: 1103) Job satisfaction is one of the concepts, which emotional labor is most associated with In the studies carried out, while the view that emotional labor negatively affects job satisfaction prevails, there are also some studies suggesting that there are also positive relationships between job satisfaction and emotional labor (Oral and Köse, 2011: 474). Pugliesi (1999), in his study, considered job satisfaction as a behavioral outcome of emotional labor and argued that there was a positive directional relationship between job satisfaction and emotional labor. Yang and Chang (2008), in the study they carried out on clinical nurses, they argued that there was a positive relationship between the dimensions of surface acting and deep acting of emotional labor and job satisfaction.

3. Research Methodology

In this section of the study, information will be given about the aim, hypotheses, and findings of study realized by using the method of survey. In addition, whether or not the results obtained in the study were statistically significant will be assessed and whether or not the hypotheses are confirmed will be tested.

3.1 Method of Study and Sample

In forming the dataset of this study, method of survey was utilized from the method of survey, the study was carried out on the employees of a health institute (since the institute did not permit about publishing its name, in the study, the expression of health institute took place) being in active in the province Konya. In the studies, the data were collected by
means of standard questionnaire prepared by regarding to likert scale and via face to face interviews conducted with the responders. The items in the scale were put in order in the form “1 = I definitely disagree” and “5 = I definitely agree”.

In the study, in determining the points to be included in the sample, convenience sampling method, used in the similar studies (Cui et. al., 2003; Zhou, 2004), was chosen. Convenience sampling, since it provided the possibility to rapidly access to a number of dates, was a preferred method (Nakip, 2003).

In calculating the sample size, Yazıcıoğlu and Erdoğan (2004: 50) were utilized. The authors, for confidentiality value $\alpha = 0.05$ with equation error $\pm 0.05$, and in the condition that the rate of being observed and not being observed of each $x$ variable in the universe is accepted equal, in case of having a sample size of 500 people, calculated the number of survey that should be conducted as 217. In this context, the rate of survey that should be returned is approximately 44%. In the health institution, where the study was carried out, 280 health personnel work and as a result of application made, 128 questionnaires, suitable to asses, were obtained. The return rate, obtained in this context, is approximately 45% and it can be said that this represents the main body.

3.2 The Aim and Hypotheses of the Study

The aim of study is to determine the levels of emotional labor, emotional exhaustion and job performance of the employees of a health institute being in active in health sector in the province Konya and to examine the relationships between the levels of emotional labor, emotional exhaustion, and job performance. In the direction of this aim, the hypotheses developed in the scope of study were put in order as follows.

Hypothesis 1: “There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor and emotional exhaustion of health staff”.

Hypothesis 2: “There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor and job performance of health staff”.

3.3 The Scales Used in the Study

In the study, in order to determine the levels of emotional labor of the employees of health institute, “Scale of Emotional Labor”, including some items of emotional labor scales by Grandey (2000) and Kruml and Geddes (2000), developed by Diefendorff et al. (2005), and adapted to Turkish by Başım and Begenirbaş (2012) was used; in order to measure the level of burnout, “Scale of Burnout”, developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and adapted to Turkish by Ergin (1992); and in order to determine the levels of job satisfaction, “Scale of Job Satisfaction”, developed by Spector (1994) used in their studies.

4. Findings Of Studies

4.1 Specifications of Sample

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of Those Participating in The Study</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>34,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>65,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Titles of Those Participating in the Study</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research Assistant Doctor</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>42,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist Doctor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asst. Prof. Dr.</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assoc. Prof. Dr.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. Dr.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The unit, where those participating in the study work</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic Medicine</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7,5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Findings about Emotional Labor

In order to determine the levels of emotional labor of those participating in the study, the items taking place in Table 1 were asked in the form of 5-point likert scale. In the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “disagreeing at all” and 5 is in the meaning of agreeing in very high level. The results are seen as follows:

Table 2. Level of Emotional Labor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale of Emotional Labor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>While I am engaged in the patients, I pretend to feel self well.</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In order to be able to exhibit the emotions my profession requires, I pretend to take on a masque.</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While I am engaged in the patients, as if I am making a show, I exhibit an extra performance.</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I play act for being able to be interested in the patients appropriately</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While I am performing my profession, I behave as if I feel the emotions I do not feel</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I exhibit the different emotions other than those I actually feel to the patients.</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Surface Acting**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.77</td>
<td>6.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I exert effort to also actually feel the emotions I have to show</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I try to actually experience the emotions I have to show to the patients</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I show an intensive effort in order to be able to feel inside of me</td>
<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In order to be able to feel the emotions I have to show to the patients, I do everything as much as possible</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Deep Acting**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.27</td>
<td>4.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The emotions I showed to the patents spontaneously reveal.</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The emotions I exhibit to the patients are friendly</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The emotions I showed to the patients is the same as those I felt at that moment.</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While I am engaged in the patients, I show false emotions.</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Genuine Emotions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.95</td>
<td>2.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**General Total**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37.55</td>
<td>7.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (i) n=113, (ii) in the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “I definitely disagree” and 5, in the meaning of “I definitely agree” (iii). According to two way Anova Test of Friedman, \( \chi^2=636.045; p<0.001 \); the results are statistically significant.

When Table 2 is examined, it can be said that the answers of participants associated with each dimension predominantly range in the low level. In other words, the levels of emotional labor are low. While the scores on the dimensions of surface acting and deep acting are at low level in the context of scale, genuine emotions is higher compared to the other two dimensions in the context of scale. This case can be evaluated that employees reflect their genuine emotions to their patients in the working environment.

4.3 Findings About Emotional Exhaustion

In order to determine the levels of emotional exhaustion, items taking place in Table 3 were asked in the form of 5-point likert scale. In the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “disagreeing at all” and 5 is in the meaning of agreeing in very high level. The results are seen as follows:

* Cronbach's alpha values of the variables examined after added points related to variables. Cronbach's alpha value of the scale is 0.719. The Cronbach's alpha values show that the scale was highly reliability and possible to use total score by related to item scores of variables.
Table 3. Scale of Emotional Exhaustion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale of Emotional Exhaustion</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I am alienated to my job.</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel myself emotionally exhausted after return from the job.</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I wake up in the morning, I cannot bear to this more</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Striving with the people having problem is really back-breaking</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel being sick of the work I do.</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that my job constrained me.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I work too much on my job.</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directly working with people is creating stress on me.</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I reach at the end of the way.</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Emotional Exhaustion**

\[24.59, 7.78\]

Notes: (i) \(n=107\), (ii) in the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “I definitely disagree” and 5, in the meaning of “I definitely agree” (iii). According to two way Anova Test of Friedman, \(\chi^2=638.976; p<0.001\); the results are statistically significant.

When Table 3 is examined, it can be said that the answers of participants associated with each dimension predominantly range in the low level. When the results in the table are generally assessed, it can be said that the exhaustion occurring in the feelings emotions of the employees working in the health institute is in low level.

4.4 Findings About Job Satisfaction

In order to determine the levels of job satisfaction, items taking place in Table 4 were asked in the form of 5-point likert scale. In the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “disagreeing at all” and 5 is in the meaning of agreeing in very high level. The results are seen as follows:

Table 4. Level of Job Satisfaction of Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale of Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the people I work with.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications seem good within this organization.</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raises are too few and far between.</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor is unfair to me.</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like doing the things I do at work.</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The goals of this organization are not clear to me.</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The benefit package we have is equitable.</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are few rewards for those who work here.</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^*\) Cronbach's alpha values of the variables examined after added points related to variables. Cronbach's alpha value of the scale is 0.800. The Cronbach's alpha values show that the scale was highly reliability and possible to use total score by related to item scores of variables.
I have too much to do at work. 3.38 1.07
I enjoy my coworkers. 3.66 1.15
I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization. 2.85 1.24
I feel a sense of pride in doing my job. 3.87 1.18
I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases. 3.01 1.33
There are benefits we do not have which we should have. 3.02 1.36
I like my supervisor. 3.52 1.21
I have too much paperwork. 3.18 1.21
I don’t feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be. 3.04 1.21
I am satisfied with my chances for promotion. 3.40 1.19
There is too much bickering and fighting at work. 2.73 1.27
My job is enjoyable. 3.67 1.15
Work assignments are not fully explained. 2.87 1.25
Total 112.57 14.96

Notes: (i) n=108, (ii) in the scale, I is in the meaning of “I definitely disagree” and 5, in the meaning of “I definitely agree” (iii) According to two way Anova Test of Friedman, $\chi^2=732.516; p<0.001$; the results are statistically significant.

When the table 4 is examined, it can be said that the evaluations of individuals working in the health institutes on the level of job satisfaction are in the medium level, in other words, that the levels of work satisfaction of the employees are in middle or higher level.

4.5 Hypotheses of Study

The evaluation about hypotheses developed in the context of study will be done in this section. The first hypothesis of this study is to scrutinize whether or not there is a relationship between the level of emotional labor and emotional exhaustion of health staff. In order to evaluate this situation, the correlation level between scales and the level of relationship was calculated by using Pearson correlation coefficient (Table 5).

Table 5. Correlation Matrix for Level of Emotional Labor and Burnout Emotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Surface Acting</th>
<th>Deep Acting</th>
<th>Genuine Emotions</th>
<th>Emotional Labor</th>
<th>Emotional Exhaustion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Surface Acting</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.234(**)</td>
<td>-0.379(**)</td>
<td>-0.794(**)</td>
<td>-0.435(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Deep Acting</strong></td>
<td>0.234(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.051</td>
<td>0.708(**)</td>
<td>0.196(*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genuine Emotions</strong></td>
<td>-0.379(**)</td>
<td>-0.051</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>-0.211(*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotional Labor</strong></td>
<td>-0.794(**)</td>
<td>0.708(**)</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.382(** )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotional Exhaustion</strong></td>
<td>-0.435(**)</td>
<td>0.196(*)</td>
<td>-0.211(*)</td>
<td>0.382(** )</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **p<.001, *p<.05

As seen in correlation matrix in Table 5, there is a statistically significant relationship (p < .001) between the level of emotional labor and burnout emotion. In this case, Hypothesis 1 putting forward that there is a statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor and emotional exhaustion of health staff was accepted.

In the scope of the second hypothesis of the study will be evaluated toward determining the relationship between job satisfaction and emotional labor of health staff. In order to evaluate this situation in similar to the method applied by Dean and Snell (1996), the employees participating in the study, according to the median rule, are divided into two groups. The effect of level of emotional labor of the employees on job satisfaction is seen in Table 6.

---

*Cronbach’s alpha values of the variables examined after added points related to variables. Cronbach’s alpha value of the scale is 0.782. The Cronbach’s alpha values show that the scale was highly reliability and possible to use total score by related to item scores of variables.*
Table 6. The Effect of Level of Emotional Labor of the Employees on Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotional Labor</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Mann Whitney U Tests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (n=65)</td>
<td>High (n=63)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface Acting</td>
<td>11.58</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>-2.167 p &lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep Acting</td>
<td>10.55</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>-1.861 p &lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuine Emotions</td>
<td>12.80</td>
<td>13.11</td>
<td>-0.703 p &gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Labor</td>
<td>34.94</td>
<td>39.11</td>
<td>-2.478 p &lt;.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (i) n=128, (ii) in the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “I definitely disagree” and 5, in the meaning of “I definitely agree”.

When Table 6 is evaluated, it was determined that the levels of emotional labor of the employees, whose the levels of job satisfaction is high, is also high and that these results are statistically significant in the dimension of surface acting and deep acting of emotional labor and generally in the level of emotional labor. It is seen that Hypothesis 2, developed in the way that “There is statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor and job satisfaction of health staff”, is partly supported.

5. Conclusion

In this study, the relationships between the levels of emotional labor and emotional exhaustion of the employees of health institute and their job satisfaction were scrutinized. According to the results of study, it was determined that the levels of emotional labor and job satisfactions of the employees in health institute were in medium level and that their level of emotional exhaustion was in low level. Emotional labor was determined in three sub-dimensions as surface acting, deep acting, and genuine emotions and a statistically significant relationship was determined between these sub-dimensions and emotional exhaustion. It was concluded that there was a negative directional relationship between emotional exhaustion and genuine emotions and that there was a positive directional and statistically significant between the behaviors of surface acting and deep acting.

When the relationship between emotional labor and job satisfaction is examined, it was seen that job satisfaction had positive effects on the level of motional labor. In the sample of the study, it was reached the conclusion that the level of emotional labor of the employees, whose the level of job satisfaction are high, were also high. This situation is in quality supporting the studies carried out in the literature (Yang and Chang, 2008; Kim, 2008; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Lee and Ok, 2012).

In this context, that the further studies, due to some limitation in health sector, are carried out in the different sector in different sample size can be suggested in terms of generalizability of study. Let’s make this explanation different slightly.

References


NATO’s Current Policies on War Against Terrorism

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Abstract

Terrorism can be defined as the systematic use (or threat) of violence for achieving political and religious intentions or intentions pertaining to national liberation, directed to a symbolic target or to a group of victims, causing massive fear in the social group considered as opponent, whom is not necessarily related with the terrorist purpose. Generally, terroristic violence has as target ethnical groups, governments, political parties, corporations and the media. Beside the significant fact that terrorist organizations are smaller in number and restricted in source, compared to population and to the institutions are against off, today they must be taken more than seriously. In this context, it matters knowing terrorism as a concept and at the same time as a phenomenon of our present days. As a phenomenon, which threats constantly and increasingly the international security, it has evidently drawn the attention of international organisms for security preservation. In this issue an important place is reserved to the North Atlantic Organization, which soon after the ‘90s, when many thought of the end of it, saw itself confronting new challenges. In the context of these challenges, NATO had to reorganize its strategic post-Cold War concept. In this line, the discussion will offer a descriptive and analyzing point of view toward developments with a transforming character of the Alliance, in the context of new threats, where the widest attention will be dedicated to war on terrorism. The new environment of security is changing very fast asking for the transformation of the Alliance to be fast and fruitful too.

Keywords: NATO, extremism, terrorism, inter-border crime, cybernetic attacks, antiterrorist operations, intelligence services

1. Introduction

During the beginning of the 90s, terrorism was a common expression used once in a while among scholars of international relations, while today terrorism is continuously mentioned as the topic of the day in NATO’s agenda. NATO has to find the balance between its missions in Europe and the treatment of worldwide threats, threats NATO is confronting nowadays are more real and often very unpredictable. Among these threats an important place belongs to the growing danger of terrorist attacks, which culminated with the events of September 11, 2001.

The basic rule of the North Atlantic Treaty is clearly expressed in the fifth Article of the Treaty. This rule would be taken in consideration immediately following the attacks of September 11, 2001, attacks that brought into NATO’s attention its basic duty: the preservation of stability and security in the Euro-Atlantic area and further. After these events members of the Alliance in collaboration with their partners are co-ordinating their work and efforts for a similar situation not be repeated, as it will be treated further in the discussion.

2. Terrorism – the new challenge of the Western World

Terrorism can be defined as the systematic use (or threat) of violence for achieving political and religious intentions or intentions pertaining to national liberation, directed to a symbolic target or to a group of victims, causing massive fear in the social group considered as opponent, whom is not necessarily related with the terrorist purpose (Hyde, “International terrorism – conceptualization and terminology”, The Institute of Democracy and Interaction for Security Issues-9, p 58). This is not an absolute definition of terrorism because among scholars circulate other ideas about this phenomenon that has a worrying and threatening widespread at the same time. Despite the criminal behavior of terrorists, this behavior is not considered the same in all places: in this context, the understanding of the criminal acts is depended on the political system, because there are states where a criminal act is considered as terrorism and at the same time exist states where
this acts are seen as heroic and vice-versa (Krasniqi, International Terrorism, 2005, p 23). Despite of what is mentioned above we have two elements that define a criminal act as terrorism:

1. First element is related with the degree and the level of the organization of the doer.
2. Second element is related with the structure and the social reaction, respectively toward the act of crime (Krasniqi, International Terrorism, 2005, p 24).

Even though different scholars can mention other elements about the concept of terrorism, these remain second-hand when you notice the expanding tendency of this phenomenon in our century. His threat is serious not only on national but also international level. We have dozens of countries and hundred of cases where terrorism had harsh consequences. Incarnating the situation of anarchy in our present life – turning it more and more into a nightmare – terrorism is related with the kidnapping of business people, killing of political leaders, setting bombs at the embassies or hijacking airplanes etc. (Alexander, “War on Terrorism” Tirana 2004, p 13). Terrorist acts are not something new for the human society, all contrary are used since the earlier times as a form of reaction, protest and profit. Examples of terrorism we can mention the attacks taken by the Jewish religious extremists (at the year 70 of the 1st century), also known as ‘the sikari zealots’, against the Romans in the invaded Jerusalem and in the martyr missions of the ‘hashashins’ (killers) targeting crusaders in the Middle East (11th -13th century) (Alexander, “War on Terrorism”, Tirana 2004, p 16). Since the period of the Roman Empire up to the events of September 11, 2001, this form of violence is being modified continuously becoming dangerous using every day more new options of technology, victimizing, or even threats. Above all terrorism is unpredictable and too dangerous. But its modification is only one side of the coin, as the other side is much more problematic because in almost all historic periods terrorism has been active it has resulted very attractive for the individuals involved in terrorist acts. Must be highlighted that this seduction of being part in a terrorist organization is closely related to the psychological aspect of humans. The recruiting of individuals (men, women, children) is resulting very successful, probably because of the dissatisfaction toward the system, the feeding of nationalist hatred, admiration of figures that after violent acts turn into heroes, but the most interesting part is the idea of self-sacrifice without fearing death as after the action what awaits is heaven. This brain-wash that is being made to the new generation – mainly in the Islamic countries – is probably the main part of the chain, which if broken would considerably reduce the growing trend of terrorism. But this it is not something easy to do! Terrorism acts behind the scenes!

To understand the anonymity of terrorism is sufficient to see the alarming data related to the terrorist attacks. There were 7,294 reported terrorist incidents in 75 different countries in 2012, versus 12,122 in preceding year. These incidents claimed 11,450 lives, caused 21,218 injuries and included 813 abductions. The incidents decreased roughly 40% in the world compared to previous year (CEDAT, Annual Terrorism Report 2012, p 3). The most affected countries according to the number of incidents are as below:

1) Iraq, 2) Pakistan, 3) Afghanistan, 4) India, 5) Yemen, 6) Somalia, 7) Turkey, 8) Columbia, 9) Thailand, 10) Syria etc.

Despite the decrease of numbers, the situation will continue to be a problematic one, also for the fact that in the area of terrorism we have the appearance of WMDs (weapons of mass destruction). Just like terrorists modify themselves without a stop their opponents too need to improve themselves and the methods of predicting, discovering and preventing terrorist acts!

3. NATO, toward a new concept for facing terrorism.

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was created on April 4, 1949, with the signing of the Treaty from ten of the founding European countries and two north-American: Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, Nederland, Norway, and Portugal and Canada together with the United States of America. The main intention of the founding members was to come against the danger of Soviet Union expansion in Europe. With this agreement, all members were dedicated to the fair protection of freedom and security through their political and military means (“NATO summarized”, Atlantic Committee of Albania, p 9). The end of the 20th century the nature of NATO’s challenges changed completely and significantly. Changes of the 90s record a range of events important even to NATO, which for the first time offered help to the Soviet Union and to other European countries that were not members.

NATO’s later policy would be mainly focused in issues of national security. We can mention here: Roman Declaration for Peace and Co-operation (1991), The Peace Partnership (1994), The Washington Summit where it was delineated the New Strategic Concept of NATO for the 21th century (1999). An important stopover of the works of the Alliance would be the Summit of Prague (2002), where it was created Prague’s Dedication on the Abilities in attempt to confront international terrorism as to make decisions related to the conversion of the military abilities of the Alliance (“NATO summarized”, Atlantic Committee of Albania, p 12). In this summit the member states created an Action Plan,
which involved all partner states in exchanging intelligence information and the improvement of the readiness for a possible attack against the civil population with nuclear, chemical or biological weapons.

To come later to the reunion of high level in Istanbul (2004) where NATO’s leaders increased anti-terrorist attempts of the Alliance, with the agreement to improve the exchange of information in the Secret Unit (created after the attacks of September 11) and to develop new protection with advanced technology against terrorist attacks. The Allies agreed to improve the interchange of information in the Secret Unit by revising the present secret structures of NATO and through the Secret Union for Terrorist Threats at the General Headquarters of NATO in Brussels (NATO Public Diplomacy Division “NATO after Istanbul”, p 5). Beside this was created even a mechanism with partner states of the Committee of the Euro-Atlantic partnership and of the Mediterranean Dialogue in order to facilitate the interchange of intelligent information about terrorist threats.

Riga’s Meeting held on November 28-29, 2006 was an important event for NATO. State and government leaders from the 26th members of NATO were gathered for the 8th time since the end of the Cold War, in the capital of one of the new members of NATO. In the meeting were rewritten the directions of NATO’s policies but importance in this study represents the issue of terrorism, which in Riga took more special attention. Member states approved in unanimity that they punish terrorism, whatever being its reasons and appearances and that they will fight all together as long as needed in consistency with the international law and the UNO principles. It was strongly said that the allies would support the dialogue and co-operations with their partners and other international organizations to fight terrorism and highlighted the decisiveness to protect the population, territories, infrastructure and the military forces toward the consequences of terrorist attacks.

In this meeting the ‘Directive’ defined the kinds of operations that the Alliance must be in condition to take over, and the kinds of abilities needed: NATO’s military forces must be leveled, elastic and versatile, and able to do a range of missions, from those with the lowest intensity to those with the highest. The ‘Directive’ underlines the fact that is much probable that NATO should do a great number of war actions even up to the smallest levels (NATO Public Diplomacy Division “NATO after Riga, p 2). The allies agreed to create a New Force of Response of NATO technologically advanced, able to quickly dislocate where needed, to operate as an accelerant and in order to stimulate improvements in the military abilities of the Alliance and their constant transformation. They also supported a scheme for a new military command structure with few people and more efficient (NATO in the 21st century, www.nato.int, p 21). This structure enumerates 25,000 troops, whom can start regrouping five days after the announcement and to preserve fighting action abilities for 30 days or even longer if supplied time after time. The closing proceedings of the Riga’s Summit created the justified submission that the Alliance was being adapted to the security environment of the 21st century through its operations, its transformed abilities of protection and deeper commitment to countries inside and outside the Euro-Atlantic area, and through continuous reforms. Beside these transformations the Alliance has undergone, there are skeptics whom believe that the Alliance in her inner structure has some conflicts among member allies. This cannot be denied, if we take in consideration the fact that the main part is held by the United States while the European allies do not come closer to its capacities. What is needed for a quick reaction can be defined in four basic elements:

1. Big transportation airplanes to dislocate troops in distant battle fields.
2. Bombs and rockets that can be directed precisely hitting enemy targets with a high scale of certainty.
3. A large number of crews for special operations who can operate during the night using particular seeing equipments.
4. A safe and codified interconnection system, in a way that the land and areal units to be unified in a higher technological war while the enemy not being able to hear (Friedman, World in the Time of Terrorism, 2003, p 120)

None of the member states (except the USA) does not fulfills these elements, and for this in Prague was further emphasized that: Transformation needs money, so each state must respond to the basic rule to pay in at the common cashbox 2% of the annual GDP. Not too late, on November 22, 2010 the Alliance delineated the New Strategic Concept, in which it was dedicated a wide area to war on terrorism. In this summit was reconfirmed that the Alliance keeps being the most powerful political and military organization in the world. NATO’s potential is not only military potential. The true power of NATO comes from the combination of the American military power with the economic power of the European countries which gives to the Alliance a universal political character, also a primary role in international relations. The new formula of NATO is expected to be “Active Commitment – Modern Protection”. As far as, is concerned to this new strategic concept entitled “Active Commitment – Modern Protection”, can be said that it contains new elements in correspondence with actual challenges of security, and new characteristics of the old concepts of security. The most special aspects of the New Concept include: the determination of the dangers and challenges of the Alliance, where are
treated the widespread of weapons of mass destruction, extremism, terrorism and inter-border crime, cybernetic attacks and dangers originating from the technological development; the agreement of a consensus to develop the rocket protection and the commitment to have a nuclear power, also the presence of the American nuclear capacity in Europe up to the moment of total reduction of nuclear weapons: the creation of common capacities of the allies to confront new dangers: the improvement and creation of the new capacities to prevent and manage crises, also the after-conflict stabilization and reconstruction co-operating with other international and regional actors: strengthen and development of partnerships, also the execution of the ‘open doors’ politics for new members of the Alliance; the deep reformation and transformation of the Alliance from the perspective of civil and military structures in order to make it more elastic and efficient in accordance with the demands of time, changes that will belong to the military structures dislocated in Europe (“Strategic Concept For the Defense and Security of the Members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization’, November 2010, www.nato.int). As was highlighted by the secretary of NATO, Rasmussen; ‘The danger of the terrorist attacks and many other dangers comprise an international problem. As international problems they require multinational solutions. NATO is the highest multilateral organism for security, which undermines that it can and should give a real contribute. And we are being constructed to do exactly this.’("NATO, the Strategic Concept and the Way Forward”, Keynote address by NATO Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen to the participants of the Lisbon 2010 Young Atlanticist Summit, www.nato.int)

This policy was strengthen even more at the Summit of Chicago May 20, 2012 and is expected to the after summits, maybe during this summer to be emphasized once more the concrete interests of the Alliance, exactly in the course of war on terrorism. Paraphrasing the Summit of Chicago: Terrorism in all its forms and manifestation can never be tolerated or justified. We deplore all loss of life from act of terrorism and extend our sympathies to the victim. We reaffirm our commitment to fight terrorism with unwavering resolve in accordance with international law and the principles of the UN Charter. Today we have endorsed NATO’s Policy Guidelines on Counter – Terrorism and task the council to prepare an Action Plan to further enhance NATO’s ability to prevent, deter, and respond to terrorism by identifying initiatives to enhance our threat awareness, capabilities, and engagement (Chicago Summit Declaration, www.nato.int) Nowadays world has become very insecure. Terrorism has knows no limits, nations, states or religion, it just exists and has no intention for peace. The Alliance is determined to fight with all possible means.

4. The politics of confronting terrorism

Nowadays the importance of terrorism does not stand at the number of victims – in many cases wars or conflicts cause more victims , without bringing any reaction – but at the fact that its beginning in world scale makes possible to enter into another epoch of war and hostility. Global terrorism has nothing to do with the traditional partisan. Opposing the partisan, a terrorist does not want to take over the power or to physically control a territory as a logistic base or a recruitment zone. He does an asymmetric war, where more importance has the computer and telephone rather than weapons and ammunition. By usually hitting military people and civil, he intends the destruction of the enemies positions, without following at all ‘resistance without a leader’, so without having a vertical control and a centralized command, without following in this case the distinctions of a traditional war, a classic war. Their front is never reachable: in every place or nowhere. Their action has no territorial residence, neither clear geographical lines. Their realm is much more space than earth. But above all the greatest importance is psychological. To cause fear, anxiety and doubt, to hit imagination for another course of war on terrorism. Paraphrasing the Summit of Chicago: Terrorism in all its forms and manifestation can never be tolerated or justified. We deplore all loss of life from act of terrorism and extend our sympathies to the victim. We reaffirm our commitment to fight terrorism with unwavering resolve in accordance with international law and the principles of the UN Charter. Today we have endorsed NATO’s Policy Guidelines on Counter – Terrorism and task the council to prepare an Action Plan to further enhance NATO’s ability to prevent, deter, and respond to terrorism by identifying initiatives to enhance our threat awareness, capabilities, and engagement (Chicago Summit Declaration, www.nato.int) Nowadays world has become very insecure. Terrorism has knows no limits, nations, states or religion, it just exists and has no intention for peace. The Alliance is determined to fight with all possible means.
eliminate any kind of emersion of unpredictable violence.

NATO’s mission map, all over the world (www.nato.int)

NATO’s contribution in the war on terrorism is present in many areas and many ways.

First of all, NATO is a permanent consultant committee, in the state to transform discussions into collective decisions.

Secondly, NATO is supported from military abilities and forces in concordance with Alliance’s dispositions.

Thirdly, NATO is part of a wide system of partnership where are included other states and international organizations (NATO’s Manual, NATO 2006)

In the frame of these roles the Alliance takes over to play in an international level, its work today is reflected in a range of missions all around the world (turning down the concept of geographic limitation) in supporting peace, development and collaboration.

As a response to these initiatives NATO has mobilized force as part of a wide system of partnership, involving other countries and international organizations as well. In this course, NATO leads a large number of operations and supports many initiatives to fight terrorism as it is presented below:

NATO’s operations.

Operation Active Endeavour (OAE) is a maritime surveillance operation led by NATO’s naval forces to detect, deter and protect against terrorist activity in the Mediterranean through monitoring, patrolling, escorting and compliant boarding. Initially limited to the Eastern Mediterranean, OAE was extended to the entire Mediterranean from March 2004. Managing the consequences of terrorist attacks. Consequence management involves reactive measures to mitigate the destructive effects of terrorist attacks, incidents and natural disasters. Improved intelligence-sharing. Since 11 September 2001, NATO has thought to increase consultations on terrorism and terrorism-related issues among its members, as well as with non-member countries. Information-sharing and, more specifically, intelligence-sharing are key aspects of this exchange.

The Partnership Action Plan against Terrorism (PAP-T.) The PAP-T was adopted at the Prague Summit in November 2002 drawing on the spirit of 12 September 2001, when the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC)
condemned the attacks on New York and Washington D.C. the previous day and offered the support of all 46 EAPC members to the United States.

The Defense against Terrorism Program of Work. The Defense against Terrorism (DAT) Program of Work was developed by the Conference of National Armaments Directors (CNAD) in May 2004. It was later approved as part of an enhanced set of measures to strengthen the Alliance’s fight against terrorism at the Istanbul Summit in June 2004. NATO’s DAT POW uses new or adapted technologies or methods to detect, disrupt and defeat asymmetric threats under three capability umbrellas:

1. Incident Management.
2. Force Protection/Survivability

5. Concluding remarks

- Today NATO’s war frame has completely changed. Old methods of respond are no longer resultant, as the next step is difficult to be predicted. For that, today are being exploited at the maximum diplomatic efforts, financial forms, intelligent services, highlighted aspects of the psychological war etc.
- NATO’s efforts for reacting toward new threats will start with the Peace Declaration of Rome (1991) and will come up to our present days, strengthen summit after summit.
- In Riga the member states (26 at that time) declared that they decisively punish terrorism. Now fulfilled in ideas, the Alliance had to execute these ideas. In order for this to be done the ‘Directive’ assigned the kinds of operations the Alliance had to commit in its war on terrorism.
- However, what was about to characterize NATO in the present days and the decade we are living, was made clear in Summit of Lisbon and strengthen at the Summit of Chicago. These two summits were characterized by a collaboration that reconfirmed the commitment of member states and other partners of the Alliance in the area of international security. The new formula of NATO is expected to be “Active Commitment – Modern Protection”.
- NATO has established a range of programs, for being a help to prevent terrorism (or manage its consequences). We can mention: The Action Plan against Terrorism, Science for Peace and Security (SPS), and a range of training courses and conferences among member states and partners that support anti-terrorist targets.
- As a support operate even missions on field, which give their direct or indirect contribution. A first hand importance is given to, the Operation Active Endeavour (OAE), managing the consequences of terrorist attacks, the Partnership Action Plan against Terrorism (PAP-T.), The Defense Against Terrorism Program of Work etc.
- Day after day, NATO is becoming an organization with a global character.

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Mathematical Model of Opinion Dynamics in Social Groups

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Abstract

Mathematical models describing relationships in a group of individuals are known for a long time. The basic idea underlying these models can be described as follows. There are affective (emotionally colored) not necessarily symmetrical relationships between any two members of the group. In general, these relationships vary over time and can be described by numerical functions of time. The value of the corresponding function is positive if the first individual has a positive attitude toward the second one and negative if the attitude is negative. While interacting, two individuals share their views on other members of the group. It affects the dynamics of group relationships. At the same time, the model uses principles such as “if the person whom I dislike says something unpleasant about a third person then I improve my opinion of this third person.” This paper also deals with the modeling of group interactions, with the difference that the considered interactions have features of mass (not paired) communications, i.e., the opinion of each individual is equally available to all the others (at the same time, affective relations are paired). This situation occurs, for example, in communities of users of internet forums and blogging platforms. Another important difference is due to the fact that individuals do not discuss other members of the group, but discuss various issues on the topic (e.g., political) of interest to all members of the group. The results of numerical experiments for the system are presented and a number of substantial conclusions are formulated.

Keywords: mathematical modeling; group dynamics; political positions; pre-election programs.

1. Introduction

This paper deals with the development of a dynamic model of proximity positions of participants in closed groups who express their opinion on given set of questions.

Consider a group with a fixed number of participants (i.e., closed), discussing a number of issues in a way that everyone’s opinion is immediately available to everyone else. The position of the participants may change over time under the influence of statements of other members of the group. There’re affective relationships between participants (one may be positive or negative to the other), which, in particular, influence individuals to change their positions on the issues. These relationships may also change over time.

An example of such interactions could be discussions on forums, online communities, etc. Due to the significant development of the popularity of the exchange of positions in the Internet, it becomes particularly important to study the interactions of this type, using the methods of mathematical modeling.
Mathematical models of group dynamics are studied for at least 70 years of the twentieth century, they deal with the processes of changing individual positions under the influence of the discussions within a closed group. We present several simulation results of steady (static) group relations. According to the theory of structural balance proposed by F. Heider, a member of the group will be in a state of cognitive balance if his relations in each of the triad to which he belongs to have one of the following forms: a friend of a friend is my friend (R1), the foe of my foe is my friend (R2), a friend of my foe is my foe (R3), the foe of my friend is my foe (R4). From the Heider's theory, the stable triads are those in which all participants are close to each other, or two close to each other and are far from the third. In Heider-Cartwright-Harary Theorem, it's shown that in the group in which the participants share their opinions (positive or negative) pairwise, the steady state leads to the partition into two stable subgroups.

The J. Davis's balance is a generalization of the concept of the previous balance. It is based on an assumption that the triad will also be stable in the case when all the participants are foes. Such approach allows to model situations with the several antagonistic sub-groups that are in a stable condition.

For the model proposed in this paper, a priori, it was not obvious what type of balance it is implemented, more specific or more general. The study revealed that the model belongs to the more general type (the above-cited model of Davis), which allows to implement a wider class of stable states.

The closest dynamic models to the proposed one are the models of J. Hunter, V. Kovchegov, P. Killworth-G. Bernard. We can also mention the work of D.A. Gubanov, D.A. Novikov, A.G. Chkhartishvili, which deals with the dissemination of information in social networks.

The main feature of these study is that we consider not only the pairwise relations. The opinion of each individual's available to everyone else – these are the mass communications' features. At the same time, each of the individual has his own opinion (positive or negative) to another, so that there is the type for group modeling – mass-pairwise communication.

The second part of the paper is devoted to obtaining data for the saturation of model. The main values that underpin the model – are the relationship between the individuals (subjective distance at which one perceives the other), and their positions on each of the discussed issues.

The measurement of the relationship between individuals in groups could be found in empirical work on sociometry, for example, articles by J. Moreno and later works. In the present study, the new approaches to the measurement of the relationship between individuals are not offered.

There are a number of methods to measure the proximity of positions in case if participants discuss political issues only. For example, there are lots of methods based on the analysis of voting results (see, e.g. various American methods.). Speaking on the analysis of the positions expressed in political texts, we can state that the traditional methods are based on the use of variations on the content analysis, which requires expert evaluation. In particular, one of the most well-known methods of analysis of political programs is represented in the project "Manifesto", its basic element is a special classifier. There are other methods based on content analysis.

It is natural to start developing the way of non-expert measuring the position'proximity. The method suggested in this paper based on the analysis of political texts using latent semantic analysis (LSA). The applying this method became possible because of the proposed hypothesis that the texts that express similar positions (e.g., political) will be syntagmatically close. Syntagmatic proximity, in turn, is the basis of the LSA.

Purpose - to the construction and study of mathematical models of the dynamics near a closed group of participants' positions and openly express their opinions on a fixed set of questions.

2. Construction and study of the mathematical model

We consider a closed group of individuals $K$, discussing $N$ issues. We assume that $x_i(t) \geq 0$ characterizes the subjective distance of the individual $i$th to the $j$th; $z_{i,j}^n(t) \in \mathbb{R}$ – position of the individual $i$th on $n$th issue at time $t$. The variable $x_i(t)$ should be understood an aggregated value that characterizes the subjective distance at which one participant perceives himself to the other, while, in general, $x_i(t) \neq x_i(t)$. We assume that the subjective distance of a participant in relation to himself is zero: $x_i(t) = 0$, $i = 1, ..., K$.

The position $z_{i,j}^n(t)$ can be understood as a positive or negative attitude of a participant towards to the discussed problem.

According to the condition of the model, the participants express their positions publicly, which leads to the changing of relationship between them and their positions afterward. Our model will be based on the following assumptions about the connection between the subjective distances and positions:
1. the position on the $n$th issue at time $t$ are considered to be close enough to improve relations between the participants, when $|z^n_i(t) - z^n_j(t)| < a$, where $a$ is some given positive parameter;
2. if it is true for most of the discussed issues then the subjective distance decreases: $dx_{ij}(t) / dt < 0$;
3. the positions on the issues of the $i$th participant are attracted to positions of $k$th participant if they are within a zone of its perception as a like-minded person: $x_k < R_i$, where $R_i > 0$;
4. the influence of other participants are added together.

These assumptions are written as the following equations of the model: (1)-(3)

$$\frac{dx_{ij}}{dt} = y_i x_{ij}(t) \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha^n_i \left[ (z^n_i(t) - z^n_j(t))^2 - a^2 \right]$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

$$\frac{dz^n_i}{dt} = \sigma_i \sum_{j=1}^{K} \beta^n_{ij} (z^n_j(t) - z^n_i(t))(R_i - x_{ij}(t))$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

$$\begin{align*}
    x_{ij}(0) &= x_{0ij}, \quad z^n_i(0) = z^n_{0i} \\
    i, j &= 1, \ldots, K, \quad i \neq j, \quad n = 1, \ldots, N.
\end{align*}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

Parameter $\alpha^n_i$ describes the subjective importance of the $n$th issue for the $i$th individual, $\sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha^n_i = 1$, and the parameter $y_i \geq 0$ characterizes the individual in terms of how quickly or slowly he is changing his attitude to other members of the group.

The parameter $\sigma_i \geq 0$ describes the propensity of an individual to change his positions, and the parameter $R_i > 0$ describes how close participants should be to perceive them as like-minded people. The impact on the position of the $i$th individual on the $n$th issue of all the other individuals are summarized with coefficients $\beta^n_{ij} \geq 0$, normalized so that $\sum_{j=1}^{K} \beta^n_{ij} = 1$.

Thus, the system of equations modeling the dynamics of positions has the form (1), (2) and represents a Cauchy problem with initial conditions (3). Generally, the system has $K(K-1) + KN$ equations.

We introduce an additional character. Let $y^n_i(t) = z^n_i(t) - \bar{z}^n_i(t)$, $i = 2, \ldots, K, \quad n = 1, \ldots, N$. Then the system (1)-(2) can be rewritten as follows:

$$\frac{dx_{ij}}{dt} = \gamma_i x_{ij} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha^n_i \left[ (y^n_j)^2 - a^2 \right], \quad j = 2, \ldots, K$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

$$\frac{dx_{ii}}{dt} = \gamma_i x_{ii} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha^n_i \left[ (y^n_i)^2 - a^2 \right], \quad i = 2, \ldots, K$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

$$\frac{dy^n_i}{dt} = \gamma_i x_{ij} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha^n_i \left[ (y^n_j - y^n_i)^2 - a^2 \right], \quad i, j = 2, \ldots, K$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

$$\begin{align*}
    \frac{dy^n_i}{dt} &= -\sigma_i \beta^n_{ii} y^n_i (R_i - x_{ii}) \\
    &\quad + \sigma_i \sum_{j=2}^{K} \beta^n_{ij} (y^n_j - y^n_i)(R_i - x_{ij}) - \sigma_i \sum_{j=2}^{K} \beta^n_{ij} (y^n_i)(R_i - x_{ij}), \\
    &\quad i = 2, \ldots, K, \quad n = 1, \ldots, N.
\end{align*}$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

Definition 1. Define consent state of (4)-(7) its steady state solution where $x_{ij} = x_{ji} = 0$, $i$, $j = 1, \ldots, K$, $y^n_i = 0$, $i = 2, \ldots, K$, $n = 1, \ldots, N$.

The definition should be understood as follows: in the consent state everyone believes the other is a like-minded, and they have the same position on all issues.

Theorem 1 (the stability of the steady state). Suppose that the system (4)-(7) is so that all the coefficients $\alpha^n_i$, $\beta^n_{ij}$, $\gamma_i$, $\sigma_i$, $\alpha$, $R_i$, where $i, j = 1, \ldots, K$, $n = 1, \ldots, N$, are positive. Then the consent state of the system is asymptotically stable.

Consider the problem
where $y = z_1^2 - z_2^2$ and $x_{10} > R, x_{21} > R, y_0 > a$.

Theorem 2 (of disagreement). Let the coefficients $y_1, y_2, \sigma, a, R$ be positive and let $T > 0$ – be a number such that the solution of the Cauchy problem (8)-(11) exists in the interval $0 \leq t \leq T$. Then the inequalities

$$x_1(t) > \alpha_1(t), \quad \alpha_1(t) = x_1(0) \exp\left[ y_1(y_2(0) - a^2) t \right]$$

$$x_2(t) > \alpha_2(t), \quad \alpha_2(t) = x_2(0) \exp\left[ y_2(y_2(0) - a^2) t \right]$$

$$y(t) > \alpha_3(t), \quad \alpha_3(t) = y(0) \exp\left[ \sigma(x_1(0) + x_2(0) - 2R) t \right]$$

are true for all $t: 0 < t \leq T$.

The meaning of Theorem 2 can be explained as follows: in the conditions of the theorem, positions and relations of participants to each other diverge. The divergence is interpreted as a failure for participants to have similar positions in the given system if the number of variables is fixed (the participants can get close only if a new element will be added to the system, e.g. a new participant).

Numerical simulation were produced using the Runge-Kutta RK4 methods of (1)-(3) for different initial conditions.

1. It is shown that if the number of participants $(K) = 3$, and the number of discussed issues $(N) = 1$, then the following stable states are realized: all the distances between the participants are close to each other, or between two are close, but not to the third one (see Fig. 1).

2. If $K = 4$, $N = 1$, the following stable states are realized: all distances between the participants are close, the distances between the three are close, the distances of the two pairs are close, the distance is close only in one pair.

Thus, it’s shown that the model corresponds to the traditional models of group dynamics (eventually, the relations between participants are established in a way of not making dissonance) and the possibility of realizing more than two stable states is demonstrated (as in the approach of J. Davis).

3. Measuring the proximity of political positions

Note that the system (1)-(3), which describes the discussed model, has the values of two types: 1) $x_i(t)$ – the subjective distance from $i$th participant to the $j$th 2) the difference $z_i^n(t) - z_j^n(t)$ – the position’s proximity between the $i$th and $j$th participants on the $n$th issue.
The first value $x_{ij}(t)$ is measured by sociometric and psychological methods in a fairly well-developed science area that is being developed since the XIX century.

The second value $z_{ij}(t) - z_{ji}(t)$ is traditionally measured by methods based on content analysis, which requires the use of expert judgment (for example, in the project "Manifesto"). The paper proposes an alternative method of determining the proximity of political positions expressed in the texts.

The technique consists in determining the proximity of positions by analyzing syntagmatic proximity of texts that express these positions. Syntagmatic approach to measuring distances in the text is understanding the meaning of words through the context in which it is used. In this case, the distance is measured by comparing syntagmatic properties. This approach has been implemented in the method of latent semantic analysis (LSA), the patented method proposed by American scientists. LSA is based on "the hypothesis that between the individual words and generalized context (sentences, paragraphs and whole texts) in which they are found, there is an implicit (latent) relationship, causing a set of mutual constraints." The underlying assumption is that these relationships are different in the texts, expressing different political positions. So, it is easy to imagine that the name of the politician is generally used in a positive way by his supporters, and in the negative by his opponents. This applies not only to the names and the names of the parties, but also to certain political events, projects, etc. Thereby expressing the political position of the text can be classified by highlighting the context in which the individual words are immersed in these texts.

The basis for the application of the method of latent semantic analysis is the proposed hypothesis:

Hypothesis. The proximity of political positions is related to the syntagmatic proximity of the texts (fragments forming the texts), expressing these positions.

In contrast to the traditional method of using LSA, the additional preprocessing of the texts is conducted – lemmatization and removal of specially selected stop words (words that do not have the semantic weight).

4. Experiments on measurement the proximity of political positions

A software package that uses the proposed empirical method of non-expert numerical measurements of political positions' proximity has been developed. By means of the developed software package pre-election programs of political parties in the elections of the 2007th and the 2011th years in the State Duma of the Federal Assembly of Russia have been analyzed.

Comparisons were made for the four parties: Edinaja Rossija, the Communist Party, the Liberal Democratic Party, Yabloko. Three of them are traditionally represented in the State Duma, we have also included the program of Yabloko, as the party has a reputation as the "most unlike" to the other three. This expected "otherness" was the reason that a special part of the paper is the comparison of Edinaja Rossija and Yabloko. Pre-election programs (except these four) of other parties may also be included in the review, the method does not contain any restrictions on the number of party programs studied.

One way to present the results of the analysis is to construct a diagram similar to those shown in Fig. 2. Each chunk corresponds to one row and one column of the diagram. A cell located at the intersection, for example, the 10th row and 25th column (the same as cell 25th row and 10th column) describes the syntagmatic proximity between 10th and 25th chunks. At the same time, the more syntagmatically close are the two chunks, the darker will be the cell.

Fig. 2. Diagram of similarity for the programs Edinaja Rossija and Yabloko in 2007
On Fig. 2 chunks 1-15 belong to the program of Edinaja Rossija (ER), chunks 16-46 – the program of the party “Yabloko”. Dark square, made up of rows and columns 1-15, shows a high syntagmatic proximity of the chunks and in accordance with the proposed hypothesis – the proximity of political positions expressed in these chunks. The diagram also shows that the program of Yabloko distinguishes two parts, each of which has a higher internal connection than the program as a whole. The boundary between them is on the 30th chunk. A more detailed analysis has shown that it corresponds to the boundary of sections II "The alternative – the welfare state" and III "The well-being for everyone" of Yabloko program.

The ER program (chunks 1-15) is clearly separated from the Yabloko program in which there are two internally connected parts, relevant to sections I, II (16-30 chunks), and section III (31-46 chunks).

At the congress of Edinaja Rossija it was decided to consider the texts of Dmitry Medvedev’s and Vladimir Putin’s speeches to be the electoral program in the 2011th. A priori, one would assume that Medvedev’s speech, who has the reputation of a liberal, would be closer to the Yabloko program than Putin’s speech. However, latent semantic analysis shows (Fig. 3 shows only the rows that match Yabloko program) this statement not to be true: the intersection of columns 1-11, related to Medvedev’s text and rows 41-67, related to the Yabloko party has a lighter tone than the intersection of columns related to the text of Putin and the lines related to the text of Yabloko party.

![Fig. 3. Similarity diagram of Edinaja Rossija and Yabloko pre-election programs in 2011 (only the rows that match the Yabloko program are shown)](image)

The comparison of Communist Party of Russian Federation program (CPRF) and ER program in the 2011th shows in particular that they are poorly distinguishable if we take ER program as a whole. If we consider (Fig. 4) the correlation of lines 1-26 (CPRF) separately to columns 27-37 (Medvedev) and 38-64 (Putin), we can see the dissimilarity of the program of the Communist Party with Medvedev’s speech, high affinity with the first part and the dissimilarity with the last part of Putin’s speech.

![Fig. 4. Similarity diagram of CPRF and Edinaja Rossija pre-election programs in 2011 (only the rows that match the CPRF program are shown)](image)

We denote the syntagmatic distance between the \(i\)th and \(j\)th chunks as \(r_{ij}\), and define:

\[
A = \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \sum_{j=1}^{N_2} \frac{1 + r_{ij}}{2} + \sum_{i=N_1+1}^{N_1+N_3} \sum_{j=N_1+1}^{N_2+N_3} \frac{1 + r_{ij}}{2} \\
B = \frac{1}{N_1 N_2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \sum_{j=N_1+1}^{N_2+N_3} \frac{1 + r_{ij}}{2} 
\]

\[(12), \quad (13)\]
Definition 2. A measure of the syntagmatic proximity of programs is the value $R = \frac{200 B}{A}$.

Thus calculated values $R$ for the pre-election programs of four Russian parties in the 2007 and 2011 elections are shown in the Table 1 and Table 2.

**Tab. 1.** Syntagmatic proximity of pre-election programs in 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>ER</th>
<th>CPRF</th>
<th>LDPR</th>
<th>Yabloko</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ERP</td>
<td>LDPR</td>
<td>Yabloko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ER</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPRF</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDPR</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yabloko</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tab. 2.** Syntagmatic proximity of pre-election programs in 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>ER</th>
<th>CPRF</th>
<th>LDPR</th>
<th>Yabloko</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ERP</td>
<td>LDPR</td>
<td>Yabloko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ER</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPRF</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDPR</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yabloko</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the method of hierarchical clustering an analysis of data in Table 1, 2 has been made: which programs are the closest and the most distant. The results are shown in Fig. 5.

**Fig. 5.** The structure of syntagmatic proximity of programs in 2007 и 2011

Thus, in the pre-election campaign in 2007 the closest programs were the programs of ER and the Communist Party, and the most distant from the others was the Yabloko program. In the campaign of 2011 was a certain restructuring: the closest programs were the programs of Communist Party and the Liberal Democratic Party, and the most distant from the others was ER program. Overall, the 2011 programs of the different parties have become more similar to one another than in 2007.

5. **Acknowledgement**

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The Prevalence of Overweight and Obesity among 7-8 Years Old Children of Tirana City

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Abstract

This topic intends to bring to the attention of the audience data on the situation of one of the components of fitness to children, on Body Composition. The study aims to observe contemporary trends of overweight and obesity among children of 7-8 years old evaluating the prevalence of this phenomenon. The subjects of the study are 1500 primary school children in Tirana, capital of Albania. The methodology is based on the measurement of fat percentage. Data analysis brings to attention a least favorable situation with regard to the prevalence of this phenomenon in this age group. If the body composition is not in appropriate reports, the child does not enjoy the fitness condition. Moreover, overweight and obesity are associated with serious complications and diseases in childhood, while overweight and obese children tend to become overweight and obese adults risking numerous diseases. The genetic predisposition factor and the daily dietary intake (the way of nutrition) have not changed over the last decades, while the indicators of overweight and obesity have increased in value, making daily physical inactivity the main cause for the rapid growth of this phenomenon at this age. A child who regularly practices physical activity, when he will grow up, will be much more favored than those who rarely or never practice it, he would have won a state of optimal body composition, will be able to afford daily requirements with the desire and energy, enjoying the so-called FITNESS.

Keywords: prevalence, body composition, fitness, obesity, physical inactivity.

1. Introduction

The number of overweight or obese people has significantly increased in recent decades. Results of recent scientific studies show that the prevalence of obesity has increased dramatically worldwide, this problem is significantly affecting all ages, adults as well as children. Data on the prevalence of obesity in the world of the World Health Association through MONICA project (Monitoring of trends and determinants in cardiovascular Diseases study) indicate that in most European countries, the prevalence of obesity has registered an increase of 10 to 40% in the last 10 years, varied between 10-20% of men and 10-25% among women1. But this phenomenon is already widespread in many countries even in those in the path of development like Albania, by expanding dangerously the prevalence map, being transformed into a real pandemic.

Obesity is an abnormal accumulation ever-increasing of the adipose tissue in that levels that are harmful to health. This condition use to be considered as a predisposition for diseases, but nowadays it is considered as a disease in itself by the specialists of Public Health and Physical Education, one of the their work priorities is the promotion of the fitness.

According to the President of the American Council of Physical Fitness and Health, fitness is: “The ability to perform daily tasks vigorously and alertly, with energy left over for enjoying leisure-time activities and meeting emergency demands. Is the ability to endure, to bear up, to withstand stress, to carry on in circumstances where an unfit person could not continue, and is a major basis for good health and well-being”2. Also, the American National Association of Sports and Physical Education fitness describes fitness as “a condition where the body is in a state of well-being and really able to meet the physical challenges of everyday life”3. The components of fitness in children are: cardio-respiratory endurance (aerobic capacity), muscular strength, muscular resistance, flexibility and body composition, the observation and study of which is very important nowadays. Body composition is the final component of fitness. This concept is associated with the percentage of fat, muscle tissue and bone, in other words the ratio of lean tissue to fat.

1Journal of Clinical Epidemiology, Volume 41, issue 2 (1988), p. 105-114.ISSN: 0895-4356 DOI: 10.1016/0895-4356(88)90084-4 Elsevier Science
2Rae PiCA “Physical Education for Young Children” (Human Kinetics 2008)
Body composition is an important indicator of human health and his physical fitness. Also this is an opportunity to judge whether if an individual is overweight or obese although not appears so\(^4\). The obesity can be caused by many factors, such as genetic predisposition, low physical activity and non healthy eating habits. As implied, the determination of body composition is important for the assessment of physical fitness in relation to body weight.

In some elementary schools of Tirana city was conducted a remained at study, the purpose of which was to observe the prevalence of overweight and obesity among 7-8 years old children, and to collect data about Body Composition as one of the components of fitness to children. The methodology used was based on anthropometric skin fold measuring of fat percentage also known as the *pinch test*. By using a caliper, respective values of skin folds were measured, (figure 1 and 2) in the triceps and subscapulare area, to perform the relevant calculations for each subject. Calculation of fat percentage was made using the equation: \(1.35 \times (\text{triceps} + \text{subscapular})^2 - 0.012 \times (\text{triceps} + \text{subscapular})^2 - \text{constant (3.4 males and 1.3 females)}\)\(^5\).

The subjects of this study were 1503 7-8 years old children, students from 11 elementary schools located in different urban areas of the capital (pre-urban and center), "Kongresi i Manastirit", "Osman Myderizi" "26 Nëntori ", "Mihal Grameno ", " 1 Maj ", "Emin Duraku ", Avni Rustem, "Konference e Pezës", "Dora d'Istria", "Gustav Mayer" and "7 Marsi". From 1503 children tested, 796 (52\%) of them were male and 707 (48\%) were women, 735 of them form the schools of the center and 768 children from the pre-urban schools. This selection was made in order to ensure a demographic distribution of the subjects tested, to aim to as possible real information, while one of the goals of the study was the comparison and the confrontation of the results between schools from different residential areas, referring to the different lifestyle.

From the data analysis turns out that: in total (males and females) the fat percentage average was 16\%, with the maximum value of the data string 36.5\%, the minimum value 5\% and mode 11.3\%. Referring to the fat percentage Level Chart (Figure 3), 484 children (≈ 62\%) were in the normal values of fat percentage, 371 (≈ 24.9\%) were overweight and obese, 15.9\% of these were females (fat percentage value from 25.9 to 36.5\%) and 8.7\% were males (with fat percentage value from 20.9 to 34.6\%). 198 subjects (≈ 13.1\%) were at limits of risk with percentage values from 20 to 24.9\% fat, 8.5\% of these were females and 4.6\% were males.(Chart 1)

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\(^4\) Rae PiCA “Physical Education for Young Children” (Human Kinetics 2008)

At females, the average fat percentage was 18.9%, with the maximum value of the data string 36.5%, the minimum 7.2% and mode 14.9%. From 707 subjects, 338 (≈ 47.9%) were in normal values of fat percentage, 240 (≈ 33.9%) fat percentage values 25.9 to 36.5% (overweight and obese) and 129 (≈ 18.2%) in values from 25 to 25.9% (in risk limits). In males the average fat percentage was 15.9%, with the maximum value of the data string 34.9%, the minimum 5% and mode 10.9%. From 796 subjects, 569 (≈ 75%) were in the normal values of percentage fat, 131 (≈ 16.4%) fat percentage values 20.9 to 34.6% (overweight and obese) and 96 (≈ 8.6%) in values from 20 to 20.9% (in the limits of risk).

If we compare the data between schools from pre-urbane areas and schools from the center, from 337 female subjects from pre-urban schools, 273 (55.5%) were in normal values of the percentage fat, 64 (≈ 18.9%) obese and overweight 73 (≈ 21.6%) in the risk limits. From 370 female subjects from center schools, 196 (≈ 53%) were in normal values of fat percentage, 118 (≈ 31.9%) overweight and obese, and 56 (≈ 15.1%) in the risk limits. Chart 3

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6 Agostini A. PhD, The Coalition To Defeat Childhood Obesity, Inc.(501c3) “Children And Adolescents Body Fat Percentage (%) Levels” (This Level Chart prepared by Dr.A.Agostini for The Coalition To Defeat Childhood Obesity,Inc.(non-profit),based on information provided by Tanita Ltd.)
From 431 pre-urban male subjects, 341 (≈ 79.2%) were in normal values of fat percentage, 57 (≈ 13.2%) overweight and obese, and 33 (≈ 7.6%) in the risk limits. From 365 center male subjects, 255 (≈ 70%) were in normal values of percentage fat, 74 (≈ 20.2%) overweight and obese, and 36 (≈ 9.8%) in the risk limits. Chart 4

From 768 male and female pre-urban subjects ≈ 70.5% of them were in normal values of fat percentage, ≈ 15.7% were overweight and obese, and ≈ 13.8% in the risk limits. From 735 male and female center subjects ≈ 61.4% of them were in normal values of fat percentage, ≈ 26.1% were overweight and obese, and ≈ 12.5% in the risk limits. Chart 5
Referring to the above information:

- The fat percentage average in 1503 subjects tested (7-8 years old children) was 16%, 18.9% to female subject and 15.9% to male subjects.
- The maximum value of the string is 36.5% at female subjects (second grade of the obesity) and 34.9% male subjects (second grade of the obesity).
- A high prevalence of overweight and obesity among the test group, 24.9% of the tested subjects (males and females) were overweight or obese and 13.1% are risking limits to be transformed in overweight individuals.
- Of these 15.9% were females and 8.7% were males, and in risk limits 8.5% were females and 4.6% were males.
- The number of overweight and obese children in the central area is higher than in pre-urban areas, (males and females).
- The number of children with fat percentage in risking limits although the non significant difference was higher among the pre-urban subjects (males and females).

2. Conclusions

Although evaluation methods and systems of reference to define the obesity may vary from survey to survey, all studies confirm the rapid growth in the prevalence of overweight and obesity among children and adolescents in many European countries in recent decades, including developing countries such as Albania. The data on overweight and obesity in the presented study indicate a not favorable situation referring to our children in basic education (in elementary schools of the city of Tirana). 24.9% of the tested subjects (males, females) were overweight or obese, and 13.1% were in the risk limits to be transformed in overweight individuals, of which 15.9% females and 8.7% where males overweight or obese, 8.5% females in risk limits and 4.6% males in risk limits (at female subjects there where higher values). Also the fact that the number of children at risk limits of the fat percentage is higher among subjects from pre-urban areas, shows a negative trend of the spread of the phenomenon expansion in those areas where the lifestyle is different. If the phenomenon of overweight and obesity will continue to increase as this dynamic, then we will have no more differences between different areas of the city, this means a form of "globalization of behaviors", the motor ones (daily physical activity) as well as the habits and manners of nutrition.

If body composition is not in appropriate ratio, then the child's body does not enjoy the status of fitness, so a child can not be considered "fit". Overweight and obesity are associated with serious complications and illnesses in childhood and adolescence. Overweight and obese young people risk to be overweight and obese adults with diseases such as CVD, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, osteoporosis, functional deficits, etc.. The three main factors of overweight and obesity are: genetic predisposition, daily dietary intake (the way of feeding) and poor daily energy consumption (physical inactivity), as environmental factors. But the children's feeding mode has not changed during the last decades, while indicators of overweight and obesity increased in value, physical inactivity remains to be the main cause of the rapid growth of overweight and obesity at these age.

3. Recommendations

To enable the reduction of the prevalence of overweight and obesity phenomenon in a society should enable the prevention and reduction of it's since his childhood. It is very important that an individual in the early childhood to have a composition body in optimal ratios, where the fat is in the normal value. So it is necessary providing children with a healthy education in nutrition as well as the performance of daily physical activity, necessary to meet the requirements for good health. These requirements impose obligations to the following institutions:

3.1 The family should:

- Be aware of the irreplaceable role that physical activity plays in the lives of children. So it has to pay more attention to the needs of children for physical activity, whether organized or spontaneous.
- Limiting the means or ways not very healthy for leisure time passing of their children, as: TV watching (for long hours), playing with electronic tools, etc., and replacing that time with physical games outdoor entertainment, etc..
Providing personal example, creating a breeding sport for life. Control and upbringing of a healthy breeding feeding, enriching food menu with healthy products, avoiding those canned or hipercaloric foods (like fast food, candies, etc.).

3.2 The school should:

- Pay due importance to the Physical Education subject, as the only contact the majority of children in our society have with sports and physical activity.
- Pay particular attention to information and education for a healthy breeding food. Should create greater opportunities for the students to practice physical activity and sports, using better the school’s sportive infrastructure.
- Cooperate with parents and other institutions to realize better its policies in this regard.

3.3 Society and relevant institutions should:

- Create more facilities and parks, which enable switching active leisure, in the way to help the children to practiced and to gain valuable sportive education, which will be valuable in their life.
- Give the right priority to the Physical Education subject, adding its load curricula.
- Exercise more control over non-nutritious food products that stimulate obesity, sold on the premises inside and outside our schools, enabling a prevention plan.
- Create space for policy development through projects which promote irreplaceable values of physical activity and sport in the lives of each individual.

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Revue ESP No 330, 331 dhe 332 European Seminar CNAPS, “L’exercice contre les maladies liées à la sédentarité” The first, second and third part. February 2007
Factors Affecting University Students in Shoes Selection: Turkey Example

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Abstract

With the born of human, many physiological needs have come out and human being has looked for the solutions to be protected from negative conditions of the environment. One of them is shoes which are developed to protect feet. Shoes, which are an inseparable part of wearing, have changed in terms of their function, visual dimension and use area until today and shown diversity. This diversity has led people to do preferences in the direction of their savour and needs. The study has been carried out to determine the factors, model and type properties that are paid attention by the university students in shoes selection and use. In the scope of the research, the survey has been applied to the total 300 people randomly selected from students taking education in Konya and Karaman. The data got have been transferred to SPSS package program and findings have been given in tables. In the findings, it is seen that the comfort element and wearing style are big factors in shoes preference. Moreover, it has been detected that flats and rounded-toe shoes are demanded more than others. The research results carry importance for revealing properties young consumers prefer on shoes and for contributing to producers to determine the marketing strategies.

Keywords: University students, shoes, shoes preferences, consumer behaviours

1. Introduction

There are a large variety of shoes today, those have a significant place as an accessory. Shoes take place in our lives as a functional accessory which our body can stand straight by and help us to move easily. Shoes, which have been a symbol of statue since the first dates of history, also mean some abstract meanings besides having its aim of use (Çivitçi vd., 2012:101).

Newman stated that (2006), all shoes have a story and reflect the statue, sexual identity, ethnic group, religion, profession and also political view. Identity, needings and wants, targets of the customers and the questions, who is the decisive authority of purchasing, how to decide, when the people are ready to buy or where they prefer to buy, are the features that shows the consuming habits (Kotler, 2000: 116). Consumption, which is generally described as meeting the needings, is not only an economic issue but also a society aspect that changes by the conditions of the time, takes shape by the social and cultural values which are accepted by different countries and societies (Bocock, 2005: 13). Personal, physical and sociologic structure of the consumer affects the selection of product. Needings, age, sex, education, profession, income level, taste, expectancy and price causes difference on consumptions. Age group is also a decisive factor that can define the styles and models which the person will head (Mucuk, 1998:87; Yaylalı vd., 2011:2).

College students creates several research areas due to they are members of young consumers group. Shoes have a huge importance especially for young consumers, concerning visual manner, functionality, difference in styles and variety of purpose.

2. Method

Describing method is used in this study to determine the features that the college students concern on purchasing shoes.
300 people who are the students of Karamanoğlu Mehmet Bey University and Selçuk University, are selected randomly as samples. In order to obtain the research data, a questionnaire is developed which contains seventeen questions.

The answers for questionnaire are checked after collecting the data, mistaken or missing ones are rejected and the proper ones are analyzed statistically. Findings are shown in the graphics by making describing analyzes on the obtained data. The answers are shown in percentage. Graphics are examined within and between eachother.

3. Findings

In this chapter, the data obtained from the questionnaires which are made in order to define the factors that affect the selection of shoes of the college students, is given by the graphics.

Women are % 53.7 and men are % 46.3 of the sample group. The age groups of the samples are as followings.

% 45.7 for 21-25, % 36.7 for 18-25, % 12.7 for 26-30, % 3.3 for 31-35 and % 1.7 for 36-40. The reason of the age group of 21-25 is the highest that, the samples are chosen from college students. When the income level is examined, % 49.32 of the samples have 251-500 TRY, % 4.3 of them have 1001 or more TRY.

Chart 1. Monthly Shopping Frequency

% 40.7 of college students purchase shoes in case of needing, is observed when the findings of monthly shopping frequency of the college students are examined. In addition to this, % 3 of them buy shoes weekly and % 3.3 of them buy shoes in ‘other’ (employment, start of school, special days, internship, air conditions) times.

Chart 2. Sum Spent on Shopping

When the amount of purchasing shoes are examined for 1 year term for college students, 101-250 tl interval is observed as the highest rate with % 48.7. Moreover, % 4.7 of college students spent 500 TRY or more and % 8.7 of them spent 351-500 TRY.
The choice of shoes of the male and female college students are examined and the highest rate is found as % 20.3 for trainers for both gender. Students gave low rates for the others such as, for ballerina (% 0.3), for mule (% 0.7), for francesine (% 0.3), for crocs (% 0.3) and for slippers (% 0.7).

The preferred type of toe shape of the shoes are examined and it is found that, round toed shoes are the most preferred shoes among the samples with the rate of % 51.7. The least preferred ones are the flat toed % 5 and pointy toed % 7. This can be considered as the fashionable shoes affected the choice.

The preferred type of heeels are examined and the highest rate is found for ankle heels % 50.7.
A majority of the samples which is %50.7 preferred the low heel as it can be seen in the Chart 5. The main cause of this result is that, almost the half of the samples are male students. A very narrow part of the college students voted very low rates such as, %5 for the Cuban heel, %2 for the wedge heel and %0.7 for the comma heel.

Chart 6. The Places Where the Shoes are Bought

Malls are the main places that the college students choose to buy shoes with the rate of %39 as it is shown in Chart6 in which the ‘Places of Shoe Shopping’ are described. Places where the goods are exhibited are elements that define the process of shopping, while ads and commercials and the fashion affect the purchasing behaviour of individuals. The malls in the downtown, which supply the produced goods and services, meet the needing of bazaar for people and become an entertainment zone and a must place for leisure activities (Kaya, 2003; 174). Small shops and the shops where the credit card is acceptable have the same rate of selection with %18.3.

Chart 7. Main Factors on Preferring Shoes

Chart 7, highly reflecting the purpose of the study, has shown the factors which the college students concern when buying shoes. Referring to the results, comfortable (%83) and hi-quality (%81.7) shoes have a great importance among the samples. The factors affecting the choices of the students in this study have a major variety. Especially, the shoes for daily use are highly rated. It is mandatory to decide purchasing rationally, to use the money at optimum level, to have maximum benefit from the belonging dresses and shoes. College students should prefer the dresses according to the fabric type, and the brands of dresses and shoes which have the informative labels about how to care and clean on them (Ersoy vd., 2004: 10).

Besides these factors, durability (%74.7), being suitable for dressing (%73), being orthopedic (%65.3) and being in the desired shape and colour (%63.7) are also playing role on purchasing. The main reason that the college students do not choose a type of shoes is having certain heels (%45). Furthermore, being repairable (%30) and being fashionable (%26) are not the reasons to buy shoes.
The factor of “my shoes should not make my feet sweat” has arisen among the others with the rate of %39.7 and following this, the factor “my shoes should not lose its colour and should not be stain” has taken the second place on the choice of shoes with the rate %31. Besides, high reputation (%41.3), cheap but various (%39.7) and the shoes with price promotion (%39.7) are partially high rated. Velcro (%36), wooden base (%32.7) and plastic base (%28.7) are least preferred types.

4. Conclusion

Shoes are important components of dressing which have a large variety and are chosen referring to the different conditions. Shoes are real focus point for the youngs, and are being preferred according to the daily wearing, purpose of use and air conditions. This study is important for determining the choices of college students for the shoemaking sector, producers developing broad marketing strategies through the preferred types of shoes, designers designing new models for mostly preferred kind of shoes and making it various.

It can be seen that the most college students buy shoes in case of needing. Additionally, trainers are highly rated for both male and female students. It is obvious that the non-heeled shoes are mostly preferred when the daily conditions are concerned. Being compatible with the dresses is also another factor for the shoes. Some other important reasons are being comfortable, orthopedic and having high quality.

Visual manner is also significant besides the comfort and health for the college students. Other reasons for choice are having ease on daily usage, being compatible with the dressing and reflecting the own wearing style. New marketing strategies can be developed by concerning some factors about the choice of college students, and some differences on designs can be made.

References

Harmonization of Kosovo’s Legislation with EU’s Legislation in the Field of Security

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Abstract

In Kosovo, the drafting of laws in the field of security requires a complete review of existing legislation and the inclusion of a number of new areas and legal institutions that did not even exist before the declaration of independence in February of 2008. Drafting of laws in Kosovo, is done in full compliance with laws and standards of the European Union and this will facilitate and accelerate Kosovo’s integration into the European Union. In Kosovo there is space for approach from new concepts of analysis of the issue of uniformity and standardization of their laws with EU legislation in the field of security. Necessary reforms in the field of security are of double importance from the fact that they are necessary internal functioning as well as for the integration in the EU. Also during compilation, we will verify that drafting of laws in the field of security, based on EU standards, is being made in accordance with the actual situation and the reality created in the country. This provision ensures that drafted laws are fully implemented and meet the requirements and existing needs in the field of security in Kosovo. Simultaneously it will eliminate laws that have never reached the intended applicability as a result of not harmonizing with the situation in the country of implementation.

Keywords: reforms, legislation, uniformity of laws, security, integration.

1. Introduction

Kosovo is the last country in the Balkans that has emerged from the wars in former Yugoslavia and as a result it is the only country following the steps towards the integration in EU. Development of policies and laws in the field of security continuously is followed and supported by EU representatives, European Commission and NATO; which are present in our country. They are helping and advising the local authorities in drafting contemporary laws in full accordance with European legislation. Compilation of laws according to EU standards and requests facilitates and accelerates the integration of our country in these structures.

For developing countries and especially for countries in the process of state-building such as Kosovo, existence of a clear path to follow towards the development of the state is facilitating for the state and its leaders. For the countries of West Balkans, countries in category of developing countries, integration in EU has become a target and a motive for undertaking internal reforms in order to fulfill the conditions the conditions that enable them to become members of the club of developed European countries.

European integration process requires first and foremost the harmonization of domestic legislation as cuius communautaire and the fulfillment of the Copenhagen criteria.

2. Methods

The study includes one deep and versatile survey as far as security field of Kosovo concerns as well as harmonization of domestic legislation with EU legislation.

Working methods are adapted to the requirements of this research:

Descriptive method—we describe the situation in which Kosovo is today in legal aspect,

Research method—we research the possibility and ways through which we could make the necessary reforms to fulfill required requests from EU, as a condition for integration.

Analysis method—through which we analyze the benefits and shortcomings of the current legal system in the sphere of security and the need for necessary and needed changes to be done in order to raise the level of security.

Comparative method—we analyze the current situation and compare it with the norms and EU standards, by giving our recommendations on the necessity of reforming the legislation and his adaptation with EU legislation.
3. The aim of the study

The need for a reform in the legal aspect is thus necessary. Kosovo’s attempts for integration in Euro Atlantic structures spread the need for necessary reforms in the sphere of security and approximation of Kosovo’s legislation with the international one, reforms and changes which have to be adapted to required standards from EU and NATO; completion of which will enable the country rapid and easy integration.

4. Literature review

During the research of this subject, it has been observed that there is a large lack of literature if not at all. All work is developed based on monitoring reports, guidelines and other laws and regulations undertaken by Kosovo institutions, in order to determine the mode of adoption of the Acquis in domestic legislation.

Based on the article 5.7 of the UNMIK/REG/2001/9 the legal basis for aligning Kosovo’s legislation with ascuisin is defined in the Constitutional Framework for Provisional Institutions of Self-Government of Kosovo. It requires that legislation for Provisional Institutions of Self-Government of Kosovo and practices from all fields of the responsibility to be harmonized with standards and relevant European criteria.

According to the administrative order of UNMIK no.2006/6 the European Integrations Agency is responsible institution for coordinating and supervising the approximation of Kosovo’s legislation with acquis communautaire. But Kosovo’s legislation however is not fully aligned with Acquis. Kosovo’s legislation is going through the procedure of checking the compliance with the general principles of acquis communautaire.

EU’s asquis is divided in primary and secondary legislation. Primary legislation includes in particular treaties and other agreements which have similar status. Primary legislation is adopted through direct negotiation by governments of member states. These agreements are laid down in the form of treaties which are then subject to ratification in accordance with internal constitutional rules. Much of the Asquis is secondary legislation in the form of directives, regulations and decisions. Regulations and decisions need not to be incorporated into national laws of the member states, as they are applies and executed directly. Non-member states should incorporate in their legal national systems all kinds of EU secondary legislation (Handbook on approximation of Kosovo’s legislation with the EU Asquis, 2011). Approximation of legislation is of primary importance and should be treated seriously. In order to unify the practice of drafting laws and bylaws, as well as to ensure high quality of legislation, on July 2008 has been issued an Administrative Instruction 14/2008 to draft Laws and Subsidiary legislation acts in all Government ministries and all their subordinate agencies.

Approximation of legislation is part of the process of EU integration, and should be considered as such. In this sense of legislative process, there is a need for the adoption of a national plan approximation of legislation in Kosovo, that will serve as a tool for coordination, planning and reporting the process of approximation.

5. Harmonization of Kosovo’s legislation with EU legislation in the field of security

It is an advantage for Kosovo that drafting of new laws is done in full harmony with laws and standards of EU, but because of the economic and social situation, enforcement of these laws often encounters problems as well as obstacles in its implementation. However, the path to EU integration requires that laws must be tailored and consistent with the asquis communautaire. Since 1999, Kosovo had specific cooperation with EU and this has served as a great contribution for local institutions when they have drafted the new national legislation to be in accordance with EU legislation.

6. Harmonization of legislation

Harmonization of legislation is a unique obligation for EU membership. This means that countries aspiring to join the European Union must align their national laws, regulations and procedures in order to make effective all the legal structure of the EU, within asquis communautaire. Since approximation obligation continues even after, the pre-accession process of approximation becomes an opportunity for these countries to organize better their institutions and procedures and to train their staff on daily processes and responsibilities of making laws modeled on the EU, their implementation and enforcement.

Firstly, there should be approval or amendment of national laws, regulations and procedures to ensure that the
requirements of the relevant EU law to be fully incorporated into the national legal order. This process is known as "transposition". It should be noted, that although countries have considerable leeway in selecting the most appropriate national mechanisms which are reflected EU obligations, in some respects this freedom is limited by the general law of the European Union. In most cases, it is necessary that domestic legislation should be adopted by the Parliament. Term transposition means any legislative, regulatory or administrative measure undertaken by the competent authorities of a Member State, in order to incorporate into the national legal order obligations, rights and duties enshrined in the Acquis. So transposition does not simply include reproduction of the words of a directive into national law, but also any additional provisions, such as the amendments or abrogations of the contrary national provisions, which are necessary to ensure that national law as a whole, reflects the provisions of acquis.

Secondly, necessary institutions and budgets must be ensured for the implementation of these laws and regulations (known as "implementation" or "practical application" of the directive) (Handbook of Kosovo with the EU Acquis, 2010).

The practical application is defined as the incorporation of EU law in particular decisions by the competent authorities, for example issuing of licenses for the execution of a plan or program. In case of regulations and provisions that are directly applicable, then EU legislation applies directly. However, once a directive is correctly transposed, then it is applied by national transposing measures. Here, too, is included the provision of necessary infrastructure and tools so that competent authorities are able to fulfill their obligations under EU law and to take appropriate decisions. To be a bill drafted by European norms and standards and to be successfully implemented correctly in our country, to assess and analyze the adequacy of laws and normative acts, to examine these in terms of constitutionality and legality, there is a Committee on Legislation and Justice, within the Assembly of Kosovo as a measurement and assessment institution of domestic legislation.

7. The adoption of new national legislation

International law is an essential element of the rule of law in Kosovo. International relations have broad effects on the state activity and ultimately affect the processing of domestic legislation. Most international agreements are incorporated directly in the Kosovo’s Constitution and as such are mandatory for implementation by Kosovo institutions, with priority to the legal provisions of local institutions.

Kosovo can use existing national laws or amendments to existing laws to implement the acquis of the EU. But rarely happens that an existing law fully complies. Experience has shown that it is unwise to rely on existing legislation, unless its adaptability is demonstrated based on a detailed comparison of provision for provision type of national law relevant to Acquis in the EU (Manual on approximation of legislation in Kosovo with the EU Acquis, 2010).

Passing laws in the accelerated procedure, without the possibility that the general public but also members of the Assembly to debate them and make recommendations for amendments, has made these laws, even two or three years after their adoption, be seen as imposed laws and foreign laws. Since laws stemming from the Ahtisaari Package are most important laws of Kosovo, those laws must not be seen as imposed and foreign (Institute for Policy Analysis, 2010).

Moreover, the unwillingness of local institutions to take into account the opinions and suggestions of civil society and experts outside government has made these laws to be adopted by numerous substantive defects. And for that, immediately after their approval, several laws have been introduced in the procedure for amendment.

Providing guidance on how and what procedures should be followed in drafting laws and regulations in Kosovo, the Government of the Republic of Kosovo, with the aim of standardizing practices for drafting laws and regulations, and to ensure quality high legislation, has issued Administrative Instruction 14/2008, to draft Bills and subsidiary legislation.

8. Conclusion

The Republic of Kosovo has already been introduced in a dynamic process for the future. The integration process of Kosovo to its full membership in the European Union requires a dedicated commitment to the development of democracy, protection of human rights and freedoms, establishing the legal infrastructure and creating a sustainable security for all citizens Kosovo under international standards and the European Union.

Kosovo has made great progress in all areas of social life, in particular in the field of security. Safety is one of the main pillars of the state and society as ensuring the rights of man, his life and property is one of the primary things that the state should pay special attention.
Kosovo has drafted a legal basis in the field of modern security system, which serves as a guarantee of functionality and efficiency of these bodies in view of the interests of Kosovo and its citizens.

What should be definitely praised as a great achievement is the fact of construction of contemporary legal basis according to international standards, since adopted laws are in full compliance with EU standards, ie fully harmonized with the acquis communautaire. Drafting of laws in the field of security is done with the ongoing help of European Commission representatives and NATO. This fact represents a mitigating circumstance and a first step towards the integration of the Republic of Kosovo in the EU structures.

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Religiosity and Political Participation of University Students in Turkey

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Abstract

This research aims to analyze the religiosity and political participation of the university students in Turkey. For this aim, a survey conducted on 872 students in order to understand the impact of religiosity on political participation. In this research, political participation is measured as conventional and un-conventional participation forms. The scale is prepared as 13 questions; 7 of them for measuring conventional and 6 of them for measuring un-conventional participation. It is determined in the literature that religiosity is related to conventional political participation and also has a negative effect on un-conventional participation. In fact, the studies included in the literature show that participation of the religious individuals is low generally and if they choose to perform any political participation, it is realized in the form of conventional participation. On the other hand university students are associated more than any groups with un-conventional participation. According to the result of the research it has been found that religiosity has a negative correlation with both conventional and un-conventional form of political participation.

Keywords: Religiosity, political participation, university students, Turkey

1. Introduction

The main objective of this research is to determine the effects of being religious or non-religious on political participation and how being religious differs generally and the role of religiosity on conventional and un-conventional forms of political participation of university students in Turkey specifically. In the literature, it is known that religiosity decreases political participation and the participation of the religious people is rather conventional. Based on this view, it is expected that religiosity would decrease political participation in this study.

Religion and religiosity are the concepts which are not easily defined up to the present. Not only defining the religion or religiosity but also measuring religiosity is also very problematic. Hökelekli points out that since there is no single form of religiosity, individuals believing in the same religion, even included in the same religious group, are different and for this reason, it is possible to mention a religiosity specific to every individual. Thus, this makes defining religiosity even much harder (Hökelekli, 2010: 81). In addition, Allport indicates that there are as many kinds of religion experiences as the number of people who tend to be religious in the world (Allport, 2004: 46). Similarly Spilka et al. says that “there is obviously great overlap among the various proposals, but all agree on one thing: Even though there may be only one word of religion, there may be hundred possible ways of being religious” (Spilka et al., 1985: 7). In this respect, Fromm states another situation that is related to this issue. He argues that, it is extremely difficult to understand whether someone is religious or not. According to him, although some people claim that they are religious, they may not be religious internally, and people who say that they are not religious may act highly religiously (Fromm, 1997: 239). It is understand from this argument that the problem lies not only at defining religiosity, but also at measuring religiosity, as well. As a result, every study makes a definition in accordance with its own research subject and in parallel with the discipline it is included. A researcher who is interested in the issue of religion and who desires to conduct a comprehensive research on the issue would unavoidably encounter the problem of measuring religiosity and many more problems included in it someday (Vernon, 1962a: 159). According to Vernon while try to measure religiosity there are two approaches. In the first approach such criteria such as church membership, church attendance, or acceptance of specific beliefs are often used to measure religiosity. In the second one, researcher asks to respondents some questions such as “how interested they are in religion or how important they feel religion to be in their lives” in order to measure religiosity (Vernon, 1962b: 243-244). Briefly it could be argued that for this research religiosity means to believe in a religion and to live the life in accordance with the requirements of that religion. Accordingly to this, religiosity is measured by asking to the respondents as how they feel themselves to be religious.
Another concept of the study, political participation has started to gain importance from the second half of the 20th century with people’s beginning to take part in the political life, and has become a subject matter on which political scientists study intensively. In that era, democratic thinking gained importance and the idea of constructing political power on large masses instead of an intangible minority isolated from people is observed. In this respect, political participation is a concept that emerged as a result of the modernization process and as a component of modern societies. Just as the definitions of religion and religiosity, this concept also has been defined and interpreted differently by different researchers.

Aristotle defines the human being as a “political animal”. Based on this quotation, it is possible to assume that human beings will take part in a political idea in some way or other. It is possible to express political participation as the attitudes and behaviors of the citizens towards the political system. Within this system, individuals perform some actions in order to affect directly or indirectly the decision-making of the political administrators. These actions may range from voting to participate in a candidate’s campaign, to collect signatures, or participating in boycotts or meetings. In addition, individuals may follow political agenda via mass media or perform a political attitude and action by discussing political issues within their family or friends. So, it is also possible to say that not every individual performs the same level of participation. While some follow up the political agenda just as spectators, some others may prefer to take part in politics actively.

Political participation is defined differently by many researches. Some consider just voting as adequate for political participation, some others, nevertheless, state that campaign activity, protest behavior and volunteering should also be considered for political participation. First of all, Van Deth states as summarizing the situation that political participation is a wide-ranging concept and “has become a study of everything” (Van Deth, 2001: 2). Different forms of political participation were first started to be discussed by political scientists in 1960s-1970s (Milbrath, 1965; Verba and Nie, 1972; Barnes and Kaase, 1979). While Milbrath expressed that political participation was unidimensional, Barnes et al. (1979) mentioned two dimensions, namely conventional and un-conventional. Political participation was considered as unidimensional in 1950s and 1960s, but later it was studied as a multidimensional concept.

Barnes et al. (1979) divides political participation into two, namely conventional and unconventional. Conventional political participation is composed of actions in accordance with the rules and norms established by the political regime. Voting, participating in election campaigns, making donation to the election campaign of a candidate, being interested in politics, discussing political issues, wearing a badge of a political party, becoming a member of a political party or having conversation with political people are examples of such activities. On the other hand, unconventional political participation is composed of actions that are not in compliance with the rules and norms established by the political regime. Publishing leaflets, arranging demonstrations or meetings, forwarding collective petition, boycotting, and blocking building entrances/exits are examples of unconventional participation. Conventional political participation represents political actions accepted by the dominant culture while unconventional political participation involves the actions that are not considered acceptable by the dominant public culture, even if those actions are legal (Conway, 2000: 4).

There is no agreement on how political participation should be measured, either. There is no accurate answer to the questions such as how political participation is measured, with how many items it should be measured or how many dimensions it includes, etc. For this reason, every researcher decides on how to measure political participation and which questions to be asked by himself/herself.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Religiosity

When briefly looking at the studies on religiosity, it is seen that researchers review first of all what religiosity is and how it is measured, as well as the factors influencing the religiosity of the individual. Studies on religiosity have been reviewed theologically, psychologically, sociologically, anthropologically and politically by many social sciences. Religiosity has been discussed in many areas, ranging from the influence of religion and religiosity on the mental health to depression, from political participation to political attitudes and behaviors, even to criminal actions.

A part of the studies on religiosity is related with the factors which lead to occurrence of the religious behavior (Cornwall, 1989: 579-587). There are many influences that affect the people’s religiousness in literature. In socialization parents, peer groups and religious institutions are the factors that influence the religiousness. Additionally, age, marital status, socio-economic status, gender is also some factors to determine people’s religiousness. Parents have most important impact on child or adolescent religion. On the other hand, peers, education, school environment, the mass
media, and reading have an affect but lesser than the parents (Hood et al., 2009: 125). In several studies family socialization were the most frequent answers that had an effect on student’s religious beliefs and mother was more important than the father when we compare the two parents (Argyle and Beit-Hallahmi, 1975; Allport, 2004). Some studies on gender also show that women are more religious than men (Allport et. al. 1948; Batson et.al 1993; Miller and Hoffman 1995; Allport, 2004; Günay, 2006; Hokelekli, 2010).

Most of the religiosity studies in Turkey were applied to the university students (Mutlu, 1989; Mutlu, 1996; Uysal, 1996; Onay 1999; Şahin 1999; Onay; 2004; Çapcioğlu 2009). There are very few studies that investigate the socio-political attitudes and religiosity (Çapcioğlu, 2009; Hülür and Kalender, 2003; Çarkoğlu and Toprak, 2006). Gender, age, occupation, socio-economic status, education, marital status, the place of accommodation, social class, urban and rural distinction, type of the group, its size, level of knowledge, economic status, political and social incidents, and being deprived of certain rights or benefits, alienation, exclusion and oppression are the factors affecting the individual’s religiosity (Günay 2006; Hokelekli 2010). According to these studies, people living in the rural areas are more religious than the ones living in cities, married people are more religious than singles, women are more religious than men and the middle class are more religious than others. On the other hand, some other studies yielded exactly opposite results. In the studies of Köktaş (1993), Hülür and Kalender (2003), Onay (2004), and Mehmedoğlu (2004) men are found more religious than women. When analyzed at the relationship between social status and religiosity (Hokelekli, 2010; Köktaş, 1993; Onay, (2004), it can be also seen that the religiosity level of the people with higher socio-economic levels is lower than the people with middle and low socio-economic levels.

3. Political Participation

When studies conducted on political participation are reviewed, it is observed that the issue is investigated from a wide perspective. Political participation has been associated almost every subject matter. While some studies measure participation in different countries, the large majority of studies focus on the variables that determine political participation. Some studies investigate participation among young people whereas some others make comparative analyses in this area. As one of the most important variables of this study, religion also emerges as a variable that is investigated in relation with political participation.

According to most of the studies age is one of the most important determinant of political participation as age increases political participation increases, as well (Kalaycıoğlu, 1983; Dalton, 2002; Tatar, 2003, Quintelier, 2007, Gallup, 2007) Education is the other important factor that affects political participation in some studies. They indicate that more educated people are more participated than the less educated (Kalaycıoğlu, 1983; Walter and Rosenberg, 2007; Quintelier, 2007; Gallup 2007). There has been found a positive relationship between gender and political participation in favor of men in the both national and international literature. Men tended to be found more politically active than women (Almond and Verba, 1963; Milbrath, 1965; Ozanay, 1966; Baykal 1970; Wolfinger and Rosenstone, 1980; Kalaycıoğlu, 1983; Erdoğan, 2001; Conway, 2000; TUSIAD, 2001; Tatar, 2003; Gallup, 2007). In difference of conventional and unconventional participation Eşgin (1999) found female students performed conventional participation most while the men performed un-conventional participation. According to Parlağ’s research (1999) whereas unconventional participation is associated with relatively higher education un-conventional participation is associated with relatively lower education. In Turkey studies have found that the political participation level of students is very low (Parlağ, 1999; Erdoğan). In addition, many studies have found a positive relationship between income and political participation (Almond and Verba 1963; Baykal, 1970; Verba and Nie, 1972; Wolfinger and Rosenstone, 1980, Kalaycıoğlu, 1983; Verba, et.al., 1995; Conway, 2000).

The relationship between religiosity and political participation has been investigated in the literature mostly on the basis of religious institutions. This has been made by reviewing mostly the relationship between membership and participation. It is determined in the literature that religiosity is related to conventional political participation and has a negative effect on unconventional participation. Çarkoğlu and Kalaycıoğlu (2009) found that religiosity had a diminishing effect on protest and pressure potentials. Also Erdoğan stated as a result of the regression analyses he conducted in his studies that religiosity was a determinant of conventional participation. Secret et al. (1990) investigated the relationship between religiosity and political participation in their study and as a result, it was determined that religiosity suppressed protest activities. In the studies conducted so far on political participation, religiosity has emerged as related to the conventional political participation. In fact, the studies included in the literature show that participation of the religious individuals is low and that if they choose to perform any political participation, it is realized in the form of conventional participation.
4. Methodology

The descriptive survey research design was adopted for this study. 872 students from faculty of Arts and Sciences, Divinity and, Economic and Administrative Sciences from three universities were constituted the participants of this research in order to establish relationships between the religiosity and political participation. Data were collected by means of the group-administered questionnaire method.

In this research, respondents were asked about directly how much or to what degree they see themselves as religious in ten point likert scale ranging from 1 (low) to 10 (high). While 1 indicates no religiosity, 10 indicate 100% of being religious. For measuring political participation, a scale was conducted by researcher. The scale is consisted of 13 questions while 7 of them measuring conventional and 6 of them for un-conventional participation. Conventional participation was measured with the questions; working in a campaign of a party or candidate, collect signature or signed a petition for supporting a candidate, wear a sticker or badge of a political party, persuade someone how to vote, youth branches of a political party, and political parties except youth branches. Due to the fact that voting is mandatory in Turkey, voting is not included in this form of political participation calculation. Un-conventional participation is measured by the question; writing a letter of application, signing a petition, joining a boycott, attending a political demonstration/meeting, participating in a protest march, organizing a demonstration, meeting, and protest march.

The reliability of the whole scale was checked by means of the cronbach alpha reliability test and the alpha result of the scale was found .824. The cronbach alpha value of conventional sub-scale was determined as .752 while the un-conventional sub-scale was determined as .769. The KMO value of the scale is 0.869 and this indicates a good validity level. According to the results of the Bartlett test, it is significant with the level of 0.01.

For analyzing the relation of religiosity and political participation hypotheses below are constructed.

H1: There is a positive relationship between religiosity and conventional political participation.
H2: There is a negative relationship between religiosity and un-conventional political participation.

5. Findings

Table 1 indicates the result of respondent’s religiosity. As a result, religiosity mean of participant is found as 6.56 in 10 point likert scale. The students in this research are found highly religious in comparison with the other studies about Turkey.

Table 1: Distribution of Results according to Religiosity Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religiosity</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>870</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>2.769</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this study, political participation is measured by means of the 13 questions. It is seen that the respondents performed ‘voting’ most, as a form of political participation (75.8%). It is followed by ‘signing a petition’ 49%, ‘writing a letter of application’ 44.7%. The lowest rate is belongs to ‘member of political parties except youth branches’ with the rate of 2.2%. It would not be wrong to argue that the rate of cast a vote participation in young people is quite high. It is clearly seen from the table that university students performed un-conventional participation much more than conventional participation except voting. This situation is corresponding with the literature. These results are found higher than the other studies which are conducted in Turkey on political participation. Not yet choice is included in the study in order to see the political tendency of the participants who has not participated yet, due to underage or because of not having a chance.

Table 2: Distribution of Results according to Political Participation Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Political participation</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not Yet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Voting in an election</td>
<td>75.8</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Working in a campaign of a party or candidate</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Collect signature/signed a petition for a candidate</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>89.0</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Wear a sticker or badge of a political party.</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>86.7</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Persuade someone how to vote</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows the result of political participation of university students in terms of their religiosity. Student’s religiosity mean scores are found high mostly in the choice of ‘not participate’ when comparing only participate and not-participate choices; except voting, youth branches of a political party and organizing demonstrations and meeting. This finding show that religiosity decreases the students’ political participation both conventional and un-conventional way.

The relationship among conventional, unconventional, total political participation and religiosity is investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Here, the respondents who stated ‘not yet’ are considered as not participated because of the fact that no participation has occurred yet. It is seen from the Table 4 that there is a negative correlation between religiosity and conventional political participation \( r = -0.060, n = 872, p < 0.01 \), with high levels of religiosity associated with low levels of conventional political participation. Similarly there is a negative correlation between religiosity and un-conventional political participation, \( r = -0.223, n = 872, p < 0.01 \) with high religiosity associated with low levels of un-conventional political participation. These results show that H1 hypothesis is rejected and H2 is accepted. Because after the correlation analysis it is seen that religiosity decreases all forms of political participation. Previously it is mentioned that religiosity is associated with conventional political participation in the literature. In addition, it is known that both political participation and religiosity increases with age. As a result of this it could be argued that due to our sample (university students), there is no relation found between religiosity and conventional political participation.

**Table 3: Distribution of Religiosity according to Political Participation Scale**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ROS</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voting</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>2.735</td>
<td>0.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>657</td>
<td>6.48</td>
<td>2.806</td>
<td>0.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not yet</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>2.548</td>
<td>0.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Working in a Campaign of a Party/candidate</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>507</td>
<td>7.07</td>
<td>2.368</td>
<td>0.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>3.180</td>
<td>0.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not yet</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>6.17</td>
<td>2.508</td>
<td>0.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collect signature signed a petition for a candidate</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>736</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>2.713</td>
<td>0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>2.922</td>
<td>0.380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not yet</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>3.152</td>
<td>0.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wear a sticker or badge of a political party.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>773</td>
<td>6.53</td>
<td>2.683</td>
<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>3.515</td>
<td>0.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not yet</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>3.245</td>
<td>0.403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Persuade someone how to vote</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>2.636</td>
<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>3.282</td>
<td>0.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not yet</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>3.145</td>
<td>0.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Youth branches of a political party</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>766</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>2.738</td>
<td>0.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>7.56</td>
<td>2.829</td>
<td>0.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not yet</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>3.007</td>
<td>0.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political parties except youth branches</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>817</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>2.746</td>
<td>0.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>3.334</td>
<td>0.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not yet</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>3.042</td>
<td>0.530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Writing a letter of application</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>2.563</td>
<td>0.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>2.940</td>
<td>0.149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not yet</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>2.667</td>
<td>0.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Signing a petition</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>7.06</td>
<td>2.260</td>
<td>0.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>3.008</td>
<td>0.146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not yet</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>7.15</td>
<td>2.638</td>
<td>0.255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joining a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not-participate</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td>2.439</td>
<td>0.105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4: Correlations of Religiosity and PP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-Religiosity</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.060</td>
<td>-0.223**</td>
<td>-0.198**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-Conventional</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.510*</td>
<td>0.792*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-Un-conventional</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.883*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Total Political</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

6. Conclusion

The main objective of this study was to find out whether there was a relationship between religiosity and conventional and un-conventional form of political participation. As a result, the findings of the study indicate that religiosity is negatively associated with all forms of political participation. If an individual’s religiosity increases, his/her political participation level in both conventional and un-conventional forms are decrease. Then it could be argued that religiosity can decrease the all forms of political participation for university students. As mentioned above it is known that both political participation and religiosity increases with age. Then it could be an expected result for university students.

7. Acknowledgement

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References


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The Debate of Environmental Impact and Tourism Development: Perspective from Local Resident and Businessman

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Abstract
The purpose of the research is to examine that the benefit and cost of tourism development based on its feature industry in Yingge. The questionnaire survey is used on the study that attempts to find the relation of tourism development and tourism impact. The result points out that Yingge populations accept ceramics as the most representative industry, and recognized its development with tourism. The ceramic feature with tourism development in Yingge includes diversification, creative life, and art. Tourism development brought benefits with a creation of employment, increased in revenue, improvement of facility and infrastructure, increased local pride and community spirit, promotion of local culture, and improvement of destination image. Concomitant negative impacts resulted from tourism development also result in environmental damage, life disturbance, traffic congestion, and ecological devastation. The study provides references for other similar regions eager to boost economic growth and industrial development.

Keywords: local feature industry; tourism development; benefit and cost

1. Introduction

Local economic development aims to keep local economy from declining and falling through economic development in which the industry plays an essential role (Yuan, Wang, & Chiou, 2007). Around the world, tourism has been turned into an important tool for regional economic growth and development (Elliot, 1987). The growth of the tourism industry has had significant impact on the economic development of related industries. This phenomenon is well documented in the
literature that local feature industry associated with tourism industry could promote local economic growth, create employment opportunities, solve the problem of unemployment and enhance the quality of life. Unfortunately, today’s inorganic development is actually detrimental to communities (Sirakaya, Jamal, & Choi, 2001). The rapid growth in the tourism industry with unplanned tourism development would ultimately lead environmental degradation (Green, Hunter, & Moore, 1990), and socio-economic imbalance amongst local populations (Edelmann, 1975). Such impacts challenge local governments, planners, and researchers to rethink current feature industry tourism development.

In discussions regarding regional development, the notion that people-centred initiatives is needed. The existing literature suggests that good will and cooperation of host communities is one of the essential elements of community development (Murphy, 1985). Local populations are mainly victory (beneficiary) or victim of tourism development. Despite a number of research studies being conducted on tourism development with local feature industry, few have focused on local populations’ perceptions. Eisinger (2000) also points to the negligence of civic leaders and politicians who boost tourism and entertainment projects to build cities for visitors rather than paying attention to local residents. Given the fact that local feature industry combining tourism development can flourish in an area only with the support of the area’s populations, it is envisaged that the perceptions of local populations toward tourism development serve as crucially important inputs in identifying the strategic and managerial priorities. Focusing on local populations’ responses, this study seeks to identify both benefit and cost of tourism development, with the case of ceramics in Yingge. Furthermore, this study examines the local populations’ perception difference on development impact, with more specific on local resident and businessman.

2. Methodology

The purpose of this study was to identify the benefit and cost of tourism development in Yingge area, and further examine the perception difference between local resident and businessman. The researchers conducted a questionnaire survey and semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect empirical data in the current study. The questions in the questionnaire were based on information obtained from reviewing the existing literature, and the questionnaire was pre-tested and revised. The content of questionnaire includes personal data, perceived feature of the ceramic industry, and perceived impact of tourism development. The respondents were asked to rate the perceived ceramic feature with tourism development and the perceived impact of tourism development using a five-point Likert scale, which in this case ranged from ‘strongly disagree (=1)’ to ‘strongly agree (=5)’. The survey was conducted from September to November 2006 in Yingge in Taiwan.

In keeping with the research purpose of this study, one part of participants in the survey was local residents whose age is over 15 and had lived in Yingge area over half years. We conducted systematic sampling based on the proportion of population in Yingge area, and selected residents with long-term life experience (over half year) as candidate samples. Respondents with long-term life experience are more likely to have a comprehensive understanding of the nature of Yingge area. Five hundred questionnaires were distributed to local residents, yielding 463 usable surveys. The valid response rate was 92.6%. The other part of participants in the survey was local businessman in the historic ceramic street. Census survey was conducted that total 130 shops were operated in the historic ceramic street. Researchers and academic colleagues personally visited the shop owners or clerks to increase the response rate and ensure the accuracy of the questionnaire collection. Deducing those who refuse to participate in investigation, 73 usable surveys was yielded.

3. Results

Table 1 illustrates the perceived development of Yingge area between local resident and businessman. Both residents and businessmen consider Yingge to be cultural district, and think the ceramics is the most representative feature industry of Yingge. The main tourism resources are also related to ceramics, including the historic ceramic street and ceramics museum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The district position of Yingge</th>
<th>Local resident (n=463)</th>
<th>Local businessman (n=73)</th>
<th>χ²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural district</td>
<td>48.38</td>
<td>63.01</td>
<td>11.53*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residential district</td>
<td>17.49</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial district</td>
<td>9.94</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial district</td>
<td>16.41</td>
<td>19.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ceramics is the most representative industry in Yingge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agreement</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>No comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>90.28</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No comment</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tourism resource for tourist in Yingge (multi-select)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Natural landscape</th>
<th>Cultural landscape</th>
<th>Historic ceramic street</th>
<th>Ceramics museum</th>
<th>Local famous temple</th>
<th>Ceramic factory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>57.88</td>
<td>36.50</td>
<td>90.06</td>
<td>83.15</td>
<td>22.25</td>
<td>43.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.55</td>
<td>26.03</td>
<td>93.15</td>
<td>69.86</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>10.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.27**</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>7.34**</td>
<td>11.10**</td>
<td>28.57**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researchers employed an exploratory factor analysis to extract the dimensions of the ceramic feature and the impact of tourism development with the survey data. Ceramic feature with tourism development were identified based on the attribute covered: diversification, creative life, and art. Additionally, benefit identified based on the attribute covered: employment opportunity, local revenue, facility and infrastructure, local pride and community spirit, culture promotion, and destination image; Cost factor were also identified, including environmental protection, life quality, traffic order, and ecological resource. A reliability test based on Cronbach’s α score was used to test whether these factors are consistent and reliable. Cronbach’s α for each factor are shown in Table 2. The reliability value of each factor is greater than 0.6, which is considered adequate for a satisfactory level of reliability in basic research.

**P<0.01; *P<0.05**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Factor Loadings</th>
<th>Variance explained (%)</th>
<th>Cronbach’s α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ceramic feature with tourism development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversification</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>58.55</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative life</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment opportunity</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>42.29</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local revenue</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facility and infrastructure</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local pride and community spirit</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture promotion</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination image</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental protection</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>56.53</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life quality</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic order</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecological resource</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P<0.01; *P<0.05**

Table 3 presents the perceived difference between local residents and businessmen. In discussing with regard to the benefit, local businessmen reveal more agreement of employment and income benefit from tourism development than local residents. However, local residents reveal more approve of the culture promotion from tourism development than local businessmen. As for the cost, local businessmen have stronger feeling about the environmental damage and traffic congestion than local residents as result of tourism development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Resident Mean</th>
<th>Resident Std. deviation</th>
<th>Businessman Mean</th>
<th>Businessman Std. deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ceramic Feature</td>
<td>Diversification</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>-4.86**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceramic Feature</td>
<td>Creative life</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>-2.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceramic Feature</td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>-0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The researchers further conduct structural equation modeling to test the full model of ceramic feature, benefit, and cost by using several latent variables. The measurement model of ceramic feature hypothesizes that the ceramic feature constitutes an exogenous latent variable that can be represented by three exogenous measured variables: diversification, creative life, and art. Additionally, the measurement model of benefit used here hypothesizes that the benefit is an endogenous latent variable that can be represented by four endogenous latent variables, including employment opportunity, local revenue, facility and infrastructure, local pride and community spirit, culture promotion, and destination image. The measurement model of cost used here hypothesizes that the cost is an endogenous latent variable that can be represented by four endogenous latent variables, including environmental protection, life quality, traffic order, and ecological resource. Following the measurement model, the researchers conducted confirmatory factor analysis to measure the properties of the scales. The estimation of variables in this study was tested using maximum likelihood methods to determine whether the model fit the structural equation models. The structured factors used in this study are shown in Figure 1. The full SEM model fit well: \( \chi^2 (63) = 3.19 \), GFI=0.965, AGFI=0.92, and NFI=0.86. As a result, the model fit corresponded with the estimation standards of an SEM model, and the reliability and validity of this study were judged to be satisfactory. The structured factor of ceramic feature for benefit was significant at 0.33 \((p<0.001)\), and for cost was significant at -0.19 \((p<0.01)\). Therefore, ceramic feature with tourism development have significant positive impacts on the benefit, and have significant negative impacts on the cost.

**P<0.01; *P<0.05

Fig. 1. Path model of ceramic culture, benefit, and cost
4. Conclusion

The development of local feature industries has shifted from the concept of preserving traditional cultural assets, using region-specific unique resources, integrated with government policies and creative activities, to nourish industries representative of the region. This paper examines the impact of local feature industry combining tourism development derived from current regional development case- Yingge. Findings suggested that tourism development in the Yingge has contributed both benefit and cost to local populations. Tourism development brought more benefits with a creation of employment, increased in revenue, improvement of facility and infrastructure, increased local pride and community spirit, promotion of local culture, and improvement of destination image. Concomitant negative impacts resulted from tourism development also result in environmental damage, life disturbance, traffic congestion, and ecological devastation. Considering ceramics was approved as representative industry for both local residents and businessmen, there is needed to construct a balance between benefit and cost of tourism development. Consequently, the study provides references for other similar regions eager to boost economic growth and industrial development.

References

The Effect Remittances Have on the Living Standards of Albanians and on Country’s GDP

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Abstract
Albania remains one of the countries with the lowest income in Europe. Poverty has forced many people since 1990 to migrate mainly toward Europe in search of a better life. The majority of immigrants have repeatedly sent the savings to their families in Albania. These remittances have significantly improved the Albanians’ daily living and simultaneously have a positive impact on the growth of Gross Domestic Product. In recent years, due to the global crisis, there is a decrease in remittances from emigrants and simultaneously an increase in the number of emigrants who are returning home definitely, in order to work and live in Albania. These immigrants, once returned home, are investing their savings mainly in the area of services. In this article we will examine to what extend is the impact of remittances on the lives of Albanians and GDP, as well as factors that have led to an increase or decrease of this impact.

Keywords: emigrants, remittances, savings, Albania, income per capita

1. Introduction
Albania ranks among the countries with the highest percentage of the labor force living and working abroad. This workforce has played a very important role in supplying the country with foreign currency and stimulated the Albanian economy through remittances to support their families. The beneficial effects of remittances on the Albanian economy during the difficult years of transition are widely known. In 2004, the Bank estimated that the flow of remittances recorded a figure of 13.5 percent of GDP in Albania, three times more than the net foreign direct investment and doubled official development assistance (Official Development Assistance - ODA) to Albania. During the last years, as a result of the global economic crisis or even the combination of this crisis with “A natural cycle”, remittances are facing a continual decline. The inflow of remittances, which once marked an amount several times larger than the foreign investment, is fading more and more each year, starting from 2008 and leaving the country a series of questions and uncertainties about what will replace this source. An uncertain analysis and insufficient data has also accompanied the information on the influence that remittances have had into the lives of host families, and to what extent this decline has affected the daily lives of hundreds and thousands of families that benefited from these remittances.

2. Analysis of migration in time
Albania has a long history of massive emigration from the Middle Ages. Before the 20th century, the emigration of Albanians was characterized by a chaotic movement of the population, not only in the Balkans but also in other countries.
including Russia and America. Invasions, wars and economic difficulties were the main causes of migration. From the beginning of the 19th century are clearly distinguished three stages of the Albanian emigration:

2.1 The first stage until 1945

At the end of the 19th century, Albanian immigrants were concentrated in certain regions of the Ottoman Empire, in Asia Minor, Egypt, Bulgaria and Romania. Data show that in 1880 there were 60,000 in Istanbul, 30,000 in Egypt, in Romania there were 10,000 immigrants and in Bulgaria 2000.

In the early 1900s, the economic potential offered by the U.S.A, Australia, Brazil and Argentina, attracted the attention of many immigrants among them many Albanians. After 1903 emigrants headed to America, Australia, Madagascar, Hindi, Brazil and Argentina. In the following years, especially after 1905, Albanians emigrated to Canada and the USA, starting their long journey not only from Albania, but also from Turkey, Greece and Egypt. Consequently, the largest concentrations of Albanian immigrants in that period are in the U.S.A where the number grew from 30,000 in 1910, up to 80,000 immigrants in 1916. After World War I, the intensity of emigration increased significantly and it was estimated that approximately 111,000 people emigrated toward different countries, mainly in the U.S.A. Taking into consideration the fact that the population of Albania at that time numbered about 900,000 inhabitants, the population in emigration abroad had a considerable percentage, about 12% of it.

2.2 Stage II - 1945 -1990.

With the establishment of the communist regime in Albania, emigration always in a smaller size, took a political character. The Albanian government strongly opposed emigration, by all means, taking punitive measures, putting in practice strict political and legal laws, even calling it a crime if someone attempted to leave the country. Despite this existing repression, migration existed in a clandestine form and had a political motive. For a long period of about 45 years, there were about 20,000 immigrants leaving the country.

2.3 The third stage – after 1990.

In the 1990, migration abroad has brought basically economic and social changes occurring in Albania. It is estimated that more than 25 percent of Albanians were living abroad. No other country of central and eastern Europe was so much affected by the migration for a short period of time. Russell King claims that Albania can be seen as a laboratory for studying the new migration processes. The data show that starting from 1990, 710,000-1,000,000 Albanians moved out temporarily or to stay there forever. In a country with no more than 3 million inhabitants, this figure is relatively high, so as to attract attention and to justify the researchers. As migration has been chaotic, illegal and unregistered, the figures on this phenomenon are un-specified. This phase is divided into several sub stages:

- The period from 1991-1992 was because of a destabilizing environment.
- 1992-1996 period was characterized by a relatively called political stability and socio-economic progress. Immigration declined during 1992-1996. The reason was attributable to the improvement of the political stability and socio-economic situation. At the end of 1996 the number of Albanian citizens living abroad amounted to 350,000 people.
- The period from December 1996 - April 1997 was the third wave of emigration. The influx of immigration became more massive in 1997, as a result of the collapse of pyramid schemes and political turmoil that accompanied this event.
- The period from 1998 and onwards, Albanian governments implemented and are implementing a National Stabilization Program.

The trend of migration movement in Albania is presented by a Net migration. By studying this phenomenon, analyzed in five-year terms, beginning from 1976, it is seen that the highest level showed from the years 1991 to 1995, is associated with a significant decrease in the last five years.
Table 1.1 Net migration in Albania

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Net migration</td>
<td>-5549</td>
<td>-4772</td>
<td>22871</td>
<td>-423285</td>
<td>-270245</td>
<td>-72243</td>
<td>-47889</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Open Data Albania

The falling net flow of immigrants came mainly from the crisis that two main host countries Greece and Italy suffered, but also from the tendency of Albanians to always return home, in order to live and work in their native country. From a study accomplished in 2003 by Ilir Gedeshi and Esmeralda Uruci, to the question whether they were ready to return to Albania, 66% of legal immigrants interviewed answered "Yes", 19.7% answered "No" and 14.3% were not sure whether to return in their country or not.

If we compare the net migration in the years 2005-2010 with that of other countries in the region, Albania remains in the top list of these countries.

Table 1.2. Net Migration of different Countries’ results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Net migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>-47889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia-Herzegovina</td>
<td>-10000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>154004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>-2508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ODA 2011

Based on the figures of the above Table, the main host country for Albanians is Greece.

3. Remittances an important factor in improving the living standards of Albanians

The model of Albanian emigration after 1990 is described as unique. It is characterized by several features.

Firstly, migration appears as an immediate phenomenon, rattling and explosive, after a 45 year period of isolation. Combined with a powerful internal migration, it results that we have a population moving inside and outside Albania, about half of its population.

Secondly, migration's size, compared to the population of Albania has been bigger than in other countries. Albania is one of the few countries with a quarter of its population in emigration.

Thirdly, migration's size, compared to the population of Albania has been bigger than in other countries. Albania is one of the few countries with a quarter of its population in emigration.

Thirdly, migration has played an important role in the survival of the Albanian population, especially in two key moments. In the early 1990s, migration had consequences associated with economic and political changes. During the 1993-1996 periods, economic stability and GDP growth contributed to the reduction of migratory flows. Also remittances, which accounted for 25% of GDP, made an important contribution to the survival of a large number of Albanians. In 1997, political chaos, economic and social disintegration of firms created by fraudulent schemes, had a negative impact on the welfare of Albanians, so it increased migratory flows again. Albania remains one of the countries with the lowest income per capita in Europe.

Poverty, high unemployment, a long-term transition, the uncertainty of investing, a low level of public services, and these factors are the main reasons for Albanians' migration. Not wanting to dwell on internal migration, since migration flows within the country have been of a considerable size, our study will focus only on migration outside the country (international), and its effects on improving the lives of Albanians.
Table 2.1. GDP/Capita and Remittances/GDP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years/Indicators</th>
<th>Growth of GDP</th>
<th>GDP/Capita in $</th>
<th>Remittances/GDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>-0.072</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>381.5</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>610.8</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>737.8</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>808</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>684</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>906.5</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>1080.9</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>1164</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>1357</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>1535</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>1938</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>2336</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>2597</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>2854</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>3394</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>4073</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>3765</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>4480</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>4555</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>4156</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: INSTAT, Bank of Albania,

According to the above table (table 1.1) it is seen an increase in GDP/capita from 1992 up to 2011, followed by a slight decline in 2012. Compared with per capita income in the countries of Europe which for 2012 was $ 32,500, in Albania it is about 8 times lower. A significant impact on - Per capita income has remittances from Albanian emigrants. Since 1991, revenues sent helped Albanians to meet the basic needs of their families.

Receiving remittances through emigration is seen by most Albanians as the most effective way of coping with the country’s very difficult economic conditions and ultimately escaping poverty at the individual and household level. Albanian immigrants working abroad have sent home remittances estimated variously (because of the uncertainty of the volume of unrecorded transfers) to be somewhere between $300 million and $1 billion per annum: the country’s major source of external income after aid. Put it another way, the remittances sent by one Albanian migrant were equivalent to 2.5 times the sum of the average wages of all members of a family in 1995.

The majority of the international migrants (69.7%) send their money in order to meet “the essential needs of the family” and in this case we have to do with the constant remittance, used completely for consumption. Whereas the additional remittances related to “the furnishing of the house” are sent only by 29.9% of international migrants, 9.4 per cent of migrants send remittances for investment in their homeland, and only 18% of migrants send remittances for the “purchase and construction of a house”.

3.1 The source countries of Albania’s remittances

The two host countries with the largest numbers of Albanians were Italy and Greece. As shown on table 2.2, beside them are ranked some other places that have received a considerable number of Albanian emigrants. Of course, the main income from remittances came from Italy and Greece.
Table 2.2. The number of Albanians migrating after 1990, according to their host countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host countries</th>
<th>Nr. of emigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>600,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>250,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A</td>
<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>11,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherland</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1,193,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Albanian government and IOM, "National Strategy on Migration", Tirana 2005

The Income from remittances for 2009 (according to World Bank, Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011) was 11%. The main countries of remittances are Greece, Italy, United States of America, Macedonia, Germany and Canada. These six countries have the major share of remittances to Albania as it constitutes 98% of the total. Other countries constitute a very low percentage, only 2% of the total, however it is interesting to see foreign countries from which our citizens send their earnings.

Table 2.3. The value of remittances in Euro & USD for 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host countries</th>
<th>USD</th>
<th>Euro</th>
<th>In %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>10.30</td>
<td>5.93</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>13.74</td>
<td>7.92</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>64.57</td>
<td>37.21</td>
<td>5.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A</td>
<td>74.47</td>
<td>42.92</td>
<td>6.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>431.54</td>
<td>248.71</td>
<td>38.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>538.31</td>
<td>310.24</td>
<td>47.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1,132.92</td>
<td>652.94</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: World Bank

Greece and Italy are the two main countries where Albanian citizens have emigrated, they live and work there. Greece is the country with the highest values of incoming remittances. The value of shipments marks EUR 310 243 000 (three hundred and ten million two hundred and forty-three thousand Euros) and constitutes 47% of the total. After Greece, Italy has the highest value of remittances to Albania with a shipment of 248 710 000 EUR shipment (two hundred forty-eight thousand seven hundred and ten thousand Euros).

3.2 Correlative links between GDP and migration flows

There is a correlative link between economic development of the Albanian economy and migration flows. The improving of Albanian economy has a positive impact on reducing migration flows. In principle, revenue growth should be influenced by expectations about developments in the economy. Forecasts for growth in the price level and exchange rate depreciation should be associated with higher levels of interest rate and will encourage a greater entry of foreign currency from immigration. In the years 1994 – 1996, the phenomenon of remittances is observed; we have a withdrawal of foreign currency revenues from the domestic pyramid, reaching the highest level in 1996. 1997 and 1999 recorded a decrease of these transfers, respectively, as a result of the 1997 crisis, the collapse of pyramid schemes and the Kosovo crisis.
According to Papanagos & others (2008), migration from Albania slowed significantly after 2000. This downward trend is a consequence of several factors, the most important is the improvement of economic conditions in the country, as it can be understood by the indicators of GDP growth. Between 1998 and 2008, the real growth rate of GDP averaged 7% per year. On the other hand effective control of borders (notably of Italy and Greece) and the fact that many Albanians have already migrated, has contributed to the decline of migration.

Still Albanians tend to migrate abroad. According to a study made by ETF (2007), 17.8% of the population observed, has the real intention and possibility to migrate.

Relying on the Classification of S. Wahba, who makes reference to Giudici (1998), we can distinguish four Types of remittances:

1. Potential remittances, which represent the total savings of the emigrants. This can be calculated by subtracting the personal necessary expenditures incurred in the country of emigration from the incomes.
2. Constant remittances, which imply the minimum income that the emigrant sends to his family in the country of birth, intended to cover the cost of daily necessities.
3. Additional remittances, which represent extra income over the regular amount sent by the emigrant. This is not used to meet the most acute needs of the family, but for investments in factual or financial undertakings.
4. The spared remittances, representing the amount of savings that the emigrant doesn’t intend to make as a remittance, but prefers to invest in the country of emigration.

Having marked with:

\[ Y = \text{the income of the emigrant in the country of emigration} \]
\[ C = \text{the indispensable consumption of the emigrant} \]
\[ c = \text{the daily necessities of the emigrant’s family} \]
\[ S = \text{emigrant’s savings} \]

We can write: \( Y = C + c + S \)

We can sum up the different types of remittances as follows:

\[ R = c + aS + (1 - a)S = c + S \]
\[ R = \text{potential remittances, } c = \text{constant remittances, } a = \text{emigrant’s tendency to send the savings} \]
\[ aS = \text{additional remittances} \]
\[ (c + aS) = \text{dispatched remittances, and } (1 - a)S = \text{spared remittances} \]

The amount of dispatched remittances from the emigrants to the country of origin, is determined by a group of factors like:

- The number of employees that have emigrated and are working abroad.
- The structure of emigrants according to age, civil status and family unification, scale of qualification, neighborhood with the country of emigration, legalization, etc.
- Labor conditions also have a strong impact on remittances. The key elements that exert influence in this case are the wage level, which changes according to the country of emigration, the type of work, facilities created by the local employers for the emigrants, etc.
- The amount of remittances depends also on the security, speed and ease of transferring money to the homeland.
- Political, economic and social changes occurring in the country of origin and destination, also have a great impact on the quantity of remittances transferred.

What has recently been noted is the significant decrease of the 'a-factor = immigrant's Tendency to send the Savings'. Notwithstanding this decreasing trend, we believe that for many years remittances will play an important role in economic indicators in Albania.

3.3 The relationship GDP - remittances

Net remittances transfers without counter to or from country, are an integral part of the income and indirectly part of GDP. During the period of 1991-2000, immigrants’ remittances have been increasing and have represented about 10-22 per cent of GDP respectively. Pursuant to Bank of Albania estimated: they reached to about USD 620 million in 2001, or about 15 per cent of GDP, in USD 150 million or about 22 Percent of GDP were in 1992. (Gedeshi, Uruci, 2003).

During 2002-2012 the position of remittances toward GDP increased until 2007 and declined in the coming period. The best year resulted 2007, where remittances have reached a 952 million value. Gross Domestic Product this year has been seven billion eight hundred and twenty nine million, a considerable figure compared to 2006 when GDP was five...
billion eight hundred and seventy-six million. The lowest remittances during this decade have been in 2011 with 665 million shipments. The years 2003-2004 resulted in a constant value of GDP –in a value of 774 million.

**Chart 2.1. Remittances chart and Gross Domestic Product**

![Remittances chart and Gross Domestic Product](image)

**Source:** Annual Reports of the Bank of Albania.

### 3.4 The link between remittances and exports

Remittances are shipments of immigrants working abroad, while exports represent the value of goods and services sold or performed abroad. Both of these values are important to the national economy and the standards of living in the country. In 2001, remittances were about twice higher than foreign currency income on exports. Remittances have also played an important role in financing imports and covering the trade deficit. Important was their role even for maintaining the eventual Domestic currency exchange rate and for fast development of services and the Sectors of Construction. Thus, they have positively impacted on the macroeconomic Stability of the country. In the time span of ten years 2002 - 2012, the positioning of these two values presented is really interesting. In the time frame 2002 - 2007 remittances stayed higher than exports showing a weak economy based on manufacturing shipments market share of nationals working abroad. In 2008 this difference varies and this is the first year in which the value of goods and services sold abroad is higher than the value of the domestic economy obtained money from remittances. The difference was shaken again in 2009 where remittances recorded a higher value than export revenues. The last three years indicate an increase in the value of exports by creating a progressive margin export remittances towards a positive value.

**Chart 2.2. The link between remittances and exports**

![Dynamics of remittances and exports during 2002 - 2012](image)

**Source:** Bank of Albania

In the last three years (2010-2012) exports are much larger in value compared with remittances. During these three years, remittances have been almost constant, while exports increased by one billion two hundred and seventy million in 2010 to one billion five hundred and sixty-two million Euros in 2012. The comparison of remittances and exports, and the ratio between the two values, aims to investigate the trend of the domestic economy and contributing to the national balance of payments. If in 2002, remittances were double the value of exports in 2012 this value of remittances from abroad constituted only 50% of the value of exports. This marked difference is based on the value of exports increased over the past ten years.
3.5 Linking Remittances - Foreign Direct Investment

Both these indicators are inflows of balance of payments and are two important indicators for the growth of national economies. Foreign direct investment includes investments of foreign individuals and institutions in the local economy, if the investment makes the investor own more than 10% of the equity of an enterprise. During this three-year the value of FDI is higher than the value of Remittances. 2010 recorded the highest difference between the value of shipments of migrant remittances and the value of foreign direct investment. In this year 690 million Euro mark remittances and FDI are worth 789 million Euros. This is the first year when remittances fall below the value of foreign direct investment.

Chart 2.3. Linking Remittances - Foreign Direct Investment

Source: Bank of Albania

This difference in favor of the value of foreign investments is due to the fall in remittances and also due to the increase in the value of foreign direct investment. The difference is reduced in the next two years- 2011 and 2012. In these two years the value of foreign direct investment has fallen respectively 717 and 727 million Euros. Even though, in values higher than the value of remittances, the performance of the last two years for foreign direct investment again demonstrates that the Albanian economy still relies on sustainable delivery of Albanians working abroad.

Over a longer period of ten years 2002-2012, the ratio of these two values appears more interesting. Years 2006 – 2010 are the years with a progressive increase of the value of foreign direct investment. This time period marks a positive moment for the local economy. However the value of remittances is also considerable, variable in a decade, from 665 million Euros the year with the lowest value to 952 million Euros with the year with the best value. This percentage has been decreasing, proving once again the fact that if in the first decade remittances helped to develop the economy, occupying a very important part of GDP, the second part of this situation is changing in favor of FDI.

3.6 The current state of migration

According to the data of the Albanian Centre for Competitiveness and International Trade, during the first half of 2013, 18 to 22% of emigrants are returned to Albania, which is equivalent to 180,000 people. The main reasons are: unemployment, higher taxes and rising costs of living in Greece, which have made living there impossible. The same phenomenon is not seen in the next Albanians’ host country, Italy.

It remains a concern how these immigrants, who have had an average of 10 to 15 years away from their place of birth, will adapt to the life in Albania.

This wave of immigrants is expected to exert strong pressure on public services in the country and especially in Education and health services.

4. Conclusions and findings

1. Albanian families use the remittances for the most basic expenses such as food and health services. The reducing of remittances in the recent years is worrying because this fact will worsen the quality of life of these families.

2. Starting from 2008 there has been a significant deterioration of remittances to Albania, it has happened both in quantity as well as in percentage of GDP.
3. Remittances in Albania serve to regulate the balance of payments, it is clear that this way of balancing is not sustainable in the long term. For this reason it is necessary to develop and implement incentive policies that will affect the growth of foreign direct investment (FDI) and export growth, as two other components of the balance of payments. This will affect the stability of the economy.

4. The negative effects of shipments’ downturn mostly fall on poor families. This requires a new focus on public policies that will bring poverty alleviation, especially it will improve social assistance schemes.

5. The returning home of about 180,000 immigrants, because of the Greek crisis, requires implementing policies that promote the growth of employment. In the case of immigrants and their families a great help to give would be undertaking particular policies that promote education and professional development.

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Health Tourism in Turkey: Opportunities and Threats

Dr. Esma Gültüvin Gür Omay
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Abstract

Health Tourism is becoming an upward trend in our globalised world. Health tourism can be simply defined as travelling of the individuals to other countries to seek medical care. Increased health care expenses in the West and the globalisation have led individuals to seek health care in other countries that provide affordable health care. On the other hand, wellness and anti-aging practices are also gaining ground in today’s modern world. The urge to look good on individuals as a result of the existing trends in today has also led the individual to seek advice in wellness and anti-aging. The changes in life styles and health marketing policies on wellness and anti-aging practices, lack of adequate insurances, high costs and travel means have increased the interest on health tourism. Turkey is a good destination for health tourism. Because of the high quality of service provided at an affordable cost. Also, there are no long waiting lines for foreign patients; the visa procedures are easy for most of the nations. The purpose of this paper is to outline the opportunities and threats of health tourism in Turkey.

Keywords: health tourism, medical tourism, opportunities, threats, Turkey.

1. Introduction

Since the 1970s globalisation has affected political, economic and socio-cultural features all around the world. One of the important issues about that transformation is the development of health tourism. Although the concept of health tourism is not the result of globalisation, it has transformed into a massive export of services all around the globe. Some countries focus on health tourism to gain a competitive advantage among the other countries. Turkey has many advantages to become one of the most high ranked health tourism countries. The aim of this paper is to argue briefly Turkey’s health tourism related opportunities and threats.

2. Health Tourism: General Concepts

Health Tourism is becoming an upward trend for the last decades. Many countries focus on the health tourism issue for the last decades as it has become a remarkable service for export. Although the popularity of health tourism has been increasing as a result of globalization for the last decades, it has been an issue of at least two millenniums. There are many records that ancient Greeks and Romans travelled to long distances in order to seek healing and having bath in thermal waters. Its popularity is related with the increasing number of both health tourists and activities (Reisman, 2010: 1). Some records show that health tourism can be dated back to 4.000 BC when Sumerians used hot waters for the purpose of medical care (Ministry of Health, 2012: 19).

But for many popular concepts, there is much of an ambiguity on the definition and meaning of health tourism. Health tourism, what it is and what covers it, is a long disputed subject. The notion of work when taken historically brought different types of perception and understanding.

In order to understand the health tourism as a concept, it should be focused on the two concepts that health tourism is derived from: Health and tourism. According to Merriam Webster dictionary health is defined such as follows:

“1 a : the condition of being sound in body, mind, or spirit; especially : freedom from physical disease or pain
   b : the general condition of the body …
2 a : flourishing condition …
   b : general condition or state …
3 : a toast to someone’s health or prosperity” (www.m-w.com)

World Health Organisation (WHO) defines the concept of health such as follows: “Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity” (www.who.int). As it might be seen from the definitions given above, there is a common consensus on the definition and meaning of health.
Yet according to Merriam Webster dictionary tourism is defined such as follows:

“1 : the practice of traveling for recreation
2 : the guidance or management of tourists
3 a : the promotion or encouragement of touring
   b : the accommodation of tourists” (www.m-w.com)

It is clear that the first meaning of tourism is already related with health as the stress is on “recreation”. Therefore, the interconnectivity of those two words is obvious and the meaning of the health tourism becomes evident: “The practice of traveling for health”. Nevertheless, it is not so clear in the literature of health tourism since there is much of argument on the concept.

As being a popular concept, there are few consensus on the concept of Health Tourism. One of the most important issues on the ambiguity of the concept is related with its definitions. Indeed there are some other concepts similar to Health Tourism such as Medical Tourism and Wellness Tourism. Some authors prefer to use the concepts of health tourism and medical tourism without taking any measures on their differences while some others prefer to make a distinction between those two concepts (Smith and Puczko, 2009: 101). For instance, “The terms “medical tourism” and “health tourism” refer to treatments or surgery that have been planned in advance to take place outside a patient’s usual place of residence” (Terry, 2007: 416).

“... a distinction must be made between health tourism and medical tourism, whereby medical tourism is the correct term to use in cases in which medical interventions are required” (Yu and Ko, 2012: 81).

As seen from the quotations given above, the need for giving a clearer definition is obvious. According to some authors the term medical tourism is a subset of health tourism (Pocock and Phua, 2011: 2) according to some others medical tourism is a new niche in the health tourism industry (Connell, 2006: 1). Indeed, according to Connell, historically health tourism is the oldest kind of health related tourism since “tourism has always been associated with improved health and well-being” (2006: 1). A comprehensive analysis on the differences between health tourism and medical tourism is shown in Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Health tourism</th>
<th>Medical tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supply perspective</td>
<td>Provision of healthcare services to nonordinary residents</td>
<td>Exotic travel (especially to a developing region) with a brief opportunity to practice medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Business of providing medical care for foreign patients</td>
<td>Travel to poor countries by clinical professionals from rich countries for short-term work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand perspective</td>
<td>Travel to avail of medical care</td>
<td>Influx of foreigners for medical care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Travel to avail of medical services</td>
<td>Travel for the purpose of obtaining medical treatment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Carrera and Bridges, 2006: 448.

As seen in Table 1, the classification of two concepts are not strictly differ them at all. But according to another dichotomy made by Cohen, shows a strict difference between the concepts of health tourism and medical tourism. Cohen prefers to define at first the concept of medical tourist in order to define medical tourism. According to Cohen there are five types of tourist which are classified such as follows (2008: 25-26).

1) Mere tourist: A mere tourist is someone who is only on vacation abroad without seeking any medical treatment.
2) Medicated tourist: A medicated is someone who incidentally needs medical treatment during the vacation abroad.
3) Medical tourist proper: A medical tourist proper is someone who intends to benefit from both medical treatment and touristic activities at the same time abroad.
4) Vacationing patient: A vacationing patient is someone who intends to benefit also from touristic activities during the medical treatment abroad.
5) Mere patient: A mere patient is someone who is abroad only for seeking medical treatment. That classification seems to serve not to clarify the difference between health tourism and medical tourism but to make it clear that the medical tourism cannot be defined only by intended purpose medical tourists as the mediated tourists do not have the purpose of medical treatment. Another important point of Cohen’s classification is related with the scope of the health tourism yet it highlights the different levels of health tourism.

According to some authors health tourism is a composition of three main categories which are “Services to Improve Health (spa, herbal therapy, massage, etc.), Services for treatment – Medical Tourism (cosmetic surgery, heart surgery, eye surgery, cancer therapy, etc), [and] Rehabilitation Services (dialysis, addiction programs, elder care program)”(Ministry of Health, 2012: 18):

According to the Turkish Ministry of Health, “health tourism” might be considered as a combination of three subjects which are,
1. Medical tourism,
2. Thermal tourism,

It is clear that Turkish Ministry of Health considers medical tourism as a subset of health tourism which is appropriate to the commonsense in the related literature.

3. Benefits of Health Tourism

The benefits of health tourism might be argued under two main subjects. The first one is the benefits for the health service exporter countries and the other one is the benefits for the health tourists.

3.1 Benefits of Health Tourism for Health Service Exporter Countries

It might be surprising to assume the health service as an exporting goods but it is. Since the very nature of the medical care and health service, the buyer and the seller should be in the same room. Yet, it is true that with the development of technology it has become possible to manage a surgery by using robotic instruments controlled via telecommunication technologies, the most of the health related services are in need to be carried with direct connection (Reisman, 2010: 19-20; Cohen, 2008: 34). Needless to say that in the health tourism the buyer of the service has to pass the border physically or virtually.

By an economic view, health tourism is a kind of export-import relation between countries. Because, in this process some countries export the services of other countries while some other countries import those services. In this case, the health care is a kind of service which is demand by the clients who are foreigners. Indeed:

“The American patient is importing a service when he travels to Thailand to spend American dollars in a local clinic. The British hospital is exporting a service when it supplies major surgery to a Lebanese who has bought British first” (Reisman, 2010: 99).

It is estimated that the total volume of health tourism export revenues is about 100 billion USD (Özer and Sonğur, 2012: 70) and it is likely to increase in the next years. Therefore, health tourism has been becoming a remarkable industry for the countries. On the other hand, the industry promises gains more than its own revenues.

The benefits of health tourism for health service exporter countries might be considered in many different classifications, such as direct benefits and indirect benefits, tangible benefits and intangible benefits, visible benefits and invisible benefits, etc.

It should be noted that health tourism has more positive effects than it is expected. For instance, as it is a service based industry, health tourism helps to protect reserves. And also it helps to improve the skills of human resource and creates employment not only for skilled employees but also for unskilled and semi-skilled employees. Its multiplier effect for the economy is really very high as it needs complicated organizations, such as the need for building of new medical buildings, employing gardeners, cooks, etc. Moreover, investments for health tourism improve the quality of lives of the exporter countries citizens. On the other hand, health tourists do not prefer to travel alone (Reisman, 2010: 102-103).

3.2 Benefits of Health Tourism for Health Tourists

One of the important points on the health tourism issue is that the impetus on the increasing numbers of health tourist is mostly economic. As noted by Cohen, “Over the last decades, medical services in a large number of highly developed
countries have become increasingly more expensive and in some cases no longer affordable or accessible to large segments of the Population” (2008: 25). Therefore, the most obvious benefit of health tourism for health tourist is that it is cheaper comparing with his/her own country’s health care system. For instance,

“For complex surgery the [cost] differences are considerable. In 2003 a small child in the United States with a hole in her heart was faced with a bill of around $70,000 there, but the operation was carried out in Bangalore, India at a cost of $4400 ... Open heart surgery may cost about $70,000 in Britain and up to $150,000 in the United States but in India’s best hospitals it costs between $3000 and $10,000 depending on how complicated it is. Dental, eye and cosmetic surgery costs about a quarter of that in western countries” (Connell, 2006: 1097).

Although the economic advantage is obvious there are some other reasons to prefer health tourism. Some patients may prefer to be treated in the countries in which health care is carried on with high technology and better standards. In some countries the waiting lists are so long that some patients may prefer to attend to health tourism in order to shorten the waiting period. Some patients may have difficulties with their health insurance since those insurances may not cover some treatments (such as aesthetic surgeries), so the patients are to pay all the cost. On the other hand, some patients prefer to go abroad for medical treatment as those treatments are restricted in their own countries (Ministry of Health, 2012: 13; Erdoğan and Yilmaz, 2012: 1045-1046).

4. Health Tourism in Turkey

Starting from 1980s, Turkey has become a popular and attractive country for the tourists coming from all around the world. According to the recent statistics of United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), Turkey is in the 6th rank in the world, with arrivals of 35.7 million tourists in the year of 2012 (UNWTO, 2013: 6). The reasons of that remarkable result are the rich heritage of history and culture, but also the favourable climate.

In the recent years Turkey has been becoming a popular country for health tourism. Not only the advanced health facilities but also the touristic advantages are the reasons for that popularity. As a result, Turkey offers not only medical tourism but also health tourism as a whole for the foreign patients. In other words, as a state policy, Turkey seeks for a competitive advantage on health tourism with the power of her tourism experience.

As aforementioned above, the context of health tourism is implicit and highly arguable. Therefore, countries prefer to consider their policies related with health tourism with their own considerations according to their legal and socio-cultural structures as well as the degree of development in medical science and technology.

As noted above, the Turkish Ministry of Health, has preferred to define “health tourism” with the composition of these three subjects which are,

1. Medical tourism,
2. Thermal tourism,

Therefore, the state policies related with health tourism of Turkey might be considered with the view of that definition. The health tourism has become a state policy, and as a result of the fact that health tourism has begun to cover by legal regulations starting from 2011. Also Ministry of Health has become the responsible on the health tourism matters. Therefore, the Ministry reorganized and a central unit (Department of Health Tourism) founded in order to regulate the health tourism on national basis. On the other hand, Turkey has undergone a serious reorganization of health care system since 2002. The purpose of the reorganization is to make the health care system more efficient, more effective, and available with modernization and increasing the quality standards (Özer and Sonğur, 2012: 76).

Recent studies show that the reorganization of health care system has begun to yield positive outcomes since “foreign patients from all over the world come to Turkey to health institutions for plastic surgery, eye operations, hair [trans]plantation, fertility, open heart operations, dermatology, cancer treatments, brain surgery, [orthopaedics], dental operations, etc. for lower prices with high-tech standards” (BAKA, 2011: 16).

Having lower prices with high-tech standards seems to gain a real competitive advantage for Turkish health tourism industry. In Table 2 some prices of surgeries are given in order to make more evident comparison.
Table 2. Price Statistics of Selected Surgeries in Some Countries (USD 1.000)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SURGERY</th>
<th>US</th>
<th>TR.</th>
<th>IE.</th>
<th>TH.</th>
<th>DE.</th>
<th>TW.</th>
<th>SG.</th>
<th>IN.</th>
<th>IL.</th>
<th>ENG.</th>
<th>CH.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heart Bypass (CABG)</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>27-28</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30-33</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart Valve Replacement</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hip Replacement</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20-21</td>
<td>11-14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knee Replacement</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20-21</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spinal Fusion</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25-26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14-15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bone Marrow Transplant</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>40-70</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>50-60</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>50-60</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gamma Knife</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>17-20</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>22-25</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The prices are brought up.


Moreover, as increasing the quality standards “today, Turkey is shown among the key medical tourism destinations by the international authorities particularly in following treatment types: organ and bone marrow transplantation, cardiology and cardiovascular surgery, oncology, gamma knife, in vitro fertilization, orthopedics and traumatology, spine surgery, neurosurgery, reproductive health and pre-implantation genetic diagnosis, plastic surgery, dental services, ophthalmology” (Erdogan and Yilmaz, 2012: 1052).

5. Health Tourism in Turkey: Opportunities and Threats

As a popular touristic destination, Turkey has been ranked in the top ten countries in the previous years. The popularity of Turkey as a touristic destination is a result of not only her historical and cultural richness but also her climate and natural resources. Moreover, Turkey has invested and focused on tourism industry for the last decades.

Tourism has been known as a popular industry in all around the globe and countries try to make their best in order to gain competitive advantage in this trade. According to the 2013 year report of UNWTO which announced the results for the year 2012, tourism is actually a promising industry and global trade by all means. For instance, it was the source of 9% of total global GDP with its direct, indirect, and induced impact; it created each 1 of 11 jobs yet with its direct, indirect, and induced impact; its total trade volume for export was about 1.3 billion USD which was the 6% of total volume of exports (UNWTO, 2013: 2). As a result of the fact, the great interest of countries on tourism industry should not be considered as fading.

As a great player Turkey shows much of interest on tourism and she gained approximately 23 billion USD in 2010, 25 billion USD in 2011, and 26 billion USD in 2012 (UNWTO, 2013: 8). But the point is that, Turkey is not among the top ten countries which gain the highest income from tourism industry as it may be seen in Table 3.

Table 3. International Tourist Arrivals and International Tourism Receipts of top ten countries in 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International Tourist Arrivals</th>
<th>International Tourism Receipts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rank in 2012</td>
<td>Rank in 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 France</td>
<td>81.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 United States</td>
<td>62.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 China</td>
<td>57.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Spain</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Italy</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Turkey</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Germany</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 United Kingdom</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Russian Federation</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Malaysia</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Derived from UNWTO, 2013: 6.
As seen in the Table 3, although Turkey is a popular destination for international tourist, there is a mismatch between the number of international tourist arrivals and international tourism receipt. Indeed, it has been a long disputed subject in Turkey whether Turkey has been following the true strategies and policies for tourism industry since she cannot be able to gain the income as it should be. For instance, as seen from Table 3, the United States managed to earn approximately 1.884 USD per tourist in 2012 while Spain managed to earn approximately 969 USD per tourist in 2012. Turkey managed to earn approximately only 728 USD per tourist in 2012 while the Germany managed to earn nearly 47 % more than Turkey with a less number of tourists (approximately 17 %). Yet, it is quite clear that although Turkey is a popular destination for international tourists, she is not a popular destination for rich ones.

The strategies for gaining a competitive advantage might be considered as the reason of that problem because has much focused on offering world standard quality blended with rich cultural heritage and rich natural environment for an inexpensive, affordable price. Moreover, the all inclusive package tours have been promoted with the selling idea and slogan “Leave your wallet at home!”.

Focusing on health tourism may give a chance for Turkey to increase her trade volume and gaining from tourism industry since there is plenty of excess capacity to develop health tourism industry. Therefore, Turkish Ministry of Health has started to promote health tourism in order to develop and gain a competitive advantage in tourism industry. According to the Ministry Turkey’s competitiveness elements in health tourism are such as follows: “World standard quality, Personal service, Short waiting time, Rich cultural heritage, and Cheap service” (Ministry of Health, 2012: 27). According to a report of Turkish Health Ministry the SWOT analysis of Health Tourism in Turkey is shown in Table 4.

Table 4. SWOT Analysis of Health Tourism in Turkey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• A leading country of health sector in the world,</td>
<td>• Focusing too much on production and neglecting the importance of marketing,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Having lots of alternative touristic opportunities,</td>
<td>• Very few organisations support health tourism,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Well qualified service sector,</td>
<td>• Weak cooperation between health tourism establishments,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A forerunner of health tourism and has gained much of experience on health tourism,</td>
<td>• Lack of a holistic state policy on management of the health tourism,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Relatively inexpensive health care services comparing with others.</td>
<td>• Very few establishments are ready to support health tourism,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Advanced legal regulations and state support.</td>
<td>• The focus is mostly on “health of the tourist”,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The health tourism trend is increasing all around the globe,</td>
<td>• The negative effects of the political instability in the neighbour countries of Turkey,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The information about abroad health services becomes easier and free of cost as a result of the advanced information technologies,</td>
<td>• Brain-drain of Turkish medical professionals,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The increasing awareness of Turkey in the international arena,</td>
<td>• High degree of bureaucracy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• State support for health services export,</td>
<td>• Lack of domestic accreditation institutions for international standards,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Turkey is among the top ranking countries for tourism,</td>
<td>• Lack of service standards in health tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Geo-graphical and socio-political position of Turkey,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Willingness of health establishments to support health tourism,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Tax privileges for health tourism,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Charity organisations for health caring of some citizens of third world countries promotes Turkey's health tourism,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Increasing support of the state for advanced legal regulations covering the issue,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Health tourism has been acknowledged among the strategic plans of Turkey.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the recent years have shown that health tourism has a promising future for Turkish tourism industry since there is rapid growing in the number of foreign patients received health treatment in Turkey as shown in Table 5:

Table 5. The Foreign Patients Receiving Health Service in Turkey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Public Health Establishments</th>
<th>Private Health Establishments</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Change (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>17,817</td>
<td>56,276</td>
<td>74,093</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>21,442</td>
<td>70,519</td>
<td>91,961</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>32,675</td>
<td>77,003</td>
<td>109,678</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>41,847</td>
<td>114,329</td>
<td>156,176</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>84,000*</td>
<td>186,000*</td>
<td>270,000*</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Estimated.

Source: Derived from Ministry of Health, 212: 33.

As indicated above the strategies are not adopted only for medical tourism but in a more common and wide sense. Yet, the Centre for Health Tourism of Turkish Ministry of Health has been organised under these sections: International coordination, health tourism, thermal tourism spa-wellness, and elderly-disabled tourism (Ministry of Health, 2012: 29). On the other hand, legal regulations, international co-operations, co-operations among the state bodies (such as Turkish Ministry of Foreign Affairs has been much busy for the abolition of visas with many countries and Turkish Ministry of Finance has begun to support health tourism by tax allowances), co-operations among public and private sector organizations (such as the support of Turkish Airlines for packet organizations with discounted prices) are quite remarkable efforts to support health tourism (Erdogan and Yilmaz, 2012: 1055-1056). Another important point is that Turkey in the 3rd rank for the "highest number of JCI accredited hospitals in the world" which is expected to yield positive results. Moreover, having close to 60 high qualified medical faculties training not only Turkish students but also foreign medical students, being in the cross-road between Europe and Asia, being the regional headquarters and manufacturing facilities of almost all major companies (such as Pfizer, GlaxoSmithKline, Johnson and Johnson, Sanofi-Aventis, Merck, Novartis, Roche, Astra Zeneca) and reliable supply of blood provided by Turkish Red Crescent (which is also accredited by JCI) are among the advantages of Turkish health tourism industry (www.healthinturkey.org). Therefore, health tourism seems as a promising industry for Turkey.

6. Conclusion

Health tourism is an upward trend in the global tourism industry. Although health tourism is an old concept, it has gained popularity as a result of globalization. Therefore, health tourism as a concept has been much of interest in the academic literature. Nevertheless, there is much of ambiguity on the meaning and the context of the health tourism concept. But in a common sense, health tourism is related with going abroad to receive health care. In the developed countries as the health care costs are high, the patients of those countries have begun to prefer to receive health care and medical treatment in the countries offering at least the same quality and standard for the inexpensive prices. On the other hand, high prices are not the only reason of the issue; there are some other reasons such as long waiting lists, restrictions of some treatments. Some countries have begun to show much of interest on appealing those patients as tourists. Turkey is among of those countries. Turkey has just started to pay attention on the issue for the last years as a result of the mismatch between the number of international tourist arrivals and the total of revenue gained from them. Although Turkey has in the 6th rank among the popular destinations, she cannot gain much of that. It seems that Turkey is willing to combine her tourism capacity with her health care service capacity to gain a competitive advantage on sharing a greater portion from that ever increasing niche market of tourism industry. Although Turkey has to overcome some threats, with her potential and willingness on making efforts, health tourism seems to be a promising industry of the near future.

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Antecedents and Outcomes of Brand Management from the Perspective of Resource Based View (RBV) Theory

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Abstract

Brand management requires greater emphasis on internal factors to increase brand performance. A model of antecedents and outcomes of brand management is developed in this study based on the Resource Based View (RBV) Theory. Top management emphasis on brand, corporate supportive resources and market orientation are identified as crucial internal factors or antecedents for success of brand management. Apart from that, the brand management measurement are expanded in this study with the introduction of three new marketing constructs namely marketing capabilities, innovation and brand orientation as new dimensions in brand management which currently comprised of management related constructs. This study also contributes in the brand management of small and medium enterprise (SMEs) literature as previous studies mainly focused on the brand management for multinational companies or large organizations. One important issue of SMEs is the “internal” brand management which is currently under-researched even though it is critical in brand building and management. Therefore, this research aims to highlight the antecedents and outcomes of brand management in Malaysians’ SMEs based on RBV theory. A comprehensive literature review was done and a conceptual model is proposed in this literature review.

Keywords: Brand management, SMEs, Resource Based View Theory

1. Introduction

An area of increasing importance to marketers today is brand management particularly as firms attempt to communicate the ever complex and intangible messages as part of brand management strategies (Davis, 2000; Goodchild & Callow, 2001). Possessing a strong brand allows SMEs companies to differentiate their products or services from the competitors, build customer loyalty and confidence, command a premium price over the competitors, employ as well as greater control over brand promotion and distribution; all while impacting the business valuation (Holverson & Revaz, 2006; Pass, Lowes, Pendleton & Chadwick 1995). Nevertheless, the literature related to effects of brand management to brand performance in SMEs context has yet to be fully explored. The main aim of proposed research is to determine the antecedents and outcomes of brand management in SMEs context by examining internal factors that contributes to the success of brand management based on RBV theory. In addition, the study also aims to highlight the importance of brand management among SMEs.

2. Theoretical Background – Resource Based View (RBV) Theory

The resource based view (RBV) theory views a firm as a bundle of resources and capabilities (Wenerfelt, 1984). Resources are categorized as tangible (physical or financial) or intangible (i.e., firm’s reputation, skills and experiences, organizational procedures, employee’s knowledge, brand name). In contrast, capabilities are referred to the ability of firm to capitalize its resource “to affect a desired end” (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993) or capacity of a firm to combine different resources by means of organizational processes in order to produce desired results (Prahald & Hamel, 1990; Grant, 1996). RBV framework has been broadly used in the marketing literature specifically to understand the performance of inter-organizational relationship (Palmatier, Dant, & Grewal, 2007), to analyze the relations of marketing and other functional capabilities and their consequence on performance (Song, Droge, Hanvanich & Calantone, 2005; Song, Nason & Benedetto, 2008) and to examine firm’s performance (Dutta, Narasimhan, & Surendra, 1999; Liebermann & Dhawan, 2005). However, even though substantial works has been published about brand management, an extensive literature
reveals issues related to internal factors contributing to the success of brand management based on RBV have yet to be fully covered. This “internal” brand management is crucial in brand building and management as without supportive internal processes no brand objectives can be really accomplished (Chen, Lam, & Zou, 2011). In spite of the diverse perspectives adopted in previous studies, brand management in this present study will involve three sets of variables namely antecedents, brand management, and performance outcomes. The work by Chen et al (2011) and Lee, Park, Baek, & Lee (2008) integrative model are used to develop the present study's framework.

3. Conceptual Model and Research Hypotheses

The conceptual model that guides the present empirical effort is presented in Figure 1. The antecedents of brand management, previously comprised of two internal organizational factors in Chen’s model -top management emphasis and corporate supportive resources- are expanded by examining an additional organizational factor – namely, market orientation and a thorough review of the mainstream marketing literature shown that the work of Lee et al.’s (2008) provides a comprehensive study of market orientation in the brand management context, as apparent by its extensive use in consequent brand management and brand performance studies. The brand management in this study is conceptualized based on the work of Lee et al (2008). Brand management is defined as a set of any systems, organizational culture or structure of a firm supporting activities of brand building. In this study, two of the building activities proposed by Lee et al. (2008) related to brand such as brand-related organization and culture and brand knowledge will be adopted. In addition three new constructs namely: marketing capabilities, innovation and brand orientation will be conceptualized as new dimensions in brand management and will be further elaborated in the next sections.

Figure 5. Conceptual Framework of Antecedents and Outcomes of Brand Management

3.1 Top Management Emphasis on Brand and Brand Management

Top management emphasis on brand refers to top managers’ attitude toward brand management, comprising the strategic position of brand building, understanding about types of brand image to build, and the efforts dedicated to development of brand (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993). Past studies have revealed that leaders or top management have important effect in influencing the values and orientations of the whole company (Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Jaworski et al., 1993; Zhou, Gao, Yang and Zhou, 2005). According to Awamleh & Gardner (1999) a vital element for business performance is top managers who inspire employees to dedicate themselves to brand-building activities more assertively and diligently by communicating a consistent and clear message of brand management. Besides that, Urde (1999) suggests top managers to support brand management by ensuring the brand team has better coordination from other departments as well as ample support. This is specifically critical in the case of brand management whereby top management emphasis play significant roles in the internal brand building process which then contributes to enhanced
business performance. Top management emphasis on brand is a key resource in influencing the success of brand management in a sense that it provides support to the brand-related activities (Chen et al., 2011; Richardo, 2001; Wong & Merrilees, 2005). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1: Top management emphasis on brand will have a positive effect on the five-dimensional brand management in SME (brand-related organization and culture, brand knowledge and education, marketing capabilities, innovation and brand orientation).

3.2 Corporate Supportive Resources and Brand Management

Corporate supportive resources describes the willingness of the firm to assign more resources to the brand and tangible resources assigned to the brand (Harrison, Hall, & Nargundkar, 1993; Wernerfelt, 1984) specifically on tangible resources (for example financial resource) that would be available for development of a brand. Management should realize the required resources and capabilities (e.g financial resource networking alliances and human resources) as these are critical to develop for firm’s success and to increase performance and differential advantage (Chen et al., 2011; J. Wicklund, 2009; Ndubisi, 2012; Sarah & Arokiasamy, 2009; Wernerfelt, 1984). Chen et. al (2011) further argues the importance of corporate supportive resources that in planning a brand strategy, several activities need to be conducted namely recruitment of employees and marketing research. During implementation, constant investments in the form of financial resources and human capitals are needed in almost all activities such as advertising, promotion and distribution. In particular, without sufficient resources, such activities would be impossible to be realised. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2: Corporate supportive resources will have a positive effect on the five-dimensional brand management in SME (brand-related organization and culture, brand knowledge and education, marketing capabilities, innovation and brand orientation).

3.3 Market Orientation and Brand Management

Market orientation is an organization culture and is incorporated in the inter-functional coordination within an organization as a critical resource for brand management (Narver and Slater, 1990; Slater & Narver, 1994, 1995). Firms that pursue market orientation strive to improve customers’ needs, react fast to competitors’ tactics and inter-functional coordination are more likely to enjoy strong brands due to a close relation with customer performance (Narver and Slater, 1990). By reacting and pursuing to preferences and needs of customer, market-oriented firms satisfy customers better than competitors and attain greater financial performance (Greenley, 1995; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). Brand management has also been found to have a significant impact on brand performance if influenced by market orientation, due to tracking and reacting to customer needs and preferences, market-oriented firms are able to satisfy customers and reach superior financial performance (Lee et al 2008). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3: Market orientation will have a positive effect on the five-dimensional brand management in SME (brand-related organization and culture, brand knowledge and education, marketing capabilities, innovation and brand orientation).

3.4 Brand Management and Brand Performance

Brand management is related to a set of any systems, organizational culture or structure of a firm which supports brand building activities (Lee et al. 2011). Brand management is the degree of infrastructure building activities related to brand such as brand-related organization and culture, brand knowledge and education (Davis & Dunn, 2002; Low & Fullerton, 1994; Vanauken, 2002). Three new constructs are incorporated as new dimensions in brand management namely marketing capabilities, innovation and brand orientation which will be elaborated in the next sections.

3.4.1 Brand-Related Organization and Culture and Brand Performance

Brand-related organization and culture refers to top management interest on brand, power of brand manager, brand manager system, employee’s branding motivation and brand information sharing by Lee et al., (2008). The positive relationship of brand-related organization and culture and brand performance is expected based on the observation of companies in which branding processes flows in all areas such as Procter & Gamble, Sony and Nike (Noble, Sinha &
Kumar, 2002). Additionally, the widespread interest to branding activities is observed in a broad variety of academic disciplines including general management (e.g., Drucker, 2002), marketing (e.g., Aaker, 2004; Keller, 2003) and also in practical fields (Low & Fullerton, 1994) show. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4(a): There is significant relationship between brand-related organization and culture and brand performance in SMEs.

3.4.2 Brand-Related Knowledge and Education and Brand Performance

Brand knowledge and education refers to brand education for managers, brand education for employees, employee’s effort to understand branding and workshop or training (Lee et al., 2008). Using RBV of the firm as theoretical background, Olavarrieta & Friedmann (1999) studied the role of knowledge-related resources as key antecedents of the continuous creation of competitive advantages to describe superior business performance. Studies have highlighted that progress of new insights or knowledge in the organization can be an essential determining factor of superior business performance and sustainable competitive advantages (Fiol and Lyles, 1985; Levitt and March, 1988; Sinkula, 1994). Knowledge of reactions to the industry structure and the competitive strength faced by a firm subsequently affect the firm’s strategic decisions (Weerawardena, O’Cass, 2004). Firms struggling to attain higher brand performance ought to do a joint effort to understand its customers and competitor actions which in turn allows them to incorporate its marketing tools to achieve the required market effectively (Cass et al., 2004). Knowledge-based resources (related to utilization of opportunities and discovery) are found to be positively related to firm performance and knowledge of the competitive intensity faced by a firm and reactions to the industry structure subsequently affect firm’s strategic decisions (Wiklund and Shepherd, 2003; Cass, Weerawardena, & Julian, 2004). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4(b): There is significant relationship between brand-related knowledge and education and brand performance in SMEs.

3.4.3 Marketing Capabilities and Brand Performance

Marketing capabilities refers to complex processes which comprised of organizational resources and market knowledge to produce added value (Vijande, Perez, Gutierrez, 2012). Having superior marketing capability leads to firms’ superior performance (Liem Ngo and Aron O’Cass, 1998); strengthen the value of products and services (e.g. brand equity) (Aaker,1996) and allows firms to achieve sustained competitive advantage (Cooper & Kleinschmidt, 1987; Vorhies & Morgan, 2005; Woodside, Sullivan & Trappey 1999); Weerawardena et al., 2004). Kotabe, Srinivasan, and Aulakh (2002) suggest that the firm’s ability to build successful brands and distinguish products and services from competitors reflect the firm’s marketing capability. A broad use of RBV framework in the literature regarding the analysis of firm performance (Dutta, Narasimhan and Surendra, 1999; Liebermann and Dhawan, 2005) to investigate the impact of marketing capabilities on performance (Song et al., 2007; Song, Droge, Hanvanich, & Calantone, 2005; Song, Nason, & Benedetto, 2008) imply that a significant relationship exists between capabilities and performance. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4(c): There is significant relationship between marketing capabilities and brand performance in SMEs.

3.4.4 Innovation and Brand Performance

Innovation relates to the practical ideas application to effectively utilize the capabilities of a firm and it goes beyond the products and service level to include modification in process and system (Cram 1996; Wong & Merrilees, 2008.). It signifies the firm’s innovation level in relations to its marketing management approach. For example, Gatignon and Xuereb (1997) argue that to obtain and develop sophisticated technologies in the new products development (brands), the key characteristics of R&D orientation are innovation-oriented organisations and pro-activeness. Deshpande and Zaltman (1993) suggested that innovative culture contributes to performance hence innovation is needed for organizations to be successful. O’Cass and Ngo (2007) concurred with this view by suggesting that innovative culture empowers the firm to generate opportunities through guiding the market and also enhance its brand performance. Empirical evidence also revealed that in the context of SMEs, innovation was a positive determinant of brand performance at the brand level (Weerawardena, O’Cass & Julian, 2006). The possession of market-sensing skills and market-oriented culture are important resources to cultivate and promote imitation capabilities and innovativeness in an organization and can be considered as keys for the success and survival of the firm (Olavarrieta & Friedmann, 1999). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:
Hypothesis 4(d): There is significant relationship between innovation and brand performance in SMEs.

3.4.5 Brand Orientation and Brand Performance

Brand orientation refers to mindset that directs a firm in terms of strategic marketing planning and promises that the brand will be known, favoured and featured in the marketing strategy and for a firm to build up its competitive advantages in markets it should be the first step (Wong et al., 2008). Generally, brand orientation could improve the marketing performance in various ways including building strong brand awareness and enhancing firm’s reputation (Calderon et al. 1997). It could even nurture brand loyalty that leads to certain marketing advantages such as new customers, greater trade leverage and lower marketing costs. As supported by Herbig and Milewicz (1997) brand orientation could build brand awareness and loyalty which can reduce price premium and marketing cost, where brand loyalty can bring to a firm include positive word of mouth and superior resistance among loyal consumers to competitors’ strategies (Calderon, H., Cervera, A., Molla, 1997; Dick and Basu, 1994). These findings suggest that with being more brand-oriented in brand-related activities, brand performance can be improved. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypotheses 4(e): There is significant relationship between brand orientation and brand performance in SMEs.

3.4.6 Brand Management as Mediating Factor

Although the firm has required capabilities to acquire related customer needs and behaviour information from the marketplace, it may lack the processes and systems to incorporate this information into the firm for product-related decision making (Roach, 2011). Therefore, market-oriented firms who lack brand management capabilities may be very effective at gathering external information (for example in SMEs founder is normally the primary information gatherer), but unable to sufficiently transmit this knowledge to the firm. In contrast, the firm may be functionally very strong, but lack the ability to disseminate and share relevant information across functional boundaries for decision making purpose. Therefore, brand management goes beyond mere market-oriented culture and behaviour by enhancing (or mediating) its impact on brand performance. This study thus postulates that brand management may be one of the missing mediation effects between the internal resources and brand performance as highlighted in several studies (Lee et al, 2008).

Hypotheses 5(a): Brand Management Mediates the Relationship between Top Management Emphasis on Brand and Brand Performance in SMEs.

Hypotheses 5(b): Brand Management Mediates the Relationship between Corporate Supportive Resources and Brand Performance in SMEs.

Hypotheses 5(b): Brand Management Mediates the Relationship between Market Orientation and Brand Performance in SMEs.

4. Concluding Remarks

The model addresses the gaps in the literature by identifying the antecedents of brand management based on the RBV theory. Top management emphasis on brand, corporate supportive resources and market orientation are identified as crucial internal factors or antecedents for success of brand management. Apart from that, as recommended by Lee et al., (2008), the brand management measurement are expanded in this study with the introduction of three new marketing constructs namely marketing capabilities, innovation and brand orientation as new dimensions in brand management which currently comprised of management related constructs. In summary, a conceptual model of brand management has been proposed in this literature review which is governed by RBV theory. This study also contributes in the brand management literature as previous studies mainly focused on the brand management for multinational companies or large organizations, while studies in the SMEs context have yet to be fully covered.

The authors have recently embarked on empirical research to test the model developed in this study and the internal factors believed to influence brand management and its outcomes. Findings will be reported in future publications.

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Liability for Environmental Damage in Portugal – A Short Overview

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Abstract


1. Introduction

The environmental law - administrative special law - is enshrined as a fundamental principle in article 66 of the Portuguese Constitution, as argued by Vasco Pereira da Silva, with a dual nature "as it presents itself simultaneously as subjective right and as a key element of objective order of the community.”(Silva, 2000).

2. The Environmental Liability Directive

The purpose of the Environmental Liability Directive – ELD- is to establish a framework of environmental liability, based on the “polluter-pays” principle, to prevent and remedy environmental damage (Lawrence, 2013).

The ELD aims at ensuring that the financial consequences of certain types of harm caused to the environment will be borne by the economic operator who caused this harm. Insofar as the ELD provides for the financial responsibility of an operator, it lays down a framework, based on the “polluter-pays” principle, which can be qualified as one of “environmental liability”, even though liability under the ELD has few in common with standard civil liability rules. For instance, the ELD does not give private parties a right of compensation as a consequence of environmental damage or of an imminent threat of such damage occurring.

The ELD’s own specific approach is shown by the role given to competent authorities to be designated by Member States. These competent authorities - in the Portuguese case Environment Portuguese Agency - will ensure the effective implementation and enforcement of the ELD.

It’s important to attend to the definition of environmental damage, cfr. artº 2º ELD.

There are three categories of environmental damage under the ELD:

a) “damage to protected species and natural habitats”, which is any damage that has significant adverse effects on reaching or maintaining the favorable conservation status of such habitats or species. The habitats and species concerned are defined by reference to species and types of natural habitats identified in the relevant parts of the Birds Directive 79/409 and the Habitats Directive 92/43;

b) “water damage”, which is any damage that significantly adversely affects the ecological, chemical and/or quantitative status and/or ecological potential, as defined in the Water Framework Directive 2000/60, of the waters concerned;

c) “land damage”, which is any land contamination that creates a significant risk of human health being adversely affected as a result of the direct or indirect introduction, in, on or under land, of substances, preparations, organisms or micro-organisms.

The ELD provides for two liability regimes:

Under the first liability regime, operators of certain activities deemed to be of actual or potential concern, listed in Annex III to the ELD, can be held liable in the event of damage to protected species and natural habitats, water damage and land damage. Among the activities concerned, one shall find large industrial installations; waste management
operations; certain installations releasing polluting substances into air; installations discharging polluting substances into water; manufacture, use, storage, processing, filling, release into the environment and onsite transport of dangerous substances and preparations; contained use of genetically modified micro-organisms and deliberate release into the environment, transport and placing on the market of genetically modified organisms.

3. The Decree-Law 147/2008 of July 29th


Such legal rules was further amended by Decree-Law 245/2009 of 22th September and by Decree-Law 29-A/2011, 1 March.

This law came into force in the Portuguese legal to August 1st, 2008. The national diploma establishes two distinct mechanisms of responsibility: i) liability and ii) administrative responsibility for the prevention and remedying of environmental damage—chapter II and III respectively.

In Chapter III set up mechanisms to prevent and repair damage to the environment before the collective, not the individual being reimbursed by virtue of such damages.

In Chapter III establishes to prevent and repair damage as mandatory, this is because whenever an operator causing environmental damage or threaten is legally and financially responsible for the repair and/or prevention.

The problem is that the legislature and as recognized in the preamble of the text had never been previously spun the difference between environmental damage and ecological damage: For many years the issue of environmental responsibility was considered in view of the damage caused to people and things.

The main problem consisted in repairing subsequent damage to environmental perturbations—i.e., the injuries suffered by a particular person in their legal interests or personality or in their assets as a result of environmental contamination. Besides establishing two liability regimes: i) objective and ii) subjective. In strict liability the agent liable for the damage that resulted, being exempted from verification of the fault in his performance. From roughly this kind of responsibility will occur when we stand before the situations listed in Annex III of the diploma. All other operators are subject to subjective responsibility in the usual manner, i.e., will have to verify the existence of a fact, wrongfulness, fault, damage and causal link between the fact and the damage.

4. The non-application of the case law Decree-Law 147/2008

The courts have not been called upon to rule on the application of this statute. Recently, the South Central Administrative Court was asked to rule on the basis of legal liability of the state's environmental, but still prior to the effectiveness of DL 147/2008.

In this case, several associations representing fishing interests and environmental protection association of goshawks, brought an action for damages against the state for the purpose of claiming that it should oversee the subarea Azores Exclusive Economic Zone of Portugal, as well as payment of compensation to the plaintiffs for failure of supervision.

What was at issue here was that the Navy and Air Force Portuguese have omitted the required inspection activities conducted by vessels fishing for non-nationals, these prohibited between 100 and 200 miles, in the years 2002-2004, after the publication of the Council Regulation 1954/2003 of 4 November which only came into force on August 1, 2004.

In fact, evidence that resulted in the Azores such supervision has always been done through the branches of the Navy and Air Force for many years and that the fisheries sector is responsible for employing four thousand people.

The existence of supervision has always functioned as a deterrent to the entry of vessels in that region and offenders between 2002 and 2004 were not made tours of inspection by the Navy and Air Force and moreover since the subarea of the Exclusive Economic Zone of the Azores has about one million square kilometres, never one of the branches of the armed forces without the other, together, can carry out effective supervision.

It was also established as a fact in the process that affects the means that the Portuguese navy also decreased the hours of supervision halved.

During the period more than 60 Spanish vessels fished in the area between 100 and 200 miles, which before the publication of the regulation only stood at twenty vessels. Besides that Spanish vessels have a capacity much higher than the fishing boats Azorean and endanger the maintenance of the normal amount of fish in the take up because all the
fishing bank in question and prevent the Azorean fishing. Notwithstanding the statute in question does not apply, what is curious is that the judges we list it, particularly with regard to the concept of ecological damage, such as understanding the "injuries to natural ecological system and have not been tampered individual rights. It is a disorder in a natural element, i.e., an injury is caused to a natural resource, which could cause a significant allocation of the balance of the legal environment and natural heritage and their interaction. Only highlights the damage in natural element. The ecological damage has a certain degree of uncertainty as to their scope, of lack of scientific knowledge, but, according to the principle of prevention (art. 66, 2, CRP), the indeterminacy does not preclude there obligation repair, even if the damage be demonstrating. The repair may take two forms: fresh repair, which is subdivided into ecological restoration and ecological compensation and cash compensation (cash compensation). "Same option was followed with regard to the definition of environmental damage, since Judges understand that this is "that damage the environment that has repercussions in the sphere of a particular asset. Comprising the damage to property specific legal issues through private or through a set of emissions emanating from a set of emitters. " Conclude judges in decision under review "reflects an injury to legally protected rights and interests in the wake of the allocation of a particular environmental component." The court concludes by condemning the Portuguese state, once checked the requirements of responsibility: i) the existence of ecological damage, ii) conduct unlawful omission by the Portuguese state, and iii) a causal link and appropriate. In this regard and in relation to an application of Decree-Law 147/2008 in this case, Carla Amado Gomes, warning in Portuguese doctrine, that even if such a law were in force at the material time, the same would not apply, contrary to which suggests that the position would be followed by the court and that, because according to the author, the scope of diploma in crisis goes to the administration and not the courts.


The Portuguese Constitution, in article 22, instituted the general principle of tort liability of the State and other public law entities.

Consequently, ordinary legislation established the tort liability of the State into the Portuguese Legal Order, by means of Decree-Law 48051, of 1967.

This decree, which was criticised extensively, was amended by virtue of Law 67/2007, of 31st December, establishing the regime for tort liability arising from losses caused by third parties, due to the acts of public management in relation to all the functions of the State, i.e. i) administrative, ii) legislative, and iii) jurisdictional.

That decree was influenced by EU Law in the context of the framework applicable to tort liability arising from losses caused by administrative functions, as can be seen from its article 7, no. 2, which determines that in addition to the conditions established by domestic law, the "conditions for tort liability defined by EU law". This influence resulted in particular by Directive 89/665/EEC.

The administration’s liability arises from action or the inaction of its bodies and agents and not from the fact that the Administration, in itself, causes losses.

The rule is that the administration is liable for the losses caused by its agents, if these occur in the performance of and as a result of their duties – functional actions – even in such situations when the action of those agents is culpable, or even wilful.

The strict liability of the administration raises two main questions: i) if the administration is solely liable or if jointly liable with the agents who caused the loss; ii) if the administration, after it has indemnified a loss, can then recover that amount from the agents by virtue of a right of recourse regarding all amounts paid.

In other words, it is necessary to ascertain whether the situation is a question of service fault or personal fault, seeing that with regard to the latter, if the action was performed while not performing duties, or during the performance of duties but not because of them, any liability would be borne by the employee or agent and not by the administration, according to that established in article 3, no. 1, of the abovementioned decree (Mendes, 2013), pp. 2260 e ss..

The regulations are of complementary application, as the Law 67/2007 applies at the level of judicial redress for damage, the DL 147/2008 applies preventively (Gomes, 2012), p. 333.

References

The Arising Uncertainties from Democratization Process in Arab Spring Countries

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Abstract

After one or two years of the remarkable transformations in the Arab world which toppled some of the most resilient authoritarian regimes in the world however, the democratic transition process seems gloomy, uncertain, unstable, and chaotic in some cases (Yemen, Egypt, Libya). This study aims to explore the supposed multiple futures of the Arab Spring without the exclusion of failure scenario, in lights of the following assumptions: First: is that the existence of uncertainties are the key elements to the possibility of successful democratic transition; Second: the transition process assumed to be elite led, or even under the presence of repressive elite that has interests to liberalize and democratize during transition period.

Keywords: Arab Spring countries, Democratization processes, Democracy consolidation, Uncertainties.

1. Introduction

Two years after the political upheavals that swept through the Arab world and the answers to fundamental questions remain unsatisfactory, over two years of democratization processes in Arab Spring countries, wide range of political and socio-economic uncertainties have been escalated dramatically. The ultimate aim of the Arab spring countries was to attain a successful transition to democracy but the disruption which associated with high degrees of uncertainties in political and social arena poses serious challenges and threatened the fragile advancement in transition processes.

Regardless, of the complex puzzle of multiple uncertainties emerging in Arab spring countries, we argue that, there is a huge opportunity to build a consolidated democracy in this region. This paper tries to explore the key uncertainties and “wild cards” within democratization process in Arab Spring countries through different approaches of comparative politics.

The central thesis in this paper is test the validity of one-scenario driven studies of democratization literature, these type of literature assume that, there is one way process of regime change, from authoritarian to democracy. Since the paradigm shift in studies of democratization in late 1950s, when Symour Martin Lipset set out the economic and political perquisites of democracy. But, the failure in democratization and chaotic outcomes in some cases reminds us that democratization is very complex and non-linear process.

It could be argued that the Arab Spring was seen as unified phenomenon swept the Arab world. However, past experiences show that even in throughout inspired or triggered by external events unfold in accordance with their own particular dynamics. Thus, this study aims to illustrate the exceptionality of each individual case of the Arab Spring countries.

2. Democratization uncertainties in comparative politics literature:

Democracy, among some other phenomena seems as mega trends that will shape the future of humanity for a long time such, globalization, technology, and urbanization. Actually the democratization has been flourished as set of processes to rationalize the political mainstream, or, it means the whole process to political system change over the last four decades. In 1973 according to Freedom House report, rated just 29 of 151 countries as “free,” 28 percent as “partly free,” and 43 percent as “not free.” By the end of 2011 the percentage, the percentage of free and not free countries has roughly reversed, 45 of 195 countries were free, 31 percent were partly free, and 24 percent were not free.

There is a consensus among scholars about the linear development toward setting democratic values but, the key uncertainty about democratization rely on the notion of “transition paradigm”, and the lack of certainty whether, the move from authoritarian rule to a democratic regime is secured process to build a stable democracy. The phases of change which represents neither authoritarian rule nor democracy, and refers to a “gray zone”, “puzzle” or rather “uncertainty”.
Adam Przeworski (1991) in his book “Democracy and Market” tried to analyze the key question of uncertainty and democracy, he asked about the contending agendas of post-authoritarian regime stakeholders especially, the winners and losers of democracy's new era: Why would the losers choose to comply with the results?

He argued to include the possibility of two types of uncertainty that are particularly relevant in Middle East countries:

The first is uncertainty in the part of civil society regarding the willingness the regime liberalizers to repress; the second involves the uncertainty of regime liberalizers regarding civil society commitment to democracy.

In this context, przeworski (1991) emphasizes the fact that, the uncertainty on the part of liberalizers regarding to type civil society that it faces is an important part of the political landscape in the contemporary Islamic associations in the Arab world which are best organized and the most important civil society groups (e.g., Muslim Brotherhood in Egypt). Thus, he suggests a number of key finding: The first is that the existence of uncertainty is key to the possibility of for democratic transition, and he argued that to democracy occur under a wide range of different variables.

Second, transition to democracy is only possible when the repressive capacity exceeds certain threshold. Hence, in this given conditions, democracy cannot occur only when regime liberalizers who prefer democracy narrowed dictatorship, and interact with civil society that will honor democratic values and principles (Przeworski, 1991).

However, (Miller, Martini, Larrabee, Rabassa, Pezard, Taylor, Mengistu, 2012), described the transition uncertainties by using the notion “gray zone” that have been settled into many countries of divers form of government where autocratic and democratic measures are combined. Such countries in “transition” are no longer seen as simply stalled on the of democracy, thus, the notion of “grey zone” or “transition” refers to non-linear criteria of democratization process, which it can be influenced the outcomes for how it can unfold. Furthermore, Miller et al (2012) supposed that the underway dramatic changes in the Arab world may lead to various possible futures and destinations, that may be differ extremely from their points of departure.

Moreover, such wide range of uncertain futures about democracy appearance would raise new questions concerning structural conditions of democratization process in Arab spring countries. Such as: the mode of regime change; the country’s past experience with political pluralism; critical policy choices; state and social cohesion; economic characteristics; the external environment; external policy choices and assistance, Including efforts by foreign actors to foster democratization.

Otherwise, among other scholars and researchers in democratization literature who thought that, democratization is the only outcome of wild cards of civil wars, and they argued that, democracy quite often arises from civil wars. Using measures of democracy provided by Jaggers and Gurr (1999), and civil war data provide by Licklider (1998), Nickerson (2001) find that nearly forty percent of all civil wars that took place from 1945 to 1933 resulted in an improvement in democracy, including some Arab countries such Algeria, with countries like Mozambique, El- Salvador, Liberia, Guatemala and Nicaragua whom experienced civil wars.

But, there are a series of influential studies that explain deeply the sources of uncertainty within democratization process, and they argued that the suppression of democracy in some cases comes about due to recourses holder’s fear of what those who win democratic elections will do, this fear is what Egyptian liberals and Copts, felt after Freedom and Justice “the Islamic” party came to power, together with radical Salafist Nour Party they dominated parliament with over 70% of all seats in democratic legislation elections. (Meltzer and Richards, 1981) This assumption is related with studies which focused on the impact of democracy on the forms of economic distribution (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2006; Boix, 2003; Ziblatt, 2008), and shared the same theoretical departures with whom they argued that democracy would yield the ideal point of the median voter, which would be involved in economic redistribution, or the “progressive” approach that consider economic development as development that is designed to result in wide distribution of the benefits of growth, significant and sustained improvement in the quality of life of the population, and admitted a simple idea “The poor are numerous”.

As parties compete for electoral support they have an interest in adopting policies that favor the interests of the poor.” In other words, democratization process boils down to a battle over economic interests between political actors (Przeworski, Alvarex, Chebib, Limongi, 2000).

There have a number of attempts to explain the spectrum of uncertainties in the face Middle East and Arab countries under democratization, or countries that are still resisting to any kind of democratization (before the uprising of Arab spring) (Salame, 1994), Lisa Blaydes and James Lo (2011) summarize the themes of the Middle Eastern exceptionality into three groups of theories:

- Structural economic explanations
- External factors
Political culture and civil society

Samuel Huntington made further points in his remarkable book “Political Order in Changing Societies”, to analyze higher degrees of uncertainty, by using the notions of “political decay, or a decline in political order” that threatened the transition process from authoritarian rule to democracy, he suggested that these type of uncertainties and wild cards refers to “an undermining of the authority, effectiveness, and legitimacy of government”. Thus, the central thesis in Huntington’s work is to understand the sources of instability and uncertainty that was in large part the product of rapid social change, and the rapid mobilization of new groups into politics coupled with slow development of political institutions (Huntington, 1968).

To avoid democratization failure and the risk of uncertain long-term processes, Valenzuela noted that there are two phases in democratic transitions must be involved. First begins with severe crisis of the authoritarian regime raises the possibility of substituting it with democratic regime chosen by democratic measures. Second begins and ends at the point when the fledging democratic regime is consolidated. In Valenzuela (1990) view, democratization process will be easier to consolidate just in following conditions:

1. When the authoritarian rule is removed quickly.
2. When he is reputiated not only by his opponents but also by his supporters.
3. When most old supporters of the authoritarian regime become willing participants in the democratic transition process and are fully accepted as players in it by their opponents.
4. When the transition to elections is handled by a provisional government led by civilian elites rather than the military.
5. When the state—including the military—does not disintegrate but continues to function and the military focuses narrowly on its national security concerns.
6. When organized segments of civil society—including religious leaders in countries in which social cleavages linked to religion are important—have fluid forms of dialogue and forge agreements to find common ground on critical issues that concern them.
7. When the period of the first transition is relatively short. It should be long enough to make sure that the coming electoral process will indeed be free and fair, and that all players will trust that the votes will be properly counted.
8. When the drafting of the new democratic constitution occurs after the inauguration of the newly elected government and legislature and is approved in a specially convened plebiscite devoted exclusively to this matter.
9. When the national judicial system takes charge of prosecuting human rights violators without direct political initiative or interference.
10. When politically pluralistic fact-finding commissions of experts are officially appointed to investigate past crimes and conflicts associated with and leading up to the authoritarian regime. The result should be to forge a single widely accepted narrative of the past.
11. When pragmatic or moderate political leaders can create or recreate parties that will capture a large majority of votes while expressing the views and policy preferences of all major components of the national society (Kellogg Institute for International Studies, 2012).

Yet, overall discussions above, it seems that democratization literature were one-scenario driven studies, of one way process regime of change, from authoritarian to democracy. Since the paradigm shift in studies of democratization in late 1950s, when Symour Martin Lipset set out the economic and political perquisites of democracy. But, the failure in democratization and chaotic outcomes in some cases reminds us that democratization is very complex, non-linear process, which Guilermo O’Donnell and Thomas Carothers have pointed out that: “It does not have an end” (Galbreath, 2012).

David J. Galbreath among other scholars confirmed the fact that comparative politics approach to democratization is problematic in both its concentration on agency and domestic political actors. Rather, he suggested the importance of structure as driver in democracy building. (e. g.,) Juan L. Linz and Alfred Stepan find that “structural elements of the prior regime have an important impact on regime paths and consolidation tasks.” (Galbreath, 2012) Alfred Stepan and Juan Linz (2013) have illustrated also the fuzzy democratization process in Arab world as a new type of political regimes. They propose “the authoritarian-democratic hybrid” which represents a newly emergent phenomenon seen today in Arab world.
According to Alfred Stepan and Juan Linz (Alfred Stepan and Juan Linz, 2013) “The authoritarian-democratic hybrid” refers to the unusual conditions so labeled: “They are places where most major actors believe that they will lose their legitimacy and their followers' support they fail to embrace certain features of democracy.”

Furthermore, the debate of uncertainty of democratization processes in Western Countries, and the spreading of democracy toward Latin America and post-communist countries renew the same questions to geographical location that seems incompatible with democracy and liberal values. Before Arab spring uprising (that means the second wave of democratization in Arab world), after the first which known in the democratization literature as “third wave” that had began in 1970s in Eastern Europe and Latin America and moved toward Southeast Asia, Sub-Saharan, Maghreb and the Middle-East in the early 1990s, has proved a set of difficulties and uncertainties appeared during the process. David J. Galbreath (2012) summarized those explanations as follows:

- Firstly, the rarity of successful democracies in the Middle-East and Arab region made the application of the notions “transition” then “consolidation” quite difficult;
- Secondly, the statehood weaknesses in Middle-eastern countries that are still challenged by other forms of state-like entities (tribes, monarchies);
- Thirdly, the heterogeneous correlation between international politics and democratization processes.

On the other hand, there are a category of theories holds that the Arab world lacks cultural perquisite. Another group of theories look on what is exceptional in the Arab region, while others focused on the oil presence factors in the Arab region, and the oil revenues that enable authoritarian regimes to reinforce their power by distributing patronage. However, many of these conflicting diagnoses of democratization deficits in Middle-east and Arab region fail neither to explain, nor to predict the dramatic changes that prevail in the early of 2011 in Tunisia, and moved rapidly with snowball effect to many other countries in Arab region.

Finally, democratization literature has drawn three important findings:

- First, democratization is very complex, non-linear process;
- Secondly, democratization in the Middle-East and Arab region made the application of the notions “transition” then “consolidation” quite difficult;
- Thirdly, there are conflicting explanations of democratization’s difficulties in Arab world, and the most of these explanations failed to explain or predict the Arab spring.

3. Arab spring: democratization new contexts versus new uncertainties

In applying democratization literature to Arab spring transition we find two relevant approaches. First of those scholars who argued that democratization has clustered geographically and that countries are far more likely to undergo transition following transitions in neighboring states. Those scholars pointed out that domestic political dynamics are deeply affected by changes in neighboring states. Secondly, others such Przeworski model has found that, democratization cannot find its way to diffuse without the whole commitment of domestic players.

The Arab spring has proved also that, current experiences exhibit significant variations from the “third wave” experiences to democratization, thus it has establishes a new paradigm that blown away a set of common assumptions about democracy in Arab world. Firstly, that authoritarian regime in Arab world were inherently stable; secondly, that democracy aspirations were unsustainable because the large Arab populations were culturally inclined to authoritarian rule; thirdly, that any of organized opposition to ruling regimes should be Islamist and undemocratic in nature; fourthly, that political demands of people of the Arab world were fundamentally different from people elsewhere; that any meaningful political change would have to become from the external actors (Willis, 2010).

The series of dramatic changes that launched in the early months of 2011 in Tunisia and Egypt had toppled some of the most resilient regimes in the Arab region, these changes have prevailed the uncertainty and the fragility of political legitimacy of Arab regimes, raises the question whether lessons drawn from previous democratization wave (Third wave). Hence, The Bertelsmann Stiftung’s Transformation Index shed light on emerging political and economic deficits and uncertainties in countries of Middle East and North Africa in recent years. The BIT pointed out further explanations to the limits of economic improvement, which effectively confined to Arab countries under democratization process.

The BIT data contain considerable evidence of wide range difficulties released just after the moves toward democratizations and economic liberalization in the early of 2000s (Völker, 2012). Moreover, the BIT has found out a set of similar uncertainties, despite of the existence of considerable differences in terms of sociopolitical contexts. In particular, six countries most affected by Arab spring transformations, that is, Tunisia, Egypt, Libya, Yemen, Syria and Bahrain (Völker, 2012).
Libya and Bahrain, for example are classic rentier states that derive majority their government fund from non-tax sources of revenue such as oil and gas exports, whereas countries like Egypt and Tunisia they have not such a resource base. Despite of, some other studies that found that there is no threshold of economic development is required for democratization, even in poorer countries on the whole tend to have weaker institutions, it is apparent that democratization can occur even with low level of economic and institutional development (Miller, et al, 2012).

Economic and social uncertainties have been escalated in Arab spring, and Arab countries in transition including Jordan, Morocco, and Bahrain.

Egypt for example, was facing serious economic challenges because the erosion in investor confidence and the tension in political and social arena remain high despite of democratic presidential elections. Tunisia also, was experiencing social and economic disruptions associated with fundamental political transition toward democracy. Thus, Jordan, Morocco, and Yemen have seen varying degrees of economic and social dilemmas during advancing political transition process.

Khandelwal and Roitman (2012) in their study “The economics of political transitions: implantations for the Arab spring” suggested that political transitions in Arab countries are characterized by intense political instability which is manifesting through changes in government, and large scale of socio-economic unrest. However, Khandelwal and Roitman (2013) made more contrast over similarities of Arab spring countries and European countries that have experienced two types of simultaneous transitions. First was political transition from authoritarian rule to democracy. Second was escalation in socio-economic unrest. Though, they find out that existing literature offered limited information about near-term, whereas they were to tend to offer more information about democratization success. Particularly, most of Arab spring countries are facing different degrees of near term social, economic and political instability.

In effect, the political instability associated with economic impact have been limited in countries such Jordan and Morocco, but countries such Egypt, Tunisia and Yemen have seen a high intense of political and economic instability.

Khandelwal and Roitman (2013) have used Cross-National Time Series (CNTS) data archive that has been identified political crisis in low-middle income countries, whether the political crisis led to democratization or to political decay since 1980 (see table1). The comparison between Arab countries and sample of 11 countries in CNTS, which exclude European transition economies and oil exporting countries, asserted that social unrest occurred on large scale with sever political instability.

Table 1: Political Instability Events Since 1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Political crisis</th>
<th>Government change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>1997-98</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>2001-03</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cote-D’Ivoire</td>
<td>2000-01</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>1988-90</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraguay</td>
<td>1999-03</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippine</td>
<td>1983-87</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>1990-94</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>1991-93</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note that, it is very important to make clear distinction between Arab spring countries because there are significant differences in conditions, challenges and even the motives behind each country’s uprisings. For example, unlike Egypt and Tunisia which have a very robust civil society that was prior to democratic transition, civil society in Libya is nonexistent, and the revolution in Libya was more of domino effect, and the Libyan people were not able to overthrow the authoritarian rule without the external intervention from NATO (Boose, 2012).

If we compare the situation in Libya and Tunisia or Egypt based on three critical criteria; regime, state and civil society, and the strength and weakness of each of these three criteria, we can conclude that Libya is likely to fail in
democratization process because of its weakness in these three criteria, whereas Egypt and Tunisia are more likely to have a successful transition to democracy, were there is a strong bases for state, regime and civil society (Boose, 2012).

Libya will need to build a solid framework for governance and institutions of civil society, contrary to Egypt and Tunisia. Libya will face a much complicated problems of weak internal cohesion, given tribal and regional splits within the country (see table 2). Yemen also has a tribal society and riven by internal divides, with pockets were the central government has essentially ceded the control. However, unlike Libya, the emerging political transition in Yemen appears to share important characteristics with some successful democratization experiences because, in the early of 2012, Yemen had initiated the type negotiated or pacted, transition seen in Latin America cases, as well as in Spain. (Miller, et al, 2012).

### Table 2: Civil society organizations in Libya and Tunisia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Civil Society Organizations</th>
<th>Libya</th>
<th>Tunisia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of UN recognized civil society organizations in each respective country</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In fact, the major challenge in Yemeni political transition is democracy consolidation within center-periphery dynamics, unlike Tunisia and Egypt, Libya and Yemen will need to overhaul the structure of government and adopt a federal model that offers autonomy to its periphery in return for support for state institutions.

In case of Syria, Miler et al (2012) argued the possibility of applying the same lessons of Tunisia’s case, especially if authoritarian Syrian regime falls, the likelihood of precipitant factors will be largely evident by the Syrian army and the regime’s elite internal security forces. Those factors along with the fact that power vacuum could transform Syria into arena of civil war and regional proxy conflict.

4. Conclusions

Finally, it could be argued that transition to democracy in Arab Spring countries still seems fragile and uncertain, the Arab young protestors in Tunisia, Egypt, Libya and Yemen were unified about the desire to overthrow the authoritarian rule, but they are uncertain about what should come next. Most of Arab Spring analysts have been noticed that Egypt and Tunisia shown strong ability to build successful democracy in Arab world, but over the past two years, both of Egypt and Tunisia consistently appeared in state of disorder and chaos, with high levels of political uncertainty. However, the current comparative politics literature argued that we should recognize the long-term nature of democratization, and the consolidation of democracy if it occurs in Arab spring countries is likely to take many years.

Yet, the democratization literature typically describes the transition to democracy in Arab gone through two different phases. Both of these two phases are characterized by high degrees of uncertainties:

The “Third wave” phase that had begun in Arab world in the early years 1990s, proved a set of difficulties and uncertainties appeared during the process, three types of theories have been discussed this first phase, and argued that: there are a category of theories holds that the Arab world lacks cultural perquisite. Another group of theories look on what is exceptional in the Arab region, while others focused on the oil presence factors in the Arab region, and the oil revenues that enable authoritarian regimes to reinforce their power by distributing patronage. The first phase of democratization in Arab world was also characterized by the following aspects:

- Firstly, the rarity of successful democracies in the Middle-East and Arab region made the application of the notions “transition” then “consolidation” quite difficult;
- Secondly, the statehood weaknesses in Middle-eastern countries that are still challenged by other forms of state-like entities (tribes, monarchies);
- Thirdly, the heterogeneous correlation between international politics and democratization processes.

The “Arab spring” phase of democratization in Arab world has been launched as wild card event in early months of 2011. Democratization literature during this phase has shown two relevant approaches. First of those scholars who argued that democratization has clustered geographically and that countries are far more likely to undergo transition...
following transitions in neighboring states (contrary to third wave view). These scholars pointed out that domestic political
dynamics are deeply affected by changes in neighboring states. Secondly, others such Przeworski model has found that,
democratization cannot find its way to diffuse without the whole commitment of domestic players. Despite of the absence
of consensus about democratization processes in Arab region, the Arab Spring phase has drawn some of the same of
the first phase’s set of difficulties and uncertainties:

- First, democratization is very complex, non-linear process;
- Secondly, democratization in the Middle-East and Arab region made the application of the notions “transition”
then “consolidation” quite difficult;
- Thirdly, there are conflicting explanations of democratization’s difficulties in Arab world, and the most of those
old explanations failed to explain or predict the Arab spring.

In sum, democracy consolidation seems the most desirable outcome in Arab Spring countries but, scholars such
Valenzuela has mentioned eleven conditions to consolidate democracy in Arab world thus, there is no simple way to
gather all those conditions in one case.

Regardless, of the wide range of uncertainties and hurdles those are facing the Arab Spring countries, mega
trends worldwide and within the region have been toward greater democracy, even in places that were once regarded as
infertile ground.

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The Curative Tourism in Elbasan (Albania), Challenges for the Future

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Abstract

Elbasan is one of the most important cities of Albania. With a favorable geographical position and significant tourism potentials it is distinguished for the development of different types of tourism. Of these types we mention: cultural tourism, mountain tourism, ecotourism, transit tourism, etc. Of interest is the development of curative tourism in the Llixha (spa) of Elbasan. Curative tourism potentials have favored its development. The spas of Elbasan are recognized for curative values, attracting not only local population but also foreign visitors. The story of their exploitation starts from ancient Rome and continues until today. During periods of history, political, social and economic changes are also reflected in the development of curative tourism. Field observations, national literature research, interviews and surveys have highlighted current developments of curative tourism in Elbasan. Thank to this are pointed out the advantages and disadvantages of curative tourism developments. It is developed mainly the traditional curative tourism. Despite strategic interventions, appears significantly the uncontrolled development of curative tourism. In front of these developments, there is a need of further interventions not only locally but also at the central level to pull out from the chaotic situation the traditional curative tourism and to enable qualitative development in the future.

Keywords: traditional curative tourism, spa (Llixha of Elbasan), tourism potentials, touristic area, development plans etc

1. Introduzione

Elbasan è una tra le più importanti città dell'Albania (Bevapi, K., et al, 2003). Si tratta di un antico insediamento con una favorevole posizione geografica al crocevia del nord, sud ed est. Un tempo è stata un'importante stazione della Via Egnatia. Elbasan e i suoi dintorni hanno una favorevole posizione geografica e numerose potenzialità naturali e culturali che consentono lo sviluppo del turismo. Sulla base di queste potenzialità si sviluppano diversi tipi di turismo come quello culturale, storico, montano, l' ecolturismo ecc.

Elbasan possiede una sua tradizione anche nello sviluppo del turismo curativo. Quest'ultimo è strettamente legato al movimento della popolazione verso gli spazi curativi al fine di migliorare la salute (Doka, Dh., Draçi,B., 2009). Lo spazio curativo di Elbasan è rappresentato dalle sorgenti minerali termali. Lo sfruttamento di queste sorgenti è stato parte del movimento turistico sin dai tempi antichi.

Basandosi sulla letteratura nazionale e i monitoraggi sul campo questo lavoro ha lo scopo di evidenziare lo sviluppo del turismo curativo a Elbasan. L'analisi rivela le direzioni, l'entità, i vantaggi e gli svantaggi degli sviluppi turistici in questo spazio. Tali sviluppi richiedono ulteriori interventi strategici a livello locale e centrale per consentire lo sviluppo sostenibile del turismo curativo.

2. La posizione geografica delle terme (Llixha) di Elbasan e la sua importanza nello sviluppo del turismo

Lo sviluppo del turismo curativo è strettamente legato alla presenza delle sorgenti minerali termali. Queste sorgenti si trovano nel Comune Tregan di Elbasan. Il Comune di Tregan si colloca in un territorio per lo più collinare-montuoso (Paheshti,B., 2008). Dista a 12 km dalla città di Elbasan, lungo la strada nazionale Elbasan-Gramsh e fa parte del distretto di Elbasan. Questo comune è stato dichiarato comune turistico con ordine del Consiglio dei Ministri, il quale determina due aree turistiche:

1. Llixha (terme) del centro con una superficie di 50 ettari;
2. Llixha (terme) di Hidrai con una superficie di 9,5 ettari (FSHZH, 2009).
La distanza delle Llixha (terme) dalle città più importanti dell’Albania è: 155 km da Shkodra, 128 km da Lezha, 292 km da Kukes, 165 km da Dibra, 68 km da Tirana, da Durazzo 93 km, da Korca 137 km, 143 km da Berat, da Gjirokastër 218 km, 102 km da Fier e 134 chilometri da Valona (Distretto Elbasan, 2007). Con alcune delle città più importanti dei Balcani queste distanze sono: 190 km da Ulcinj, 225 km da Tetovo, 320 km da Prizren, 451 km da Pec, 254 km da Skopje, da Ohrid 139 km, 100 km da Struga, da Atene 630 km ecc.

Queste distanze dello spazio curativo dalle altre città dell’Albania e dei Balcani offrono la possibilità della frequenza da parte dei visitatori locali e stranieri. L’accesso a questa area curativa e l’incremento del numero dei visitatori è strettamente correlato al completamento1 della strada nazionale Elbasan-Tirana.

3. Le sorgenti minerali termaî e il loro ruolo nello sviluppo del turismo curativo

Le sorgenti minerali termaî delle llixha (terme) di Elbasan sono sorgenti di valore curativo, conosciuti sin dall’antichità. Le caratteristiche di queste sorgenti sono associate alle caratteristiche delle sorgenti geotermali del nostro paese. Esse fanno parte delle sorgenti termali di acqua sulfuree e di sulfide, hanno bassa entalpia e la temperatura raggiunge 58°-60°C.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Nome della sorgente e regione</th>
<th>Temperatura</th>
<th>Coordinate geografiche</th>
<th>Afflusso l/s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Llixha, Elbasan</td>
<td>60°C</td>
<td>41°02’</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Hidrait, Elbasan</td>
<td>55°C</td>
<td>41°1’20’</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In questo spazio si trovano 15-20 sorgenti termaî alle Terme (llixha) Centrali e altre tre in quelle di Hidrai con diverso afflusso. Classificate nel gruppo delle sorgenti geotermali dell’Albania, queste acque sono parte della zona geotermale di Kruja, che è la zona con le più grandi sorgenti geotermali del paese. Secondo il contenuto di H2S, le acque termali di Elbasan fanno parte delle acque con elevate (200 mg/litro) e molto elevate (400 mg/litro) concentrazioni di H2S (Kabo, M., et al, 1990). Queste sorgenti contengono: Ca, Na, K, Fe, Mg e gas come H2S, CO2 ecc (Didi, Xh., 1986) e 600-700 mg/l sostanze minerali.

L’elevato afflusso di tutte le sorgenti termaî e gli studi effettuati evidenziano la capacità di assicurare tutti i servizi in materia di uso dell’acqua termale. La composizione delle acque è migliore di quelle di Peshkopi, Fushë-Krujë, Përmet e Leskovik, anche di quelle dei Balcani. Queste caratteristiche sono importantissime nel trattamento di molte malattie

1Completamento della strada nazionale Elbasan-Tirana, giugno 2013
come quelle reumatiche, neurologiche, post-traumatiche ecc. Ad esse sono strettamente legate il flusso turistico e l'età dei visitatori favorendo lo sviluppo del turismo curativo.

Di particolare importanza appaiono i fanghi delle acque minerali sulfidriche delle terme. Lo studio dei fanghi e il loro utilizzo incrementerà la possibilità non solo dello sfruttamento delle acque minerali ma anche lo sviluppo della fango-terapia. A questo proposito le terme saranno frequentate non solo dall'età avanzata ma anche dai giovani. Il turismo curativo tradizionale si combinerà con elementi del benessere termale.

4. Gli sviluppi passati del turismo curativo


Le terme di Elbasan furono sfruttate anche durante il periodo regnante di Re Ahmet Zog. Lui portò uno specialista dalla Cecoslovacchia, il paese noto per l'utilizzo delle acque termali. Il medico portato ad Elbasan fece una valutazione costruttiva di queste acque stabilite come "curative" di una serie di malattie. In un litro d'acqua, Dr. Beno definì la composizione in: sodio, potassio, calcio, magnesio, ferro, acido solforico, cloro e anidride solforica. Al termine dello studio furono elencate anche le malattie che potevano essere curate con l'acqua termale (Stazione termale Park Nosi, 2012). Oggi, in una parte delle strutture curative viene conservato il documento riportante i valori dell'acqua minerale termale.

Le terme richiamarono l'attenzione dei cittadini di Elbasan. Dopo il 1930 furono costruiti i primi alberghi. Due famiglie importanti, quella dei Nosi e gli Stringa realizzarono due complessi sanitari curativi con edifici che ora sono conosciuti come le terme di Nosi (Hotel Park costruito nel 1932 e Vila poi nel 1975). Secondo i dati del Ministero delle Finanze di quel periodo, l'investimento della famiglia Nosi per la costruzione della stazione idrotermale medica "Parco Nosi" fu stimato intorno ai 175.000 franchi d'oro. La stazione medica iniziò il suo funzionamento il 28 maggio 1932 solo dopo aver ottenuto l'autorizzazione per l'utilizzo dell'acqua termale. L'autorizzazione fu concessa durante l'assemblea generale dell'alto Consiglio di Stato con delibera n. 232 datata il 20/06/1932. La stazione idrotermale medica era immersa nel verde, munita di caffetteria e di altre strutture ricreative.

Fig.2. L'albergo "Park Nosi ", terme di Elbasan

La visita delle terme di Elbasan da parte degli stranieri esprime la loro importanza nei Balcani e oltre. Durante una sua visita, il rappresentante, della Turchia a Tirana Rushem Eshrem Bej (anni 1934), dopo essere stato accolto dal vice sindaco di allora di Elbasan, Vasiari Veli, fu scortato per un pranzo nella zona delle terme. La stessa Regina Madre rimase per diversi giorni a fare i bagni termali. Fu anch'essa accolta da Veli Vasiari (Giornale Besa, 1934). Il volantino che segue rispecchia l'uso remoto delle terme di Elbasan e l'importanza dei valori curativi di queste acque.

2 Ing. Dr. Beno Winter, direttore del Centro delle Acque Termali a Marienbad, Cecoslovacchia
Con l'istituzione del sistema comunista gli spazi curativi e le stazioni idrotermali passarono allo stato 3. Durante questo periodo gli spazi curativi e gli edifici prima costruiti avevano prevalentemente carattere ospedaliero. Furono utilizzati per scopi totalmente medici trasformandosi in importanti centri curativi. I visitatori da accogliere venivano sottoposti all'attenzione di una commissione medica facendo così assomigliare le terme sempre più ad centri ospedalieri, quadro esistente tutt'ora. Il movimento della popolazione era controllato e la capacità delle strutture curative di Elbasan era circa 380 posti letto (Bozgo, A., 1984). C'erano 3 edifici statali (Ylli 1 e 2) e gli edifici ereditati dalla famiglia Nosi. Vicino all'edificio ereditato da questa famiglia fu costruito un nuovo edificio a un piano, denominato "Vila", che servì solo a membri del partito di quell'epoca. In questo periodo, sulla base di studi più adeguati, furono rivalutati i valori curativi delle sorgenti minerali termali. A seconda della composizione furono specificate le malattie curate da ogni sorgente.

5. Gli sviluppi di oggi del turismo curativo, le sfide per il futuro

Oggi il turismo curativo si basa sull'attività delle entità private. Alle terme Centrali e quelle di Hidraj (Tregan e Çikallesh) si contano più di 50 enti che forniscono assistenza medica e alloggio per i visitatori. Tra loro troviamo gli alberghi: Puka, Ylli, Parku, Myzeqeja, Boci, Çekrezi 1 e 2, Drini, Debrova, Lici, Miza 1 e 2, Sulmino, Mema Muça (da 1 a 10 piccole strutture ospitanti), Kuqja, Panorama, Tashi (1, 2, 3, 4), Stringa ecc. (Komune Tregan, 2013). Il gran numero di famiglie che offrono servizi privati è cresciuto in modo caotico dopo gli anni 90, mentre prima nella zona delle terme di Elbasan operavano solo tre alberghi.

Tabella 2. Le strutture ospitanti delle terme di Elbasan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Alberghi</th>
<th>Anno di costruzione</th>
<th>Posti letto</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Puka</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mema</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Panorama</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Debrova</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Boçi</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Parku</td>
<td>1929</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ylli</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Myzeqeja</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Park Nosi</td>
<td>1932</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fonte: Indagini e monitoraggio nella zona curativa delle terme di Elbasan.
Le strutture di cui sopra elencate presentano piena capacità ospitante nei mesi di settembre, ottobre e inizio novembre di ogni anno. Nel mese di maggio si ha solo metà della capacità di ricezione.

**Grafico 1.** Rendimento annuale dei visitatori che frequentano le acque termali della stazione termale "Parco Nosi"

Il monitoraggio sul campo dimostra che il numero dei visitatori durante l'anno varia a seconda dei diversi fattori. Per la stazione termale medica "Parco Nosi" il numero dei visitatori è in calo rispetto agli anni precedenti. Questo è condizionato: dalla mancanza di investimenti in questa struttura, l’incremento delle altre strutture private che offrono servizi migliori, la crisi che ha afflitto il paese, ecc. Per i mesi di gennaio, febbraio e dicembre, i gestori della struttura dimostrano che la mancanza di visitatori si riferisce direttamente alla mancanza del sistema di riscaldamento e delle caldaie nella loro struttura.

Per l'intero spazio curativo di Elbasan l'andamento del flusso annuale dei visitatori è il seguente:

**Grafico 2:** Andamento annuale dei visitatori che frequentano le terme di Elbasan. (FSHZH, 2009)

Il grafico rappresenta l'andamento annuale del numero dei visitatori che frequentano le terme. Nel mese di gennaio il numero di visitatori è limitato se non completamente assente. Le terme ricominciano a frequentarsi nel mese di febbraio, raggiungendo il primo picco a maggio. Il flusso comincia a diminuire nel mese di giugno e luglio il valore risulta vicino a zero. Questo quadro si riferisce al fatto che non è consigliabile sfruttare i bagni termali durante le elevate temperature estive. Si ha un aumento delle visite alla fine di agosto e il secondo picco viene raggiunto a settembre-ottobre. In alcuni casi le terme si frequentano anche a novembre soprattutto le prime due settimane. Il numero dei visitatori diminuisce di nuovo ai valori minimi nel mese di dicembre. Questo andamento si ripete ogni anno.

Per quanto riguarda il numero dei visitatori, alle terme di Elbasan viene usato un'espressione "l'anno è stato producente o no". Questo dipende dalla percezione e le statistiche individuali che hanno le imprese private sul numero dei clienti.

Lo sviluppo del turismo è sostenuto da interventi strategici. Per lo sviluppo del turismo curativo gli interventi strategici a livello degli organi del Ministero del Turismo sono scarsi, mentre gli sforzi sono aumentati a livello locale.
Quindi nel 2009 con l’aiuto del FSHZH\(^4\) per lo sviluppo del turismo in questi spazi curativi è stato stipulato un piano di sviluppo. Questo piano prevede il rafforzamento del settore dei servizi curativi-turistic, l’aumento degli investimenti, il miglioramento delle infrastrutture, gli sforzi per garantire uno sviluppo sostenibile, ecc (FSHZH, 2009). Data l’analisi cui sopra e il monitoraggio sul campo, lo sviluppo del turismo curativo alle terme di Elbasan presenta queste caratteristiche:

1. Le strutture statali che prima offrivano il servizio curativo sono stati privatizzati. Sono oggi riconosciute con i nomi tradizionali: albergo “Ylli” con 160 posti letto, “Stringa Hotel” con una capacità di 90 posti letto, Parco Nosi con 95 posti letto e altri enti conosciuti con i nomi dei proprietari (Tabella. 2).

2. Le strutture che offrono il servizio curativo implicano l’assunzione di medici. Nei centri soprattutto quelli privati, questo lavoro è stagionale. Ogni soggetto contatta con il proprio medico.


4. I prodotti tradizionali offerti ai turisti per il consumo sono: verdure, frutta, prodotti di origine animale, soprattutto la carne di agnello e capretto.

5. Lo sviluppo turistico è facilitato anche dal ricco patrimonio materiale e spirituale come il castello e la “Pietra della fortuna”.

6. I prezzi per notte variano da 900-1200 leke\(^6\) e per 2 settimane variano da 16.000 a 20.000 lek a persona incluse le visite mediche, i bagni termali, l’alloggio e la ristorazione. La fangoterapia non è inclusa nel prezzo.

7. Alle terme centrali e quelle di Hidraj, i residenti hanno trasformato le loro case in centri curativi. In autunno e in primavera in queste case e negli alberghi il numero dei visitatori raggiunge i 4.000 (Baxhaku, F., 2010). Oltre ai turisti che le visitano per lunghi periodi, non mancano i visitatori giornalieri che portano fino a 15.000 i turisti all’anno che frequentano questo spazio.

Il turismo curativo è sviluppato in conformità agli sviluppi politici, sociali ed economici che hanno coinvolto l’Albania dopo il 1990. Rispetto ai suoi sviluppi nei paesi vicini, il turismo curativo in Albania si presenta come segue:

Tabella 3. Gli sviluppi del turismo curativo in Europa e in Albania

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possibilità</th>
<th>Paesi vicini e paesi europei</th>
<th>Albania</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Offerta turistica</td>
<td>Sorgenti minerali e termali e non solo</td>
<td>Solo sorgenti minerali termali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tipi di movimento turistico curativo</td>
<td>Turismo curativo e del benessere</td>
<td>Predominante il tradizionale turismo curativo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Età dei visitatori</td>
<td>Nessun limite di età</td>
<td>Dominano gli anziani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durata del soggiorno</td>
<td>Variabile a seconda dell’età e degli interessi</td>
<td>Prevalgono i soggiorni tradizionali di 10-12 giorni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cure offerte</td>
<td>Oltre ai trattamenti tradizionali anche le cure di benessere corporeo</td>
<td>Prevalgono le cure tradizionali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L’integrazione con altre forme di turismo</td>
<td>Integrazione ben visibile con le forme del turismo ricreativo</td>
<td>Domina il turismo tradizionale lontano dalle altre forme di turismo ricreativo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategie e interventi strategici</td>
<td>Interventi, politiche di sviluppo con attenzione sullo sviluppo turistico</td>
<td>I primi passi di sostegno strategico per lo sviluppo del turismo curativo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promozione del turismo curativo</td>
<td>Ampia promozione, qualitativa e diversificata (web.site ecc)</td>
<td>Scarsa promozione del turismo curativo, spesso carente</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fonte: Elaborazione dati individuali

Sulla base degli elementi sopraelencati si evidenziano gli sviluppi positivi e negativi del turismo curativo alle terme di Elbasan:

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\(^4\) Fondo Albanese per lo Sviluppo (Albanian Development Fund)  
\(^5\) Alcune delle città vicine ad Elbasan, Albania centrale  
\(^6\) Moneta albanese
Tabella 4. Gli sviluppi positivi e negativi del turismo curativo

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Punti di forza</th>
<th>Punti deboli</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓ Sorgenti termali minerali di qualità minerale e valori curativi notevoli;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Altre risorse naturali come la flora e fauna;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ La vicina distanza della zona con la città e le principali strade nazionali;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Sviluppo sostenibile dell’agricoltura e della zootechnica;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Sviluppo di altre attività non agricole a favore dello sviluppo del turismo;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Spazio noto per bagni termali;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Aumento degli investimenti pubblici e privati in questo settore;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Maggiori sforzi istituzionali a livello locale per lo sviluppo sostenibile del turismo curativo;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Aumento del numero di visitatori nazionali e stranieri.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Problemi ambientali come l’uso indiscriminato delle sorgenti termali;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ L’incertezza sulle proprietà, l’acqua e le sorgenti termali stessi;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Mancanza del servizio medico adeguato e contemporaneo;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ I numerosi edifici costruiti senza permesso e senza infrastruttura;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Mancanza evidente della segnaletica turistica;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Strutture turistiche che necessitano la ristrutturazione.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rimane problematico anche:
 ✓ la cattiva immagine ambientale di Elbasan;
 ✓ mancanza di promozione;
 ✓ basso livello dei servizi;
 ✓ problematiche tra domanda e offerta;
 ✓ prezzi nei centri curativi;
 ✓ turismo non sanzionabile come prodotto pubblico.

6. Conclusioni e suggerimenti

L’analisi condotta porta alla conclusione che Elbasan ha potenzialità turistiche per lo sviluppo del turismo curativo, mentre i suoi attuali sviluppi sono associati a diversi problemi. Gli interventi da parte delle istituzioni competenti a livello centrale e locale, sono scarsi o assenti. Lo sviluppo del turismo curativo, oggi richiede un urgente intervento strategico per lo sviluppo sostenibile e contemporaneo. Ciò richiede:

1. L’inclusione di misure concrete per lo sviluppo sostenibile del turismo curativo nell’ambito dello sviluppo dello spazio curativo;  
2. La formulazione a livello centrale della strategia per lo sviluppo integrativo del turismo con lo scopo di riattivare il turismo curativo;  
3. Intensificare gli sforzi per promuovere i valori curativi delle terme (llixha) di Elbasan;  
4. Sviluppare guide di orientamento per far conoscere lo spazio curativo di Elbasan;  
5. Misure per regolare la durata del soggiorno dei turisti, che appare oggi più breve a causa della non gestione dei valori che vengono offerti;  
6. Gestione dello sfruttamento delle sorgenti minerali termali dalle imprese private;  
7. Ristrutturazione delle strutture curative esistenti e la costruzione di nuove strutture secondo gli standard contemporanei;  
8. Miglioramento del servizio sanitario coordinato con il miglioramento della cura del corpo e il benessere

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Kabo, M., et al. (1990), Akademia e Shkencave e Republikës së Shqipërisë, Qendra e studimeve gjeografike, Gjeografia fizike dhe Shqipërisë, vol 1, Tirane, 258-259.
Paradoxes of Contemporary Anthropology

Martin Soukup
Michaela Konopíková

Abstract

The main objective of the study is to analyze the state and position of contemporary anthropology. It is based on the examination of the selected anthropological textbooks, which are evaluated taking into consideration currently discussed anthropological issues. Our goal is to provide a contribution to the ongoing debate on the norms and forms of contemporary anthropology.

1. Introduction

The concept and tradition of social and cultural anthropology are closely linked with the manner anthropology is taught at an undergraduate level (Mills 2011). Taking into account the content of textbooks, we are posing a question on what the significant features of contemporary anthropology are. This study offers one of the many possible answers. At this point, we believe it is important to note that we have identified a certain version of a “culture gap” since the teaching materials lag behind the actual state of the discipline. The textbooks chosen for the analysis are Kottak (2011), Haviland et al (2011), Schultz and Lavenda (2005) and Heider (2004).

The same issue was questioned by Rabinow, Marcus and Rees. Together with Faubion, he dealt with the matter by striving to answer questions about the forms, norms, methods and mission of contemporary anthropology. They agreed that the publication Writing Culture was a milestone in this pursuit. Its contributors critically evaluated the classic conception and methodologies of socio-cultural anthropology (Clifford & Marcus, 2010). The participants concluded that the conventional concept of anthropology was successfully challenged. However, no one has yet offered an alternative to methodological and epistemological norms and forms, which would be applicable within the training of the new generation of anthropologists (Rabinow & Marcus & Faubion & Rees, 2008).

In the eighties, the traditional concept of anthropology as a discipline aimed at studying cultures in time and space was shattered. The spatial-temporal basis of the discipline was coined by its founders in the 19th century. The representatives of so-called “classic evolutionism” were facing the same challenge as Darwin, who could not directly observe the process of biological evolution. Darwin dealt with this problem by demonstrating the diversity of species in space. Such distribution indicated evolutionary relationships. Similarly, evolution of culture was shown by its diversity in space, which represented evolutionary relationships. Like natural scientists, socio-cultural anthropologists did not have an opportunity to directly observe the evolution of culture, but were left to demonstrate it via diversity in space: a particular culture represented a particular evolutionary stage. Thus, similar to evolutionary biology and paleontology, the temporal dimension of culture was expressed through space. In other words, the design of anthropology was to be determined by its temporal-spatial character; however, the temporal axis could have actually been absent. Nothing really changed in this respect within the subsequent decades of the development of the discipline. It may be observed as significant that the basis of the discipline as an empirical domain was in the first place postulated by natural scientists (especially by Haddon, Seligman, Rivers and Boas) based on the experience derived from expeditions they carried out. These expeditions extensively focused on spatial distribution and examination of the regional varieties of cultural elements. Haddon, for instance, unequivocally proposed the zoological method in anthropology (Haddon, 1895, cf. Roldán, 1992). The transition from an extensive method (expedition) to an intensive (long-term field research) rather highlighted the requirement to study the spatially localized culture in a concrete Ethnographic present recorded and interpreted by the researcher.

Some anthropologists in the eighties made the spatio-temporal model of anthropology subject to critique since it assumed the distribution of the subject of study in space as a phenomenon independent on the temporal axis. A sound critique of an absenting historical aspect in anthropology was articulated by Eric Wolf (1982) and Johannes Fabian (1983). The attempts for retemporalization of anthropological discourse also contributed to the destruction of the spatial
axis. Nowadays, these tendencies are reflected in an interdisciplinary research, which takes anthropology as one of
many sources, which include STS, media studies and women’s studies. Recently established disciplines not only define
a new subject of study, but they also develop new methodological approaches, which are eventually reflected in the
traditional socio-cultural anthropological studies. To sum up, contemporary anthropology does not deal anymore with the
model of culture, which is defined as a spatially bordered unit, isolated to a certain extent.

1.1 What the textbooks say

The differences between British and American cultural anthropology are not only found in their choice of topics, which are
accentuated by their representatives. They are also noticeable in the methods of teaching. American cultural
anthropological textbooks are formalized in order to convey the terminology, system and methodology of the discipline.
The structure seems to be highly conventional.

Unlike American teaching materials, the British textbooks are not formalized to such a point; at least they are not
so much standardized. We can count among influential textbooks a teaching material by Firth (1958) and Pocock (1961).
Yet the explanation of the subject and concepts of anthropology is not carried out systematically by either of them. A
similar style of the introductory text in anthropology was chosen by Fox (1973), who amended an autobiographical
dimension. Another famous text structurally similar to American textbooks was written in the mid-sixties by Beattie
(1966). A glimpse into the French and German introductory textbooks and overview materials reveals their apparent
similarity with American (cf. e.g. Haller, 2005; Laburthe & Tolra & Warnier, 1997).

For our purpose we have selected four textbooks written by renowned authors. These are texts by Kottak (2011),
Haviland et al. (2004), Schultz and Lavenda (2005) and Heider (2004). All of them are teaching materials published after
2000. In the mainstream publications we habitually find a statement that anthropology is a comparative holistic
discipline, which studies cultures in time and space. The aim of the study is thus to find out whether such a definition adequately
reflects the true state of the discipline.

The “mainstream textbooks” stick to the established structure, which was smartly summarized by Eller, who also
attempted to present an alternative model since he feels frustrated from the textbooks abiding conformity and unification,

“All of them naturally include a discussion of the concept of culture and its major components, like language and gender
and personality. All of them present an analysis of the important areas of culture – economics, politics, kinship, and
religion. However, virtually all offer at most a couple of concluding chapters on “culture change” and “the modern world”
as if these matters are tangential, almost anathema, to anthropology and barely within its purview”(Eller, 2009, xvii).

2. Paradox 1: Culture

“Anthropology is the study of different ways of life, both past and present. This field, as we know it today, is a relatively
new discipline, emerging only in the late 19th and early 20th centuries as an aid to, and a reaction against, European
colonialism. Above all, it is comparative and cross-cultural, combining elements from biology, linguistics, sociology,
psychology, and history into a grand synthesizing endeavor”.

Heider (2004)

The first definition of culture was produced by English anthropologist Edward Tylor in 1871. His rather lengthy definition
occupied a spot in anthropological textbooks so persistently that it has become the most cited definition ever¹. Cronk
analysed twenty textbooks used in introductory anthropology courses and came to the conclusion that more than 75
percent contain a definition of culture that is basically identical with Tylor’s (Cronk 1999, p. 4). The term “culture” stood as
a principal term of anthropology aiming to study groups of people in time and space. Until the eighties, the term culture
constituted the core of anthropology to be analysed in the following decades. In the collection of essays Writing Culture:
The Poetics and Politics of Ethnography the focus was shifted from studies of culture to existing ethnographic texts,
which were subject to semantic analysis. “They see culture as composed of seriously contested codes and
representations; they assume that the poetic and the political are inseparable ...” (Clifford, 2010, p. 2). The production of
text and rhetoric only highlights the artificially constructed nature of cultural statements. Embedded in interpretation, his
presentations limit reinterpretation (Crapanzano 2010: 52). The transition from the studies of culture to textual analysis

¹Tylor’s famous definitiv states that,“Culture, or civilization, taken in its broad, ethnographic sense, is that complex whole which includes
knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.” (Tylor 1871: 1).
generated numerous responses. The collection *After Writing Culture* can be counted as one of them. The first chapter *The Road from Santa Fe* (the place where the seminar of contributors to the collection *Writing Culture* was held) calls upon the new way of ethnographic writing. It also seeks to answer who, what, how and why we should aim to represent. The authors examine issues such as reverberations of modernist epistemologies of the subject and the possible existence of shared or universal external references -- which can make the cultural “translation” viable -- the questions of authorial style and the nature and status of models which may be deemed effective in an applied setting (James & Hockey & Dawson, 1997).

It would be possible to offer a consistent account on *culture* as a subject in case the traditional approach, structure and organization would be maintained. However, as we noted, this trend is being gradually abandoned. The twist has to do with the inclination to narrative strategies, pluralist discourses and general perception of anthropology as a kind of a narration constituted within the process of interaction and followed by “translation” between the member of a culture and anthropologist. The rejection of the word *culture* can be traced to the work of Appadurai. Instead, he suggests the word *cultural* be used. According to him, the term *culture* implies substantialization implying, like the word *race*, the notion to treat social groups like cultures (Appadurai, 2005). On the other hand, the word *cultural* assumes certain plurality and heterogeneity; as such, it seems to be a more appropriate tool for examination of particular segments of a deterritorialized, culturally hybridized world inhabited by diasporas.

The traditional concept of culture provoked speculations aiming to identify what makes us different from each other instead of trying to determine what we share in common. The necessity to reconsider this approach was mentioned by Gupta and Ferguson (1992) who proposed cultural and social change to be considered as a matter of rethinking difference through connection, since spaces have always been hierarchically interconnected instead of naturally disconnected. The Fiji anthropologist of Tongan descent Epeli Hau’ofa suggested such a reconceptualization using the islands in the Pacific Ocean as an example. The conventional narration depicts these islands as small, poor isolated states scattered in the waters of an enormous ocean. Nevertheless, this geographically determined definition primarily takes into account the area, and does not reflect on the islands’ rich cultural history and the fact that the people inhabiting these territories not only do consider their universe the relatively small islands, but also the ocean which surrounds them. Hence, instead of thinking of “islands in a far sea,” we should reflect on it as “a sea of islands”. In fact, this approach accentuates the totality of relations instead of smallness and distance (Hau’ofa, 1994). The word “culture” as a cornerstone of anthropology would deserve a similar reconceptualization.

3. **Paradox 2: Comparative method**

> “The postmodern, writing culture project has stifled young ethnographers. It has become a source of ideological support for identity politics. Most importantly, this project denies the possibility of a cross-cultural, comparative anthropology.”
> Adam Kuper (1999)

Haviland’s textbook states that “ethnographies provide the information used to make systematic comparisons among cultures all across the world. Known as ethnology, such cross-cultural research allows anthropologists to develop anthropological theories that help explain why certain important differences or similarities occur among groups” (Haviland & Prins & McBride & Walrath, 2011, p. 12). Similar statements can be also found in the texts by Heider (2004), Kottak (2011) and Schultz and Lavenda (2005). Schultz and Lavenda add that a comparative approach is, besides holism, the main characteristic of anthropology. They define comparison as, “A characteristic of the anthropological perspective that requires anthropologists to consider similarities and differences in as wide a range of human societies as possible before generalizing about human nature, human society, or the human past” (Schultz & Lavenda, 2005, p. 3). Another frequent term in the anthropological texts is the doctrine of cultural relativism. It is a non-evaluative approach involving some specific methodological claims an anthropologist should engage in order to understand a concrete culture within its own terms and from the perspective of The Other. Comparative method and cultural relativism as one of the central pillars of the discipline are mutually contradictory.

Classic anthropology dealt with the discrepancy between cultural relativism and comparative method using various gnoselogic tools and concepts. A special attention was paid to emic and ethic perspective. With a certain degree of simplification it is possible to conclude that emic perspective corresponds to cultural relativism as an ethnographer obtains a specific set of data on a culture, and records as they were presented from the perspective of the members of a culture. An ethic approach allows for comparative method owing to the application of concepts developed in anthropology. A specific analytical tool enabling comparative approach was drawn up by Murdock, who introduced a conception of cultural universals. Universals denote a kind of cultural element present in all known cultures. This concept
permits the construction of typologies as a basis for comparative analysis. Murdock though pointed out that,”they are
similarities in classification, not in content “ (Murdock, 1965: 90). A few comparative researches were conducted in the
twentieth century, for example Coordinated Investigation of Micronesian Anthropology (1947–1949), Six Cultures Project
Comparative approach is based on an evaluation of morphology, structure or function of cultural elements. The
examination of morphology, structure and function can be traced back to natural sciences. Later on, it was adopted by
social sciences, especially due to the effort of Herbert Spencer (Andreski, 1971). Morphology in particular forms a basis
of modern biological classification as it was laid out by Carl Linnaeus in the 18th century. The study of objects (how they
appear to us) and the Cartesian coordinate system (measurability of objects in time and space) allow for a cognitive
seizing of the world. Anna Tsing (2005) goes even further, noting that as European hegemony grew, European
knowledge increasingly directed global programs. She also adds that scholars of colonialism have pointed to the texts of
eighteenth- and nineteenth-century European botanists, gathering plants in non-European locales, as models for
imperial consciousness. It allowed for the classification of “Otherness,” hence otherness became a part of order.
Consequently, after the deconstruction of the concept of culture as an entity localized in space and time, the comparative
method is not applicable in contemporary anthropology. However, the cited teaching materials continue to declare, that
anthropology is a comparative discipline. It goes without saying that classical anthropology has made many
achievements engaging comparative approach. The question to be answered is if (and how) contemporary anthropology
can produce a knowledge basis using comparative method.

4. Paradox 3: Isomorphism of place, space and culture

“What does it mean, at the end of the twentieth century, to speak ... of a “native land”? What processes rather than
essences are involved in present experiences of cultural identity?”
James Clifford (1996)

Traditional anthropology did not only employ the construct of culture; it placed the construction in a bordered territory.
When talking about Lele people we have in mind the Congo (formerly Zaire). Yurok people are placed in California. New
Guinea is inhabited by Mae Enga people for us, just like it was for Mary Douglas (Douglas, 2007). She conducted her
doctoral research among the Lele people of the Kasai River (the book later published bears the same name – The Lele
of the Kasai), although she documented Lele migrating a few hundreds of kilometres farther to Kinshasa (Douglas,
1999). The notion of culture as a geographically localized unit even more highlighted its distinctive nature because it
asserts that these clearly defined territories are home to easily distinguishable cultures.
The teaching materials in anthropology usually contain maps with marked territory inhabited by the culture/ethnic
group discussed. The graphic representation hence helps fix the isomorphic nature of culture and space (cf. Heider,
2004). The isomorphy is obvious in ethnoprofiles presented in the textbook by Schultz and Lavenda. They provide basic
information on the locality, nation, population, livelihood and a famous ethnographic monography on the particular
culture. In the ethnoprofiles the authors refer to a concrete spot in the map, they define the space inhabited by a culture,
and via a recommended monography determine the ethnographic present, which the profile refers to (Schultz & Lavenda
2005).
The African continent in the process of decolonization went through defragmentation of space. Europeans
parcelled Africa out, and the pressure to reconfigure the image of the continent went hand in hand with this process. The
orthogonal organization of space contributed to the annihilation of native cultures, which Lévi-Strauss observed among
Bororo people in the state of Matto Grosso (Lévi-Strauss, 1973). Europeans described Africa as a primitive savage
wilderness. Therefore, it was the objective of anthropologists, adventurers and photographers to map it out again.

“In a few decades, Europeans seemed willfully to forget all that they had learned about Africa since the fifteenth
century. They deculturated Kongo in order to acculturate ... Africans to the new entity they had created named the
Congo. While anthropologists later assumed that Africans “evolved” from tribes to kingdoms, the reverse was in fact
true-Europeans destroyed the kingdom of Kongo and created the Congo tribes as part of their divide-and-rule policy”
Mirzoeff 1999, p. 134

The local nations had to adapt to the new political reality and cultural practice. These changes took place within
the territory, which was created violently and artificially, hence it did not pay attention to the particular ethnic groups and
their dislocation in space. The attempts to imagine the world as a successive chain of cultures is being threatened by the existence of diasporas, the emergence of transnationalism and the mass migration of populations.

Yet in the eighties, the question of space was not often frequented as in anthropological theory (Gupta & Fergusson 1992). In a famous article Beyond “Culture”: Space, Identity, and the Politics of Difference, they argue that the renewed interest in theorizing space and notions as surveillance, borderlines, simulacra, deterritorialization marginality ... forces us to reevaluate central analytic concepts such as “culture” and the idea of “cultural difference” (Gupta & Fergusson, 1992, p. 6). Moreover, the assumed isomorphism of space, place and culture creates significant problems in dealing with the existence of migrants and people inhabiting the borders. The issue of cultural differences within a locality, subcultures, is followed with the matter of contemporary postcolonial reality and the emergence of hybrid cultures of postcoloniality. Finally, there is the question of cultural transformation situated within interconnected spaces, which forms an opposite to the traditional anthropological notion of inherently fragmented space (Gupta & Fergusson, 1992). These questions also force us to search for a new attitude to the issue of identity, which is considered besides culture to be the crucial area of research like migration research and hybrid identities are.

The idea of culture created, reproduced and preserved by a specific group of people sharing a specific space, which can be easily examined within its borders upon a visit or fieldwork, has been subject to critique. In this context we should ask about a constitutive element of anthropology itself – fieldwork, as the voices calling for reevaluation of the traditional standpoints echo even in the realm of the field. At present, it is not possible to outline a complete picture merely from the local perspective since “local” is also a product of a dialectical relationship between the local situation and global reality. The geographic localization is not sufficient anymore. The field nowadays consists of several localities that constitute a single coherent playground of field research. The trends bound to the era of modernity and contemporary postmodern reality contribute to the deeper and broader deterritorialization and transformation of identities. For instance, the original inhabitants of Maghreb living in francophone European countries or inhabitants of the UK of Asian descent represent a couple of the waves of migration.

Contemporary anthropology strives to overcome the traditional spatial and cultural division, which created its basis in the past. One of the reasons for this is that deterritorialization destabilized the formerly fixed ideas of “us” and the “others” -- hence, it has opened up space for a more thorough reflection of the world. The distance between the rich in London and in Bombay can be much shorter than the distance between different classes in “the same” city. Physical location, for so long the only grid on which cultural difference could be mapped, needs to be replaced by multiple grids that enable us to see that connections vary considerably according to social and biological factors (Gupta & Fergusson, 1992, p. 20).

5. Paradox 4: Myth of holism

“For many students, AN-101 is the first and last place they encounter holism in anthropology.”

Bradd Shore (1999)

Karl Heider regards holism a central feature of ethnography: “holism has an ancient and honorable ancestry in anthropology”(Heider, 1970, p. 3). He turns to Malinowski, who in Argonauts of the Western Pacific noted that anthropology deliberately deals with “the totality of all social, cultural and psychological aspects of the community”(Malinowski, 1922, xvi). This audacious statement according to Heider does not reflect reality. Despite the complicated position holism occupies in anthropology, an anthropologist must do his best to accomplish it. Heider pursues the idea combining visual and textual means of representation. However, he believes it is not possible to slavishly follow an apel ‘whole people in whole acts”(Heider, 2006, p. 6) because no achievements would come out from a camera recorder turned on for the whole day capturing the village. The call for representation of “whole bodies,” “whole people,” “whole interactions,” and “whole acts” resists both an eye of the camera and capturing in words (cf. Heider, 2006, p. 5–6).

Bradd Shore is convinced that the notion of holism bears the stamp of the birth and expansion of anthropology as an interdisciplinary field of study, whose founders were originally educated in natural sciences (Boas, Malinowski), psychology (Fortes, Rivers, White), philosophy (Lévi-Strauss, Lévy-Bruhl) and literary theory (Benedict). Because anthropology drew from the traditions of diverse disciplines, the adopted concepts and theories were tested and cultivated within a multicultural point of view. The study of cultures centered on isolated and “simple” societies; this fact led to the premise that it is possible to study them in a holistic way. Moreover, the above quoted Tylor’s definition pointed out the direction since it was introduced: “Culture, or civilization, taken in its broad, ethnographic sense, is that complex whole ... (Tylor, 1871, p.1, underlined by MK&MS). The traditional anthropological premise is that an anthropologist
Paradox 5: Loss of the subject

"... life is with people-no other way is conceivable".
--David Riesman, foreword to "Return to Laughter"

Sociocultural anthropology can hardly deny its connection to colonialism. Taking into account the circumstances of its origin, the historical era it was established, the predicate “imperialistic discipline” seems more and undeniable fact than exaggerated hyperbolic statement. Territorial expansion of European states facilitated on one hand access to distant localities. On the other hand, the necessity to effectively administer the subordinated territories led to a call for information on the unknown Other, which was to be first identified and then civilized. The word “civilization” expressed a specific set of skills and modes of behaviour inherent to a member of civilization, which, according to the former discourse, differed from the members of “primitive” societies. The moment the members of Western civilization felt the superiority started disseminating their values to other parts of world.

The platform for the relationship between anthropologist and the examined object, or the society of “Others,” was power. The relationship was uneven, as it is traceable in the outputs of fieldwork - anthropological texts, monographs, anthologies or published field notes and diaries which are the cherry on top of a cake and at the same time proof of an author’s presence in the field. As Talal Asad (1973, p.17) notes, “Anthropological understanding is overwhelmingly objectified in European languages that it is most easily accommodated to the mode of life, and hence to the rationality, of the world power which the West represents.” At the beginning of the twentieth century, anthropologists commonly got to the places of their research only after they were granted the necessary permits by colonial administrations. They took notes in the field, and later in the silence of their study rooms they worked on translating, selecting and interpreting them to prepare them for publishing. These pictures of the world are not creations of the authors of the particular publications; they represent images controlling western imagination (Achebe, 2001, p. 23). Anyway, a few decades earlier it was not necessary to even pay a visit to discussed places. A comparative study on mythology and religion by Scottish anthropologist James Frazer was based on the material collected by Christian missionaries. When Laura Bohannan was heading off for field research in Nigeria, an anthropology professor gave her valuable advice: “Enjoy yourself, and never, never be an embarrassment to the administration” (Bowen, 1964, p. 4). She noted a few pages later in her field work notes that she eventually did become one.

The decay of colonial empires brought about an annoying development anthropologists had to deal with: they were challenged to choose a new subject of study. The circumstances of the decolonising process shed light on the fact that the world could no longer be conceptualized as “us” and “them”. The denial of the concept of “them” or The Other basically signified loss of the subject, which had to be found again. This issue is partly resolved in an attempt of anthropology to turn towards modern societies; yet on the other hand, a kind of “closing up the circle” is happening. The people we used to call the “other” are now a part of our present, as post-colonial studies succinctly point out.

A peek into the textbooks regarding the anthropological subject reveals a definition somehow similar to the following: “…Modern anthropologists are concerned with studying all human societies, doing research in urban and rural settings around the world and among members of all societies, including their own” (Schultz & Lavenda, 2005, p. 8). Analogous words can be found in Kottak’s textbook (2011, p. 5). Many authors of textbooks while defining the subject of study note that cultural anthropology studies cultures and societies in a spatio-temporal dimension; a special emphasis is placed on the non-western societies. The change of the discipline is evident. The publications from the first half of the twentieth century reflect the feeling of exclusivity anthropologists held.

Such a determination of the subject proved to be anachronistic already at that time. The alliterate societies due to long-term and intensive contact with Western society went through a dramatic change and sometimes even ceased to exist. The opening of Malinowski’s book The Argonauts of the Western Pacific seems to be very significant in respect to what we discussed above. “Ethnology is in the sadly ludicrous, not to say tragic, position, that at the very moment when it
begins to put its workshop in order, to forge its proper tools, to start ready for work on its appointed task, the material of its study melts away with hopeless rapidity." (Malinowski, 1922, p. xv).

Since the sixties a shift happened in sociocultural anthropology that manifested in several areas. The increasing tendency towards reflexivity arising with the period of decolonization became problematic to the extent that the new issue labelled as crisis of representation was brought up. Analyses of colonial situations revealed surprising information about the circumstances of classic field researches and their outputs as they were presented by their authors (Gellner, 1998; Stocking, 1991; Asad, 1973). The textbooks almost all avoid mentioning this transformation of the discipline.

Anthropology as a scientific discipline developed in an era that strictly divided the world into two halves. One was populated by us and the other was reserved for the people who we made the subject of examination. The distinction is not valid anymore, owing to the existence of transnational flows, globalization movements and migration waves. Generally speaking, the “others” are not to be found exclusively in Melanesia, central Africa or in Southeast Asia.

7. Conclusion

The main objective of our study was to present the results of an analysis of the teaching materials. We concluded that the conventional definition of anthropology as stated in textbooks, i.e. anthropology is a holistic and comparative discipline aimed at the study of cultures and societies anchored in time and space, does not correspond to the contemporary state of anthropology as a discipline. Analysis of particular key words in a standard textbook definition proved that there is a necessity to reevaluate each of the categories and simultaneously reconsider methodological approaches and theoretical tools in order to ensure anthropology will maintain the potential to reflect on the current state of the world.

We identified five paradoxes of contemporary anthropology. It is defined as a holistic discipline; however, bearing in mind the subject of classical anthropological research, it fails to meet this obligation. Further on, it proclaimed a comparative approach, but the loss of the traditional subject of study makes comparison impossible, or at least very difficult. Disintegration of the spatio-temporal axis (isomorphism of place, space and culture) is, in light of current research, more than an obvious fact. The abovementioned findings imply that culture cannot stand as the central concept of the discipline. Nevertheless, the textbooks still open with question, “What is culture?”

Reference


Preserving Minangkabau Traditional Building In West Sumatera, Indonesia: Toward Sustainable Community

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Abstract
Minangkabau traditional house is part of Indonesia's rich cultural asset with its historical and normative values. Beside custom homes, Minangkabau traditional building also serves as a place to stay in the context of human habitat but has slowly endangered its sustainability. The purpose of this study was to analyze the current physical conditions of this type of building by area. The study also aims to analyze the community participation in preserving this building in West Sumatra Indonesia. This is a quantitative study. Primary data was collected through a questionnaire survey. The total of this type of building amounts to 1,122. The study found that nearly 19.37% of traditional buildings are not occupied because of damages. In addition, there are influences of urbanization impact in urban community on the sustainability of the buildings. This research, suggested that the government should emphasize both maintenance and protection of traditional buildings by establishing policies in view of sustainable development planning.

Keywords: Preservation, cultural heritage, sustainable community, human habitat, Minangkabau traditional building

1. Introduction
Modern life is growing very fast, and lifestyle changes that require compliance in accordance with the new requirements, have spurred many extinctions, damages and destruction of cultural heritage. Naturally, the cultural heritage in a dynamic environment will inevitably experience growth and change along with the changing times. Heritage is a component that has a relationship with a valued past and a source for the present and future (Ministry of Environment Indonesia 2008). Preserving the Minangkabau traditional building as a social identity is not only the responsibility of society but needs to be supported by the government. Information regarding the characteristics of the Minangkabau traditional building is very much in need of assessment and conservation measures so that the social and cultural identity in the Minangkabau can be preserved by present and future generations.

The Minangkabau traditional building is one of the social identity characteristics that is essential for the Minangkabau ethnics in West Sumatra. Furthermore, it also became part of the regional identity in terms of "material heritage" for the Minangkabau ethnics. Although the current situation and the existence of Minangkabau traditional building in some areas in West Sumatra is worrisome, sometimes these traditional houses are uninhabited because the owners do not live in them. In addition the physical condition of many Minangkabau traditional building is very poorly maintained and damaged. Besides the economic factor, owners need to pay high prices to repair or renovate them. The
difficulty in getting wood is also a constraint faced by the community to repair the damaged houses. Some of the factors
categorized as internal and external are a constraint in the preservation of traditional Minangkabau house (Noviarti,

Previous research about Minangkabau traditional building paid more attention to the architectural aspects. Elfida
Aguš (2006) studied the topology, morphology and typology of Minangkabau traditional building. The cultural values,
patterns and shapes have also been studied (Sudirman Is 2006; 2007). In addition to the traditional home space
transformation were also researched (A Busrya Fuadi 2006). Minangkabau traditional building is a form of
manifestation of Minangkabau culture (A Busrya Fuadi 2006). In the Minangkabau society, the Minangkabau traditional
building as architecture is really a reflection of social and cultural expression of society, and displays specific form of
harmony with its environment. There is harmony between natural and built environments (Elfida Aguš, 2006; Sudirman Is
2007).

Traditional building is a Minangkabau architecture that reveals the shape and the space environment according to
the rules in society. Traditional houses are also a source of inspiration to be used as a basis for planning the form of
modern architecture (Elfida Aguš 2006, Sudirman Is 2006; 2007). Even the house for the community is a sign of cultural
heritage that retain the typical architecture of Minangkabau ethnics (Elfida Aguš 2006). Along with the times, the
traditional home changed. Among the changes were those in function, form, construction, structure and spatial structure.
These changes can be caused by the influence that comes from society itself and are caused by acculturation (Sudirman Is
2007).

2. Human habitat and Minangkabau traditional building

As a residence, Minangkabau traditional building is part of man-made habitats that evolved over time. The extent of
development of human habitat of traditional Minangkabau houses can be related to the concept of preservation.
Preservation of the cultural heritage of a city is an area management that have historical and cultural values in order to
accept changes leading to sustainable development. Preservation means fixed, immutable, and eternal. According to
Carmona (2003), preservation relate with sustainability. Preservation of historic building or of cultural value as
development, is one indicator of the sustainable development which meets the needs of present and future generations
whilst there is a balance of economic and social development and environment. The concept of conservation has an aim
to keep the identity of an environment (Ministry of Environment Indonesia 2008). In other words the preservation
emphasize on the continuity of change in order that environmental identity is still maintained (Adhisakti 1992).

Based on the function role, the traditional Minangkabau houses function as a dwelling or as a custom home for
family (ethnic) activities. As a residence, this house is occupied only by family members (women only) to do daily
activities, while when it functions as a custom home it is the place to implement the consensus and traditional
ceremonies. Traditionally, the main function of traditional Minangkabau houses is a symbol to keep and maintain a
system of matrilineal culture. Through these traditional houses, people maintain the system of matrilineal Minangkabau
(A Busrya Fuadi 2006; Navis 1984; Sudirman Is 2006; 2007). In addition, the existence of a traditional house is also a
place to teach the values of traditional Minangkabau.

Based on the historical aspect, the existence of the house is even associated with a history origin of the ancestors
of the Minangkabau. Based on the historical origins, the arrival of the ancestors of the Minangkabau, Minangkabau area
consists of 3 main areas (Darek), commonly referred to as LUHAK (Dobbin 1983, Graves 1981). The other areas are
known as LUHAK Tanah Datar, Agam and LUHAK lima puluh Kota. A different type of Minangkabau traditional building
can be found based on these three areas. According to Bustami (1979) there are different forms and types of
Minangkabau traditional building based on the alignment or custom patterns of luhak. Although there are different types
and forms of Minangkabau traditional house, in general the difference is determined by the number of pillars, flooring, or
end of the building while the other features are the same (Sudirman Is 2007).

3. Research methodology

3.1 Area of Study

The majority of Minangkabau people inhabit the area of West Sumatera province on Sumatera Island. This study was
conducted on traditional Minangkabau building of the West Sumatera Province, a province of Indonesia (Fig.1). West
Sumatera consists of 19 cities/regencies. This study involves only two areas in West Sumatera namely Payakumbuh
(80.34 km²) representing the urban area, and Limapuluh Kota (3,354.30 km²) representing the rural area. Payakumbuh topography varies between plain and hilly spaces with an elevation of 514 m sea surface. The total number of households in this city is 25,302 with an average density population of 1,454 people per square kilometre. Demographically, according to 2010 Census, total population of Payakumbuh city is over 116,910 people whereas the population of Limapuluh Kota Regency is 348,249. Its topography varies such as flat, bumpy, and hilly with elevation of sea between 110 meters and 2,261 metres. The total number of households in this regency is 87,160 with an average density population of 100 people per square kilometre.

Fig. 1. Location of West Sumatera in Indonesia

3.2 Data and Methodology

The definition of traditional Minangkabau building in this study is building house that is physically discrete, namely the main roof forms like buffalo horn, a square-shaped building and the main material used is wood, semi concrete or concrete. This study uses a quantitative approach to identify and collect field data through a survey on the whole of Minangkabau traditional buildings as the focus area of study. The total of the buildings had survey with amounts 1,122. The field studies involved the collection of data on the current physic conditions and function of this type of building by area. Observation physic conditions via observation of building material. It applied three categories namely: wood (almost whole material for construction is wood); semi concrete (material for construction is mixed wood and concrete); and concrete (whole of material for construction is concrete). The elements of material used for observation included pillars, floors and walls.

4. Results and discussion

The results in Table 1 show that the majority of the characteristics of Minangkabau traditional building materials still maintain traditional architecture using natural materials like wood. Nearly 28% of building materials are replaced by concrete. Buildings already renovated in concrete form replaced natural material though still maintain the characteristics and shape of the roof.

Tabel 1. Characteristics of traditional Minangkabau building in urban and rural area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Minangkabau traditional building</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>Concrete and semi concrete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>511</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>72.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>86.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,122</td>
<td>902</td>
<td>80.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Its function as a custom home and place for daily activities is still maintained up to 73.17%. However, nearly 18% of house buildings are not occupied because of damages. Demographic changes in the family structure also affect the existence of traditional houses. The Minangkabau traditional house as a residence is only occupied by family members (women only) to do their daily activities. Thus, in a house more than one nuclear family will stay. In order to increase
social and economic status in Minangkabau society a nuclear family will build their own house as part of the basic needs whilst improve comfort. Usually family members prefer to build a house around the traditional house building. This sometimes causes the traditional house building to become idle. Beside that, Table 1 shows that there is effect of cultural migration among Minangkabau ethnics with their traditional building. Nearly 14% of the building in rural areas is unoccupied because their owners stay in other areas. It shows that the special culture of Minangkabau “merantau” or migrate have influence on the existence of Minangkabau traditional building (Mochtar Naim 1972; 1979; Ranti Irsa et al 2012; Noviarti et al 2013).

Moreover, urbanization is believed to influence the society’s economic structure in urban and rural areas. In that case, the socio-economic aspects mean the economic status of owners to repair the traditional building since high costs is required to do it. It is also a constrain factor causing traditional houses to be abandoned and damaged. However there are some adjustments done in society, such as develop a new building on the left side of the traditional building. Other adjustments for damaged building is to do renovation, natural material is replaced with concrete building material, while still maintaining the architectural form of the roof that reflects the characteristics of traditional building Minangkabau. In this case people assume that the cost of construction and maintenance of buildings with concrete material is cheaper than traditional material of wood.

Based on urban function, the building offers space for trade and services activity. Review of the urban system, shows that the urban development is based on development of roads and other infrastructure. If urbanisation process is associated with sustainability of Minangkabau traditional building, especially in the city centre there is impact of land use pressure for economic activity. In the city centre traditional building is not found along the main road, because the main street area is used for office buildings and economic facilities such as shops. In other parts of the city centre traditional building is still found in the main street. However its existence got pressure with economic activity, so the layout of traditional building changed. In that case, to improve their quality of life, the people modify the land use of the area for the needs of their lives (Jamaluddin Md. Jahi 1988).

5. Conclusion

Sustainability of Minangkabau traditional building is part of the habitat characteristics of a community. Urbanization too had an impact on sustainability of Minangkabau traditional building in Payakumbuh especially in the centre of urban areas. The physical sustainability of Minangkabau traditional building at urban area is maintained in terms of architecture and material. The implications of this study are important for urban planning policy. It is suggested that local governments need to make efforts for conservation of cultural heritage area of the city through the creation of local laws and regulations on the protection of cultural property, as these assets are valuable for culture and history. Traditional building conservation requires immediate action for the preservation as part of the habitat of the community sustainability.

6. Acknowledgement

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References


Quality Management Systems in Meat Processing Industry in Albania - Quantifying Factors that Influence its Implementation

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Abstract

The attention in this study is focused on the management and particularly on products quality and safety issues in the level of businesses. More specifically, this research investigates factors that influence willingness of meat processing enterprises in Albania to invest on internationally recognized quality management standards (ISO). Objective of this research is to investigate how two attitudes of meat processing enterprises in Albania; 'Willingness to invest on ISO' and 'Perception about competition level' are affected by different factors belonging to internal and external environment of the organization. Stratified random sampling was used for selecting the sample of 45 meat processing enterprises out of 54 officially registered. Face to face interview survey method was conducted. The respondents were mainly managers, owners or high level personnel of the selected meat enterprises. The model of ordinal logistic regression was used to quantify the effects of different management factors on 'Willingness to invest on ISO'. As result we conclude that the more information and knowledge enterprises have about ISO standards, the more they will have the willingness to invest on these standards. The next finding is that, if companies want to operate in national markets (high competition level) it is a good choice to do a benchmark analysis, also if enterprises in meat industry want to operate in high competitive markets they have to focus on after sales services and on product delivery.

1. Introduction

In the last 10 years the most drastic change in quality thinking is probably the change from production-oriented to consumer-oriented concepts. Moreover, integrative approaches, system thinking, the focus on advanced technologies and belief in human capacities have had a considerable impact on current quality management. (Schiefer 2002) Quality has become a vital distinctive feature for competition in the world market food products. To obtain a good quality end product, quality is more and more managed along the whole food chain from the supplier of raw materials to the consumption. Striving for quality is not a free choice. Although before the nineties there existed a good tradition, the current industry of the meat processing is a relatively new industry in Albania, established mainly in these last 15 years. Exploiting all the possibilities and the resources and overcoming the difficulties faced during development, it has always managed to satisfy the quantitative needs of the Albanian consumers. Nowadays the most important and delicate problem related to meat processing industry is the quality and safety of these products (avoiding elements in the content of these products that damage and endanger the health). This problem is becoming more sensitive as the meat industry is starting to prepare for introducing its products in a larger and more organized way in the foreign markets, but firstly in the European market. In this study we are going to identify the factors that have an effect on implementing quality management standards by meat processing sector in Albania and also to quantify these effects.

This research will consist in the identification and measurement of factors that influence ‘Willingness to invest on ISO’ in meat processing industry in Albania. On the other hand managers based on this scientific research can orient their managerial efforts towards improving aspects of quality management. In this research most of our data are going to be ordinal data that have more than two categories. Multicategory logit models that deal with ordinal responses, assume that at each combination of the levels of explanatory variables, the response counts for the categories of Y have a multinominal distribution. This generalization of the binomial applies when the number of response categories exceeds two (Agresti 1996:205). The core point of all multivariate techniques or models is to find if there is any association between dependent variables and independent variables, and if it is, measure the strength of the relationship. We will use the SPSS Ordinal Regression Procedure, or PLUM (Polytomous Universal Model), which is an extension of the
general linear model to ordinal categorical data. We can specify five link functions as well as scaling parameters. The procedure can be used to fit heteroscedastic probit and logit models (Norušis 2008:69).

We will consider as dependent variable the categorical variables measured in Likert scale “Willingness to invest on ISO standards” (high, level of competition leading to an immediate need for quality improvement). As independent variables we will choose like “Level of knowledge about ISO standards”, “Willingness to invest on training”, “Operational markets”, “Ratio Export/annual turnover”, “Level of compiling product technical specification”, “Collaboration with R&D department within organization”, Benchmarking’ etc. According to Agresti (1996) the measurement scale of independent variables in ordinal Logistic Regression can be of any type as it is in our case (nominal, interval, ordinal and ratio scale).

2. Results

We considered in the beginning the attitude of meat processing enterprises in Albania towards investing in implementing widely recognized quality management systems and to be more specific we choose as dependent variables ‘Willingness to invest in implementing ISO series’ (1= Fully known, 2= Mostly known, 3 = Medium known , 4 = Poorly known, 5 = Not known). By using the correlation matrix in SPSS we tried as many as 15 potential independent variables for finding any significant correlation, between dependent and independent variables. Although there were more than four variables that are correlated with dependent variable we couldn’t found reliable regression model significance for all of them, but we found for four of them. So, as independent variables are considered the following variables

(a) Percentage of the export in relation to the annual turnover of the company (1 = Under 10%, 2 = 10% -30%, 3 = 31% - 50%, 4 = Over 50%, 5 = No export), (b) Operational markets of your organization (nominal variable coded 1 = In the local markets, 2 = In national markets, 3 = International markets, 4= All markets), (c) Company’s willingness to invest for training regarding quality management (1 =Yes, 2 = No, 3= Partially, 4 = No answer), (d) Level of knowledge about ISO 9001:2000 (1= Fully known, 2= Mostly known, 3 = Medium known , 4 = Poorly known, 5 = Not known).

Table 1: Relationships between ‘Willingness to invest on ISO’ and four different QM variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Willingness to invest on ISO</th>
<th>Export/annual turnover (%) (a)</th>
<th>Operational markets (b)</th>
<th>Willingness to invest for training (c)</th>
<th>Knowing ISO 9001 (d)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation coefficient</td>
<td>0.445**</td>
<td>-0.232*</td>
<td>0.229*</td>
<td>0.667**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2 Log-Likelihood</td>
<td>45.949</td>
<td>16.044</td>
<td>32.228</td>
<td>59.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
<td>16.931</td>
<td>6.114</td>
<td>7.003</td>
<td>58.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of freedom</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagelkerke</td>
<td>0.204</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter estimate</td>
<td>-1.840</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>-0.396</td>
<td>-2.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wald statistics</td>
<td>14.884</td>
<td>4.765</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>8.526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.617</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp (b) Odds ratio</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>2.549</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own calculation and data

a) Having a ratio of export/annual turnover less than 10 % (1= less than 10% most of the enterprises not export at all) (Table 1) is associated with likelihood of scoring 1 in the independent variable (Full willingness to invest on ISO standards =1) compare to scoring 2 (moderate willingness = 2) by a factor of 0.159. In other words, the lower ratio export/annual turnovers companies (scoring 1) the enterprises are more likely to have full willingness to invest for apply ISO quality management systems. Companies that have higher ratio export/annual turnover (scoring to the levels higher than 1), seems to lack willingness to invest. This behavior can be explained with the fact that since they export, they fulfill a certain quality management standards for export (perhaps ISO or other standards) and don’t need to invest in ISO.

b) Independent variable ‘Operational Markets: parameters estimate 0.936. Operating in the local markets is associated with higher levels in dependent variable means, lack of willingness to invest on ISO (Table 1). Interesting is that as more enterprises expand the operational markets (going to the higher scoring levels), the chances that they will have the willingness to invest on ISO increase by a factor of 2.549.
Conclusion: As meat processing enterprises in Albania expand their operational markets it is more likely that they will have the willingness to invest in quality management standards. The logic behind this behavior make sense, if market become more competitive market, companies have to improve their quality to survive in that market.

Independent variables (c) and (d) have parameters estimate respectively -0.396 and -2.147. Both are associated with lower scores in dependent, means higher willingness to invest on ISO. Although the parameter estimates for the variable (c) it is not significant (p > 0.05) we can still say that the companies that have the willingness to invest on training have also the willingness to invest on ISO. For variable (d), it is interesting how strong is the effect size (Nagelkerke 0.504) between willingness to invest on ISO and level of knowledge about ISO standards. Nagelkerke coefficients vary from 0.086 to 0.504 representing weak to strong effect sizes.

Conclusion: As result we conclude that the more information and knowledge enterprises have about ISO standards, the more they will have the willingness to invest on these standards.

3. Conclusions and discussion

According to the results from this study we came to the conclusion that meat processing enterprises have to invest on training with respect to quality and also have to invest in expertise and knowledge about ISO quality management systems. Also they have to expand their operational markets by food industry enterprises in Albania will results in higher attitude towards willingness to invest on ISO quality management systems.

If the companies want to operate in national markets (high competition level) it is a good choice to do a benchmark analysis and if the enterprises in the food industry want to operate in high competitive markets the have to focus on after sales services and on product delivery. Also they must apply client technical specification, compile inter-operational specifications and have a good collaboration between sectors in their organization, in order to enter in high competitive markets.

References

A Legal-Psychological Approach to Understanding Online Attitudes and Behaviours

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Abstract

This paper seeks to combine insights from two distinct disciplinary fields, Law and Psychology, in order to develop an integrated understanding of the relationship between attitudes to, and the regulation of, online technologies. Specifically, this paper focuses on concerns about the right to privacy that are raised because of the development of new technologies. One of the legal responses to this concern has been a new EU Directive on Privacy and Electronic Communication, which requires, amongst other measures, that websites obtain the informed consent of users to the use of tracking devices ('cookies'). This study seeks to test how the application of Law, and in particular of this Directive, is affecting individuals' attitudes and behaviour when online. Given that both the manner of website compliance with the Directive and the efficacy of the measures introduced have been questioned, an empirical approach of the effectiveness of these measures seems necessary. With this purpose, university students were invited to participate in an online experiment, which was conducted to evaluate the impact of different approaches to compliance with the new Directive on users' online attitudes and behaviours. The effect of making users more aware of warnings about cookies' use was also tested. Results allow for an inter-disciplinary analysis of the types of measure which may be more effective in protecting individuals' right to privacy when online.

1. Introduction

This study was conducted as part of a larger research project which seeks to investigate the relationship between legal regulation of online technologies and the way in which those technologies are used by individuals. The project is funded by the Irish Research Council for Humanities and Social Sciences.

The specific focus of this study was the recently introduced European Union Directive 2009/136/EC on universal service and users' rights relating to electronic communications networks and services. More commonly known as the 'Cookies Directive', this measure was intended to provide an enhanced level of legal protection for users of online technologies.

In particular, the Directive aimed to improve respect for the privacy of users by obliging technology providers to obtain consent from the user before storing the users' information, or gaining access to information already stored.

There are a number of reasons why the Directive provided a suitable subject for this type of study. One of the challenges with research of this sort is determining the relationship between legal regulation and the attitudes or actions of users. The fact that the Directive was recently introduced provided an opportunity to assess whether the changes to the law may have had any discernible impact on users. This was particularly so given that the Directive required changes to be introduced to a pre-exiting approach to data collection with which most users may have been (even unwittingly) familiar.

More generally, the Directive is also suitable subject for psycho-legal research because of the importance it attaches to the concept of informed consent. It requires technology providers to obtain consent after having provided clear and comprehensive information. This emphasis on informed consent reflects a conception of privacy as a means of facilitating the autonomous actions of individuals (Carolan & Delany, 2008; Rossler, 2004). However, this raises questions concerning what constitutes informed consent, what type of information is necessary to enable consent to be truly informed and, more generally, whether the law is capable of securing a situation in which users can be said to have provided informed consent to all consequences of their actions.

2. Cookies and the Cookies Directive

A cookie is a small data file which is stored on the computer of the individual user. Cookies take a variety of forms and
can be used for a variety of purposes. 

Some, such as authentication or analytics cookies, assist in the operation of an individual website. An authentication cookie might, for example, allow a website to verify a user’s account or to recognise and remember a returning user. An analytic cookie may allow the operator of a website to identify patterns in user behaviour and optimise the design or layout of the site as a result.

Others, however, are designed to facilitate behavioural advertising by collating information on an individual’s internet use with a view to allowing for more targeted advertising based on the user’s browsing habits.

These cookies may be operated by the site that a user is visiting at the time (‘first party’) or may be operated by a third party. Third party cookies are frequently ‘persistent cookies’ rather than ‘session cookies’ in that they do not expire when a person leaves one website but rather track the user across multiple websites.

This latter category of third party persistent cookies are most commonly used for advertising purposes. They are also the form of cookie that tends to give rise to the greatest privacy concerns. The ability to monitor and record user behaviour is one which could potentially imperil the privacy of the user, whether by disclosing private information to a third party or, more generally, by allowing the construction of a comprehensive profile of that person without their knowledge or consent.

These privacy concerns led to the introduction of a Directive in 2002 to regulate the use of cookies. The Directive accepted that cookies, along with other tracking technologies, could have legitimate purposes but articulated a concern that the use of such devices “without [users] knowledge in order to gain access to information, to store hidden information or to trace the activities of the user … may seriously intrude upon the privacy of … users”. (Recital 24). The solution was to allow the “use of such devices … only for legitimate purposes, with the knowledge of the users concerned”. Specifically, Article 5 of the Directive obliged operators to inform individuals about the use of tracking technologies and to offer them the ability to opt-out.

The 2009 Directive sought to further protect the privacy of users by replacing this opt-out system with an opt-in one. Article 5 (3) now provides that:

Member States shall ensure that the storing of information, or the gaining of access to information already stored, in the terminal equipment of a subscriber or user is only allowed on condition that the subscriber or user concerned has given his or her consent, having been provided with clear and comprehensive information, in accordance with Directive 95/46/EC, inter alia, about the purposes of the processing.

This more rigorous regime was justified on the basis that, while information might be stored for some valid purposes, it could also be used for other purposes involving “unwarranted intrusion into the private sphere”. The Directive thus proclaimed that

It is therefore of paramount importance that users be provided with clear and comprehensive information when engaging in any activity which could result in such storage or gaining of access. The methods of providing information and offering the right to refuse should be as user-friendly as possible. (Recital 66).

2.1 Information and consent: what do these concepts mean under the Directive?

It is clear from the reference to user-friendliness that the Directive is intended to facilitate the effective and informed exercise by an individual of their entitlement to decide whether or not to opt-in to the technology in question. However, this concern with user-friendliness also speaks to one of the difficulties with a legal approach to technology regulation which is premised on consent, namely whether it is realistic to expect that individuals engaged in casual activities can be given sufficiently comprehensive or detailed information in the course of those activities to enable them to provide truly informed consent. In addition, psychological studies have indicated that “the relationship between consumers’ privacy concerns and actual behaviour is neither straightforward nor has any link been established incontrovertibly” (Joinson, Reips, Buchanan, & Paine-Schofield, 2010, p. 3). Furthermore, research has suggested that online privacy concerns may be influenced by multiple factors including trust, risk taking, self-efficacy, personality factors, and so on (e.g., Fogel & Nehmad, 2009; Joinson et al., 2010; Junglas, Johnson, & Spitzmüller, 2008; Yao, Rice, & Wallis, 2007). Therefore, it seems essential to also consider psychological research in order to test the effective application of legal regulations.

The question of the ability of users’ to use information provided to make informed choices is particularly important because of the lack of detail provided in the Directive about methods of compliance. Article 5, as set out above, simply requires that consent be obtained following the provision of clear and comprehensive information. The Directive provides little, if any, clarity as to what constitutes ‘clear and comprehensive’ information or when consent will be found. This has
led to substantial differences in methods of implementation both across Member States (Rittweger, Krone and Wendler, 2011) and individual websites. It is unknown whether these different methods have a different impact on individuals’ online interaction. For that reason, this study aimed to compare the effect of different methods of implementation on users’ attitudes and behaviours.

Some additional guidance was provided by the publication by the Article 29 Working Party in 2011 of an Opinion on consent. The Working Party comprises representatives of national and EU data protection authorities and, although independent, has an advisory role under European legislation. In its report, it expressed the view that consent to the processing of personal data will be valid were it is freely given, specific and fully informed. Consent must also be sought in advance of any processing. Furthermore:

The need for consent to be ‘informed’ translates into two additional requirements. First, the way in which the information is given must ensure the use of appropriate language so that data subjects understand what they are consenting to and for what purposes. This is contextual. The use of overly complicated legal or technical jargon would not meet the requirements of the law. Second, the information provided to users should be clear and sufficiently conspicuous so that users cannot overlook it. The information must be provided directly to individuals. It is not enough for it to be merely available somewhere.

Taken cumulatively, this suggests that the new Cookies Directive assumes that (i) requiring the provision of consent permits persons to engage in privacy-protective behaviour; (ii) the clarity and saliency of information has a positive impact on the ability of persons to engage in privacy-protective behaviour; and (iii) requiring the provision of information and obtaining of consent in advance will have a positive impact on the possibility of persons exercising greater control over the disclosure of information. These assumptions are, in part, tested in this study.

However, as stated before, the methods used by websites to inform internet users about their use of cookies do not always seem to meet with the Directive’s requirement of informed consent. In fact, in a general review of multiple websites, the most common approach to the provision of information about their use of cookies was to include a general warning when the site is visited. Some other sites did not even include such. Moreover, it was difficult to identify websites which both clearly inform individuals about their use of cookies and then enable them to make an informed and autonomous choice about whether or not to permit access to their information. Even websites which informed about their cookie policy typically provided users with a binary choice between acceptance of the policy or non-use of the site.

The aim of the study was to preliminarily investigate to what extent if any, three different methods of implementation of the Cookies Directive affect users’ online interaction. From a legal perspective, the primary objective of the study was to examine the efficacy of the rules introduced by the Directive in encouraging persons to exercise greater individual control over the disclosure of potentially private information. From a psychological perspective, the primary objective of the study was to examine the effects of the EU’s so-called Cookies Directive on individuals’ online attitudes and behaviours. Specifically, this study evaluated individuals’ behavioural and attitudinal intentions after visiting a website. In order to compare different approaches, we selected three websites which have implemented the Directive to a different extent. These were a website which used a message to inform about the use of cookies and allowed the individual the choice of changing the website’s cookies settings (Website A); a website which used a message to inform users about its cookie policy but which gave no option to change or amend the website’s cookie policy (Website B); and a third one which provided no specific information (Website C).

Due to the relationship reported between these two variables in online research (e.g., Joinson et al., 2010), we chose the willingness to disclose personal information as the behavioural measure and on the trust in the website as the attitudinal one. We also considered the possible effect of these different methods in light of other psychological variables involved in the online context, that is, online privacy concerns, privacy-related behaviour and internet self-efficacy. Additionally, the study also sought to explore the effect of advance warnings about the use of cookies on users’ online behaviours and attitudes. For that reasons, saliency was included as a variable by asking users before visiting the website to pay attention to any message about cookies which might appear.

Considering the characteristics of the three different websites, we hypothesized that when websites allow internet users to choose their cookie settings, they would trust and be more willing to disclose than when they are only informed about the use of cookies. However, it was also expected that when users are only informed about the use of cookies, there would be no differences on trust or willingness to disclose when compared with websites that take no specific steps to comply with the Directive at all. We aimed to explore the effect of the saliency about cookies information as well as the impact on the remaining variables of interest, so there were no specific predictions concerning them.
3. Method

Participants. Sixty participants were considered for this preliminary study, where 43 of them were females (71.7%) and 17 males (28.3%). All participants were UCD School of Law’s students, who voluntarily and anonymously responded an online study. The mean age of the sample was 23.32 years (SD = 6.18). In relation to their internet experience, 95% of participants reported a daily use of the internet. The mean number of years being using the internet was 10.33 years (range 5-20 years, SD = 3.12).

Instruments. The instruments considered in this study were the following:
- Trust measure (McKnight, Choudhury, and Kacmar, 2002). This is a 10-items measure, which assesses trusting beliefs (items 1-6) and structural assurance (items 7-10). Items were adapted to fit the objectives of the study. An example of items was “This website is sincere and genuine”. Responses were made on a 7-point Likert-type scale, from Disagree strongly to Agree strongly.
- Disclosure measure (Rifon, LaRose, and Choi, 2005). This 10-items scale was adapted to measure the willingness to disclose on the website objective information, such as name, e-mail address or birth date. Six more additional items were included to assess the willingness to disclose other personal information, such as thoughts, emotions, photographs or current location. Two subscales were established considering the disclosure of objective information (items 1-10, 15-16) and the disclosure of subjective information (items 11-14) Participants were instructed to answer “How likely is it that you will disclose the following information on this website if it would ask you to do so?” The final 16-items scale was presented in a 5-point scale, from Not at all likely to Completely likely.
- Privacy-related attitudes scale (Buchanan, Paine, Joinson, and Reips, 2007). This 16-items scale assesses privacy concerns regarding online privacy attitudes (e.g., “Are you concerned about online identity theft?”). Responses were made on a 5-point scale from Not at all to Very much.
- Privacy-related behaviours scale (Buchanan et al., 2007). This is a 12-items scale which measures general and online privacy behaviour (e.g., “Do you clear your browser history regularly?”). It presents a 5-point scale from Never to Always.
- Internet Self-efficacy Survey (Kao, Wu, and Tsai, 2011). This is a 14-items scale, which measures perceived confidence and self-evaluation toward the utilization of the Internet. Some items were also adapted to fit the objectives of the study. An example of items was “I feel confident of using a Web browser like “Internet Explorer”, ‘Firefox’, ‘Safari’ or ‘Chrome’”. Responses were made on a 7-point scale, from Strongly confident to Strongly unconfident.

Design and procedure. A 3 (Method of implementation of the Directive: Website A vs Website B vs Website C) x 2 (Cookies use saliency: salient vs. non-salient) between-subject factorial design was used in this online experiment. It was sought that all sites were related with the same topic to avoid any influence on this respect. It was also aimed that, although a lack of familiarity would not be ensured, the sites were related to another country. For these reasons, three telecommunications companies based in the UK were selected (see Figures 1-3).

In relation to the saliency of cookies use, some participants received the following instruction before browsing the website “Please pay attention to any message about cookies that appears before you start browsing”.

Figure 1. Information provided by website A about their use of cookies.
Participants were invited by e-mail to participate in the study and were randomly assigned to one of each 6 experimental conditions. Once informed consent was agreed, they were presented with the general instructions of the study and asked to complete questions regarding their demographic data and use of new technologies. Then, they were asked to browse for 2 minutes the website assigned. As stated before, approximately half of participants were also instructed to pay attention to any messages about cookies. Participants were asked to come back to the online survey after their visit to the website, and complete the remaining instruments.

4. Results

Firstly, descriptive analyses were performed to examine the mean and standard deviation of each experimental condition on every dependent variable (see Table 1).

Secondly, a two-way ANOVA was performed to test the effect of the different approaches and of the saliency of the information about cookies on participants’ attitudes and behaviours. In relation to the measures which assessed individuals’ reactions toward the website just visited, results showed no significant differences on website trust or willingness to disclose personal information amongst the conditions, ps > .05. When the subscales of that measures where considered, only marginal differences were found in the disclosure measure. Specifically, there was a marginally significant main effect of the method of implementation on the disclosure of objective information, $F(2, 54) = 2.83$, $p = .068$, $\eta^2 = .095$, indicating a trend for higher disclosure in participants who visited Website A. There was also a marginally significant effect of the saliency condition on the disclosure of subjective information, $F(1, 54) = 2.99$, $p = .089$, $\eta^2 = .053$, which indicated a trend for lower disclosure in participants to whom the information about cookies use was made salient.

With regard to the remaining measures, results showed a main effect of the method of implementation on privacy-related attitudes, $F(2, 54) = 3.66$, $p = .032$, $\eta^2 = .119$, and on internet self-efficacy, $F(2, 54) = 7.86$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .225$. According to pairwise comparisons, participants who visited Website C showed a higher level of online privacy concerns ($M_{estimated} = 3.41$) than those who visited Website A ($M_{estimated} = 2.44$), $p = .027$. Regarding internet self-efficacy, it was found that participants who visited Website A reported higher levels of confidence using the internet ($M_{estimated} = 1.56$), than participants who visited Website B ($M_{estimated} = 2.82$) and Website C ($M_{estimated} = 2.84$), $p = .002$ and $p = .001$ respectively.
Table 1: Means (and Standard Deviations) of the dependent variables as a function of the method of implementation of the Cookies Directive and the saliency of the information about cookies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental condition</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean 1 (SD)</th>
<th>Mean 2 (SD)</th>
<th>Mean 3 (SD)</th>
<th>Mean 4 (SD)</th>
<th>Mean 5 (SD)</th>
<th>Mean 6 (SD)</th>
<th>Mean 7 (SD)</th>
<th>Mean 8 (SD)</th>
<th>Mean 9 (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Website A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salient</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.17 (1.5)</td>
<td>3.75 (2.16)</td>
<td>2.25 (1.03)</td>
<td>2.53 (1.14)</td>
<td>1.42 (0.72)</td>
<td>2.37 (0.88)</td>
<td>2.81 (0.38)</td>
<td>1.4 (0.35)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not salient</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.41 (1.14)</td>
<td>4.5 (1.01)</td>
<td>2.2 (0.78)</td>
<td>2.29 (0.83)</td>
<td>1.94 (1.04)</td>
<td>2.5 (0.65)</td>
<td>2.81 (0.54)</td>
<td>1.72 (0.42)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.35 (1.18)</td>
<td>4.31 (1.07)</td>
<td>2.21 (0.8)</td>
<td>2.35 (0.87)</td>
<td>1.81 (0.97)</td>
<td>2.47 (0.67)</td>
<td>2.81 (0.53)</td>
<td>1.64 (0.42)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salient</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.52 (1.18)</td>
<td>3.9 (1.19)</td>
<td>1.76 (0.62)</td>
<td>1.92 (0.76)</td>
<td>1.25 (0.41)</td>
<td>3.22 (0.89)</td>
<td>3.12 (0.77)</td>
<td>3.01 (1.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not salient</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.53 (0.95)</td>
<td>3.48 (0.91)</td>
<td>1.67 (0.65)</td>
<td>1.64 (0.56)</td>
<td>1.75 (1.07)</td>
<td>3.13 (1.05)</td>
<td>3.22 (0.6)</td>
<td>2.63 (1.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.52 (1.04)</td>
<td>3.68 (1.02)</td>
<td>1.71 (0.62)</td>
<td>1.78 (0.66)</td>
<td>1.51 (0.96)</td>
<td>3.17 (0.67)</td>
<td>3.17 (1.11)</td>
<td>2.81 (0.3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salient</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.61 (0.78)</td>
<td>3.77 (0.8)</td>
<td>1.76 (0.53)</td>
<td>1.81 (0.51)</td>
<td>1.6 (0.88)</td>
<td>3.72 (1.04)</td>
<td>3.29 (0.43)</td>
<td>2.9 (0.83)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not salient</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.92 (0.68)</td>
<td>4.19 (0.73)</td>
<td>1.91 (0.76)</td>
<td>1.87 (0.71)</td>
<td>2.02 (1.15)</td>
<td>3.1 (0.86)</td>
<td>2.9 (0.66)</td>
<td>2.78 (0.78)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.75 (0.74)</td>
<td>3.95 (0.77)</td>
<td>1.82 (0.63)</td>
<td>1.84 (0.59)</td>
<td>1.79 (1.02)</td>
<td>3.44 (1.01)</td>
<td>3.11 (0.57)</td>
<td>2.85 (0.79)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salient</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.64 (0.98)</td>
<td>3.81 (1)</td>
<td>1.81 (0.62)</td>
<td>1.93 (0.69)</td>
<td>1.45 (0.73)</td>
<td>3.19 (1.03)</td>
<td>3.18 (0.59)</td>
<td>2.78 (0.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not salient</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.92 (0.97)</td>
<td>4.03 (0.92)</td>
<td>1.91 (0.74)</td>
<td>1.91 (0.73)</td>
<td>1.91 (1.06)</td>
<td>2.94 (0.91)</td>
<td>2.98 (0.62)</td>
<td>2.43 (0.93)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.79 (0.97)</td>
<td>3.93 (0.96)</td>
<td>1.86 (1.28)</td>
<td>1.92 (0.68)</td>
<td>1.7 (0.74)</td>
<td>3.15 (0.94)</td>
<td>3.07 (0.99)</td>
<td>2.59 (0.6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: 1 = Trust (total); 2 = Trusting beliefs; 3 = Structural assurance; 4 = Disclosure (total); 5 = Disclosure of objective information; 6 = Disclosure of subjective information; 7 = Privacy-related attitudes; 8 = Privacy-related behaviours; 9 = Internet Self-efficacy.

5. Discussion

The aim of the study was to conduct a preliminary examination and comparison of the effect of different methods of implementation of the EU Cookies Directive on participants’ attitudes and behaviour. Results showed no significant differences for users’ trust or disclosure under either the different approaches to compliance used, or the saliency of the information provided. This did not support our predictions.

From a legal point of view, this result suggests that the Cookies Directive may have limited, if any, impact on the attitudes or behaviour of users of online technology. Regardless of the approach to compliance adopted, users demonstrated similar patterns of trust in the website and willingness to disclose personal information. This raises questions over the value and efficacy of the requirements introduced by the Directive.

However, with the necessity for caution in interpreting results of what was a preliminary study, it might be anticipated that a future study with a bigger sample size could show that when individuals visit websites which clearly inform about their use of cookies and allow users to change its cookies settings, they would be more willing to trust and disclose information than when visiting websites that just inform about their cookies use. This was supported by the mean values and marginally significant effects found in this study. It also seems possible that there will not appear to be differences on trust or disclosure between websites which only use warnings and those who do not use them.

These expected results of future studies are partially supported by the differences found on privacy attitudes and internet self-efficacy. Participants who visited the Website A felt less concerned about online privacy than those who...
visited the Website C, and felt more confident about their internet use than participants from both groups. It is worth noting that these differences were found on the measures which assessed more malleable variables, such as attitudes (privacy concerns) and self-efficacy, but not when individuals were reporting their own behaviour. These results undoubtedly call for future investigations which explore these effects in greater depth and detail.

Such future investigations would also have value in assessing the efficacy of the Directive, and in considering how legal and regulatory authorities ought to interpret the concepts of “clear and comprehensive information” and “consent” in the Directive. More generally, such investigations may also allow comparisons to be drawn between the level of knowledge of cookies amongst users since the introduction of the Directive, as compared with the levels of knowledge demonstrated in surveys conducted prior to its introduction.

Although the aim of this study was to provide preliminary results on the topic, some limitations should be indicated. First of all, the sample size does not allow yet providing decisive conclusions about the results. Secondly, the sample was comprised only by Law students, which reduces the generalization of results. While students are one of the largest internet users segment (Baek and Morimoto, 2012) and then their participation in online research can be appropriate, our sample was homogeneous regarding the participants’ background (only Law students) and unbalanced in relation to participants’ sex (near to 72% were females). As stated before, it is our purpose to enhance the number of participants in future studies as well as to gather a more heterogeneous and sex-balanced sample which may, presumably, lead to even more relevant implications about the influence of online legal regulation on individuals’ online interaction.

References

Measuring the Immeasurable! An Overview of Stress & Strain Measuring Instruments

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Abstract

Measurement of stress has been a subject of interest for many researchers and an extensive amount of literature has been devoted to this topic however despite the popularity of "stress" as a research topic, researchers still do not agree on a common definition of this controversial subject (Rees & Redfern, 2000). According to Person-Environment fit (PE-Fit) theory (French & Kahn, 1962; French et al., 1974), stress and strain at job comes into action from the interaction of individual with environment and particularly when job challenges pose a threat to individual which ends up in incompatible PE-Fit, leading to stress related physical and psychological strains (Edwards & Cooper, 1990, French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982). PE-Fit and Demand-Control (Karasek, 1979) models developed to explain the job stress and strain have guided the construction of most measures of occupational stress (Vagg & Spielberger, 1998). This article in particular aims to discuss few of the most important stress and burnout measurement instruments designed so far and intend to offer recommendations regarding instrument selection. Furthermore this article shall also discuss the pros and cons of stress assessment approaches in general, with few suggestions for improvement.

Keywords: Research, Environment, Stress, Strains, Measurement, Instruments.

1. Introduction

Though many studies have been conducted on stress, but this term still has divergence of opinions and is covered by a "mask of confusion" (Barkhuizen & Rothmann 2008, p. 321). Claude Bernard (1878), the renowned 19th century French physiologist was one of the most important researcher who studied stress as an adaptive response to external stimuli and introduced the principle of homeostasis, which is the process by which the normal balance of internal body environment is maintained (Kolb & Whishaw, 2001). Stress has been defined by a number of authors in a number of ways with reference to its sources, consequences and the resources to overcome the negative effects of it. The concept of stress has been introduced first by Hans Selye who studied the strains which arise when people struggle to adapt and cope because of changing environments. Selye (1956) originally presented stress as a general, nonspecific physiological response to any stressor. Later, he drew attention to the difference between eustress, or good stress, and distress, or bad stress. Various stress models and theories concluded stress as a process which includes the psychological and physiological attributes of the individual and the work environment around him/her and according to them this process is triggered by a stressor, where the individual’s perceptions matter the most and if s/he perceives it as a threat, it will further trigger to produce negative emotional responses (French & Kahn, 1962, Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Matteson, 1987; Topper, 2007). Further this process involves behavioral and physiological responses which ultimately lead to psychosomatic health problems (Cohen & Lazarus, 1979).

2. Static or dynamic nature of stress:

Previously it was thought that stress could be left where it had been observed or experienced (Klarreich, 1990) and stress is static in nature. In other words, it may not be considered as a dynamic process or it may not have impact over a period of time but just at a point of time (when it was experienced). For example, if employees feel highly stressed
because of personal/family problems at home, it has no impact on his job and they will feel comfortable at office, unless
they face some other job related stressor which they cannot overcome and vice versa. But later on, this was not found
true and stress was studied keeping in view its dynamic nature and as a “multivariate process involving inputs, outputs
and mediating activities of appraisal and coping” (Lazarus 1990, p. 4).

Matteson (1987, p. 157) mentions that an interactional definition of stress provides the most realistic view of
dynamic nature of stress and defines stress as “an adaptive response, mediated by individual characteristics, that is a
consequence of any external action or event that placed special demands upon a person”.

By some other researchers, occupational stress is defined as the perception of a discrepancy between
environmental demands (stressors) and individual capacities to fulfill these demands in the job (French et al., 1982;
Topper, 2007; Vermunt & Steensma, 2005). Many scholars agree that stress is a quality transaction which arises
between environmental demands and the individual and in this context they define stress as “a relationship between
the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering
his or her well-being” (Lazarus & Folkman 1984, p. 24).

3. Stress models: An overview

Researchers at different points of time have presented some models of stress, which guided in the construction of a
number of measures of occupational stress. These include Person-Environment Fit (PE-Fit; French & Kahn, 1962),
Demand–Control Model (Karasek, 1979), Transactional Process Model (Lazarus, 1966), Effort Reward Imbalance (ERI:

According to Person-Environment fit (PE-Fit) theory (French & Kahn, 1962; French et al., 1982), stress and strain
at job comes into action from the interaction of individual with environment and particularly when job challenges pose a
threat to individual which ends up in incompatible PE-Fit, leading to stress related physical and psychological strains
(Edwards & Cooper, 1990, French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982). PE-Fit theory presents a structure for evaluating and
forecasting how characteristics of the individual and the job environment jointly decide worker’s well-being which can
further be used to develop a model for preventive interventions. This model has been criticized because it gives
insufficient attention to specific stressors, is overwhelmed with some theoretical problems, and cannot differentiate
between different types of fit (Edwards & Cooper, 1990).

The two-dimensional Karasek’s (1979) Demand–Control model suggests that workers concurrently experiencing
high psychological demands (e.g. high workload, conflicting demands) and low decision/control latitude (e.g. having no
say in one’s job, no freedom, no skill development) are more likely to develop strains/health problems (Karasek 1979).
The Demand–Control model also highlights the positive effects of social support from supervisors and co-workers
(Johnson & Hall, 1988; Karasek et al., 1982).

Transactional Process Model of stress (Lazarus, 1966) presents stress as a process which involves a complex
transaction between individual and environment (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). He mentioned that stress consists of
three processes including primary appraisal (perceiving a threat), secondary appraisal (potential response to threat) and
coping (executing the response). In this model he appreciates the match/fit between person’s abilities and environmental
demands, but accentuate more importance towards how the individual “appraise” the stressful situation and later on how
s/he “react” to it i.e. coping. In a threatening situation, if the individual lacks the ability to cope appropriately, s/he will
experience strain.

Effort–Reward Imbalance (ERI: Siegrist, 1996) model of job stress (which is based both an interpersonal and a
transactional theory), states that employees exchange efforts for rewards. According to ERI model, when there is lack of
reciprocity between costs and gains, it results in emotional distress and strain. In other words employees are in a state of
inequity when high extrinsic efforts are coupled with low rewards and such individuals are thus more vulnerable to
emotional distress and strain.

Spielberger’s State–Trait Process (STP) model was based on PE-Fit and Transactional Process Models and
focuses on the perceived frequency of occurrence and severity of stressors including job pressures and lack of support
(Spielberger et al., 2002). Moreover the State–Trait Personality Inventory (STPI: Spielberger, 1979) measures
depression, anger, anxiety and provides essential information about a individual’s mental health with particular reference
to individual differences in personality traits, as individual differences define how they perceive and appraise the
stressors.

These models emphasize on the dynamic nature of stress being mediated/moderated by some other factors e.g.
coping resources and some individual characteristics which may change in the changing scenarios. However no definite
major demanding events are necessary to turn out job stress but the accumulation of trivial everyday problems can also ignite much stress Chamberlain & Zika (1990), provided there are no effective coping mechanisms to overcome it.


The concept of occupational stress has gained popularity during last 50 years a number of efforts have been made by researchers to design and develop stress measuring instruments (Vagg & Spielberger, 1998). These researchers approached to assess the stressful environments in different ways for example some focused on subjective and direct measures which include dimensions related to job, while others focused on general measures which do not link sources of stress to job (Shea & Cieri, 2011). Some researchers particularly focused on manifestations/symptoms of stress e.g. depression, anxiety, burnout etc and many others included all the above mentioned approaches in their assessment tools.

The term stress for a layman may seem simple but from a researcher point of view it is not as simple. “Stress is an imprecise and misused term and a system of measurement should provide a structure and language that facilitates the understanding of the subject” (Williams & Cooper 1998, p. 306). While designing an instrument for job stress, one must be clear with the other three classes of variables which should also be browsed and clearly understood. These include stressors, strains and health outcomes. Stressors are the environmental conditions or exposures which seem to impact on the well being of the individual. Strains involve the individual’s physiological and psychological reactions to such stressors and health outcomes are actually the negative health conditions of the individuals (Hurrell et al., 1998) who are exposed to stressors. Thus to assess stress, researchers design instruments to measure stressors, strains and the ultimate health outcomes.

The PE-Fit, Demand–Control, Transactional Process, Effort-Reward Imbalance and STP models have stimulated and guided the construction of a number of measures of occupational stress and strain. These measures are questionnaire based and focus on quantitative research methods for data collection and analysis. Few of these are presented below:

Table 1: List of stress measuring instruments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Related Tension Index</strong>: French and Kahn (1962) and Kahn et al., (1964)</td>
<td>Role conflict, work overload, role ambiguity, interpersonal relations and participation</td>
<td>Fifteen item questionnaire to measure the job stressors and it served as a starting point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)</strong>: Hackman and Oldham (1975)</td>
<td>Task significance, task variety, task identity, autonomy and feedback</td>
<td>One of the first organized efforts which was intended to diagnose motivation and productivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Characteristic Inventory (JCI)</strong>: Sims et al., (1976)</td>
<td>Job autonomy, job variety, tasks identity, relationships with others, friendship and feedback</td>
<td>It was developed based on the research by Hackman &amp; Lawler (1971),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work Environment Scale (WES)</strong>: Insel &amp; Moos (1974)</td>
<td>Interpersonal relationships, orientation toward personal growth, and organizational structure of the work setting</td>
<td>It was guided by PE-Fit theory and contained true-false items.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organizational Role Stress (ORS) Scale</strong>: Pareek (1983)</td>
<td>Inter role distance, role stagnation, role ambiguity, role expectation conflict, role erosion, role overload, role isolation, role inadequacy, resource inadequacy and self role distance.</td>
<td>Pareek (1982) expanded the framework of role stress developed the Your Feelings About Your Role (YFAYR) scale and later on developed ORS scale. Srivatav (2009) designed an updated version of it named as New Organizational Role Stress (NORS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived Stress Scale (PSS)</strong>: Cohen, Kamarck and Mermelstein (1983)</td>
<td>To determine the degree to which subjects find their lives unpredictable, overloaded and uncontrolled</td>
<td>A global measure of perceived stress with questions indicating low perceived stress and high perceived stress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Stress Scale</strong>: Parker and DeCotiis (1983)</td>
<td>Feelings of discomfort i.e. Stress and job anxiety. Motivation, satisfaction and organizational commitment.</td>
<td>Focused on organizational and job-related stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupational Stress Inventory (OSInv)</strong>: Osipow and Spokane (1980; 1987; 1998)</td>
<td>Role ambiguity, role insufficiency, physical environment and role overload, physical strain, coping skills, and social support.</td>
<td>They developed and revised the Occupational Stress Inventory (OSInv) to evaluate the major categories of PE-Fit variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measure</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Cited By</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stress Diagnostic Survey (SDS)</strong>: Ivancevich and Matteson’s (1980; 1976)</td>
<td>Type A-B behavior pattern and type A-B work environment. Personal stressors (non work version of SDS) and the job related stressors (work version of SDS)</td>
<td>Role stress (Kahn et al., 1964) and PE-Fit theory contributed in the development of SDS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Demand &amp; Control Measure</strong>: Jackson et al., (1993)</td>
<td>Timing control, method control, monitoring demand, production responsibility and problem solving</td>
<td>It covered job characteristics which were prominent to employee well being but for which there were no sufficient assessment measures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Content Questionnaire (JQC)</strong>: (Karasek et al., 1998).</td>
<td>Workload, role conflict, coworker and supervisor support, job decision latitude, depression, job dissatisfaction, depression and sleeping problems</td>
<td>Based on Karasek’s (1979) Demand–Control model, (JQC) was designed. It has been considered as the most widely used job stress assessment tool.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupational Stress Indicator (OSInd)</strong>: (Cooper, Sloan and Williams, 1988)</td>
<td>Job pressure control, job/performance pressure, Job satisfaction, coping, Type A personality and psychosomatic health problems</td>
<td>The PE-Fit, Demand–Control and Transactional Process models, guided the development and validation of the OSInd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Generic Job Stress Questionnaire (GJSQ)</strong>: (Hurrell and McLaney, 1988)</td>
<td>Job demands, job control, role conflicts, workload, skill utilisation, job dissatisfaction, psycho-somatic problems, self esteem and social support resources etc.</td>
<td>Influenced by PE-Fit and Demand–Control theory and developed at National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Stress Survey (JSS)</strong>: Spielberger, 1991.</td>
<td>Generic job related stressors commonly experienced by variety of occupations</td>
<td>Based on Police Stress Survey (PSS) and Spielberger’s STP model. Later on adapted for high school teachers and refined as JSS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pressure Management Indicator (PMI)</strong>: Williams and Cooper (1998)</td>
<td>Workload, career development, relationships, work-life balance, impatience, control, decision latitude, social support, problem focused coping, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, exhaustion, anxiety &amp; depression, physical symptoms, and resilience</td>
<td>PMI is revised version of Occupational Stress Indicator (OSInd) by Cooper, Sloan and Williams, 1988 and covers major dimensions of occupational stress in different domains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived Work Characteristics Survey</strong>: Haynes et al., (1999)</td>
<td>Autonomy &amp; control, role clarity, role conflict, peer support, work demands, influence over decisions, leader support, professional compromise and feedback.</td>
<td>Based on a large scale cross-sectional survey and the instruments contains items mostly based on previously developed scales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The General Nordic Questionnaire</strong>: (Lindstrom et al., 2000)</td>
<td>Job control, job demands, role expectations, leadership, organizational commitment, social interactions etc.</td>
<td>It can be used as a research method or as a survey feedback tool in organization development and change management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HSE(Health and Safety Executive) Indicator Tool</strong>: Cousins et al., (2004)</td>
<td>Demands, control, relationships, managerial and peer support, role and change</td>
<td>Based on research regarding “Management Standards’ on work-related stress in UK”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Swedish Demand-Control-Support Questionnaire (DCSQ)</strong>: Sanne et al., (2005).</td>
<td>Psychological demands, social support and decision latitude</td>
<td>DCSQ is a shorter and modified version of Karasek’s Job Content Questionnaire (JQC: Karasek et al., 1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ II)</strong>: Pejtersen et al., (2010)</td>
<td>Justice, trust, work family conflicts, social inclusiveness, stress, burnout, insomnia and depression</td>
<td>Revised version of COPSOQ I, tested on Danish employees.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research shows that strain is an outcome resulting from perceived stress (stressors) and higher level of strain results from higher level of stress coupled with lower coping resources (Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Osipow & Davis, 1988). To assess the strain factors as psychosomatic health problems, depression, anxiety and burnout, researchers have developed few self-report measures which have been extensively used in this domain. Beck et al., (1961), Zung (1965),
Goldberger (1978), Maslach et al., (1981) are few of the pioneers who developed indexes of depression, anxiety and burnout and these scales have been widely used by stress researchers.

Table 2: Instruments measuring psycho-somatic health and burnout.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and Authors</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cornell Medical Index:</strong> Brodman et al., (1951)</td>
<td>Physical and mental symptoms of stress.</td>
<td>One of the oldest and based on &quot;yes / no&quot; type simple questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Beck Depression Inventory (BDI):</strong> (Beck et al., 1961)</td>
<td>21 item multiple-choice self-report assessment tool for measuring the severity of depression</td>
<td>Revised versions of Beck Depression Inventory include BDI-1A and BDI-II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale:</strong> (Zung, 1965; 1986)</td>
<td>20 item survey tool to quantify the depressed status of an individual/patient</td>
<td>Measures psychological and somatic symptoms associated with depression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Health Questionnaire (GHQ):</strong> (Goldberger, 1978; Goldberg &amp; Williams 1988)</td>
<td>Physical stress symptoms, insomnia, anxiety and depression</td>
<td>Most widely used strain detector, available in short and long form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Four Dimensional Health Questionnaire (4DSQ):</strong> (Terluin et al., 2004)</td>
<td>General distress, depression, anxiety and somatization</td>
<td>Aimed to differentiate general stress and psychiatric symptoms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI):</strong> Maslach et al., (1981, 1986)</td>
<td>22 item survey tool to measure Emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment.</td>
<td>MBI is one of the most frequently used burnout instrument. The term was first introduced by Freudenberger (1974).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Burnout Measure (BM):</strong> Pines &amp; Aronson (1988)</td>
<td>21 item survey tool to measure physical, emotional and mental exhaustion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Limitations of the self-reported instruments of stress & strain:

Self reported measures of stress and strain have been subject to criticism based on few genuine grounds as mentioned below:

5.1 Subjective judgment:

Researchers argue that such instruments should be more objective rather than subjective but on the other hand such arguments have gone unheeded because it is not easy and sometimes not possible to obtain the objective measures of job stressors (Hurrell et al., 1998).

5.2 Severity, duration and frequency of stressors:

In the context of PE-fit theory, some researchers (e.g. Cox & Ferguson, 1994) argued that employees appraise their job environments not only in terms of existence of certain stressors but in parallel also on the basis of duration, frequency and severity of the stressors. Most of the stress assessment instruments mentioned above focus usually on frequency of occurrence of job stressors/challenges/demands.

5.3 Lengthy Questionnaires:

One of the major problems identified with most of the self reported measures of stress is that the questionnaires are usually lengthy, with repeated questions, multidimensional and intensity of the stressors are measured on the basis of “how often the stressor is encountered” (Vagg and Spielberger, 1998, p. 300). A typical questionnaire usually includes the various dimensions of stress e.g. stressors, coping, burnout, strains and health outcomes. Each dimension/scale has subscales and in addition many question pertaining to demographic information of the respondents constitute the first part of the questionnaire, while ultimately ends up in a lengthy questionnaire. Respondents highly overloaded with many roles may feel it difficult to browse and understand each item thoroughly and respond correctly. Thus there are ample chances that they may take it for granted, consider it as a burden and return it with inaccurate information.
5.4 Negative facets only:

One interesting point to ponder upon is that most of the stress measuring instruments focus on the negative facets of the job as predictors of health problems (Hurrell et al., 1998) whereas strains may result because of both reasons i.e. the presence of negative job features and the absence of positive attributes of job (Kanner, Kafry and Pines, 1978)

5.5 Global picture:

Most of the job-stress measuring instruments focus on the global picture and seek to measure stress based on the criteria which can be considered quite general rather than specific. As one size does not fit all and different jobs have different challenges/stressors so an instrument designed and tested on one set of respondents may not be suitable for the others whose job requirements are different. Moreover the items included in a more globalized questionnaire may be quite isolated from the actual job experience of the respondents (Hurrell et al., 1998). Even within same organizations e.g. a higher education institute, one can easily differentiate between the job demands of academic staff vs. non academic staff. A very well defined set of stress measuring instrument, with good internal consistency, factor loadings etc but specifically designed for academic staff cannot be considered suitable for the non academic staff.

5.6 21st century challenges:

The working environment in 21st century is quite different from what was ever before and it is very important for the stress researchers to incorporate the new challenges/stressors/work demands in their stress assessment tools. The cut throat international competition which paved the way for mergers and acquisitions, contractual and contingent workers, restructuring and downsizing, increased use of technology have changed the workplace challenges being faced by employees. Though few of the researchers address these challenges and come out with revised versions of their instruments but still many others (instruments) do not address such issues.

6. Discussion and Recommendations

To overcome the problem of subjectivity, it is suggested to use more objective measures of stress assessment rather than measuring respondent’s perceptions regarding the stressors prevailing in the job environment. One of such objective measure is “Observational Approach” (Elo & Vehvilaiienen, 1983). This approach is thought to be more objective because it does not depend on the worker’s perception of the job environment but on the observer’s ratings based on some standardized rating scales and procedures, sometimes coupled with interviews as well. However observational tools have been criticized based on some arguments as this method needs a lot of expertise and training (of the observer) to observe and record correctly. Moreover it is quite time consuming particularly if the sample size is large. Being objective, it seems appealing but results might be distorted based in the subject perceptions/interpretations of the observer if s/he is not trained enough to conduct such survey.

It is worthwhile to mention that self report measures of strain (e.g. GHQ, 4DHQ) are mostly based on subjective attribution of the individual and also lack the objectivity which may be incorrect. Results of most of these measures depend upon the respondents’ psychological tendency and personal ability to respond accurately. As most of the questions in these scales are quite personal, towards which the respondent may be get defensive and reluctant to reply with the exact answer (e.g. physical or mental health). Even when the anonymity is claimed as “guaranteed” by researchers, respondents sometimes may not feel comfortable to talk their heart out easily.

To overcome this issue, more sophisticated physiological measures of strain can be used which have been categorized based on cardiovascular variables and stress hormones. Some self report measures of strains (discussed above) also include the items pertaining to cardiovascular problems e.g. heart rate and blood pressure problems, but the physiological measures can give accurate results as these are not based on subjective perceptions of the respondents but highly sophisticated equipments and trained practitioners. The second category i.e. using stress hormones as measures of strain involves complex laboratory processes, and starts with collection of urine and/or blood samples of respondents. These samples are tested and results are derived based on secretions of stress hormones e.g. cortisol. There are some other stress hormones and the choice of hormone and technique selection depends on the type of study. Researchers have found positive relationships between subjective measures (self reports) and objective measures of
strain and suggested to use both measures in stress research however the physiological measures are quite complex and recommended only in special cases.

It is also recommended to design stress assessment measures which are specifically applicable for certain occupations with reference to different personality types (Ganster and Shaubroek, 1991; Ivancevich et al., 1982; Sharpely et al., 1995). For example job challenges of a banker are quite different from those of a doctor and similarly doctor’s job is quite different from that of a policeman, so how come one can use the same stress assessment instrument for this diverse group of occupations. Many researchers have thus designed different sets of questionnaires for different occupations, however in some cases they have designed some general scales and later on adapted to a particular group of occupations e.g. MBI (General Scale) & MBI (Educators Scale). Thus it is suggested that more customized instruments should be designed and/or existing instruments should be adapted based on the demands of the job and the organization. Even within same organization, different jobs/departments have different roles to play, different targets to achieve so “one size fit all” strategy should be avoided and more specific instruments should be used for surveys.

Keeping in view the importance of stressor-strain relationship and the measurement problems, stress researchers have proposed to use triangulation strategy (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1988), which is a combination of subjective and objective assessment tools. In triangulation, the researchers can use the cross sectional data acquired from different sources e.g. while measuring the health related strains one may get hold of record of sick leaves, visits to doctors, medicines frequently taken and in parallel use the self report measures e.g. GHQ or 4DSQ and other instruments if required according to the composition of the sample and nature of the study. The results can be further endorsed by individual interviews and observational measurement methods. The physiological measures of job strain can also be used on the same sample and be matched with the results of above mentioned instruments already used. Thus using a triangulation strategy, more useful conclusions and recommendations can be drawn based on the similar results obtained by different assessment tools. Triangulation strategy has its merits but its costly and time consuming.

In the context of the new challenges being faced by the workers, there is a dire need to revise the stress measuring instruments according to the challenging job requirements of the 21st century. Moreover the demographic changes are making the organizations much diverse than ever before, so such changes should also be kept under consideration while designing the new/revised instruments. Some non job related issues e.g. family problems, marital status, being away from home/town or expatriate status etc may also contribute directly or indirectly towards stress, so such factors should be studied as control variables and added in the questionnaires. Even some researchers suggest that non job-related (general) stress measures should be used rather than specific work-related measures e.g. Murphy and Hurrell (1987) called for the development of generic questionnaires to facilitate comparing stress levels in various job settings. However comprehensive assessment of occupational stress will consider taking into account the job conditions which produce job strain, how the stressors are perceived, appraised, and how the individuals react and cope (Vagg and Spielberger, 1998).

To overcome the issues of long scales which is quite time consuming for the respondents to respond, it is suggested to reduce these scales to short versions or develop a new scale (Shea & Cieri, 2011). But it needs a lot of efforts on the part of the researcher in developing the items and assessing the reliability and the validity.

While designing the instruments to assess relationships between stress and strain, researchers must take into consideration many other aspects (other than measurement) e.g. strong data analysis techniques (Cohen et al., 1995: Hurell et al., 1998). One of the most important technique is Structure Equation Modeling (SEM) which is a very general statistical modeling technique widely used in psychology, behavioral and social sciences (Hox & Bechger, 1999; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Many a times in behavioral and social sciences, researchers are interested in understanding the variables that cannot be directly observed (latent variables), and SEM is one of the widely used statistical methods used to address such issues (Schreiber et al., 2006). Researchers interested in stress surveys are advised to use not only the best suited measurement instruments but also the advanced statistical methods like SEM. Moreover in behavioral and social sciences it is always good to collect data at different points of time (longitudinal survey) rather than a cross sectional data/survey. Because of its merits, use of SEM for longitudinal studies in stress related research has been recommended by many researchers.

7. Conclusion

During the last 50 years a number of efforts have been made by researchers to design and develop stress measuring instruments. However none of these tools can be termed as perfect, as the stressors change from job to job, time to time, depending on the environment in which the individual is working and moreover the distinctive individual characteristics
8. Limitations & Scope

This article intended to discuss few of the important stress instruments designed so far and offer recommendations regarding instrument selection. It does not include any empirical study based on data collection /results but just discussed pros & cons of stress assessment approaches based on thorough literature review with a sole objective to present few suggestions for improvement. Future studies in this context should be aimed at addressing specific stressors with particular reference to nature of job and should be based on some empirical support. Because of limited time and space, this study did not discuss the latent structure, reliability and validity issues of the instruments mentioned (in Table 1 and 2). Moreover qualitative measures to assess stress and strains have not been taken into consideration in this study, which can be focused upon in forthcoming studies.

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Bank’s Rating a Need or Necessity in Albanian Banking System

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Abstract

Financial Transactions have increased and have become more complex over this 20 years. This paper examines the importance of credit ratings assigned to banks in Europe and the positive and negative impacts. We will also see Albanian Banking system over the last 5 years focusing on the risks it faces. The aim of this article is to analyze and identify the importance of Banks’ Rating. Actually, banks are the dominant sector within Albanian financial system, managing more than 95.5% of total financial assets. Although banks sometimes use internal models as a substitute for credit ratings for their credit assessments, the internal models themselves often tend to rely heavily on ratings for actual or methodological input. Investors’ reliance on credit ratings has increased over the past 30 years. Acquiring information is costly, particularly for fixed income investors, given collective action problems. Thus investors seek to outsource creditworthiness assessments to rating agencies. Finally we will see if there is a need of Banks Rating in Albanian’s Banks, the requirements of Basel III and the regulatory of the Bank of Albania.

Keywords: Credit rating, Rating agencies, Banking system.

1. The importance of Bank’s Rating

Compared to other corporations, banks pose a particular challenge for external rating agencies. Banks are inherently opaque and exposed to a multiplicity of risks. Bank business is characterized to a significant extent by asymmetries of information and actual(and potential) regulatory interventions. We may therefore consider that bank ratings provide a lower bound (or worst-case setting) for the quality of external ratings compared to other corporate ratings1. At the same time, banks’ central role in credit intermediation is important for efficient allocations of capital and risk, and thus for activity in the real economy. The collapse in credit supply during the financial crisis of 2008–09 led to a long-lasting reduction in the level of output relative to the pre-crisis trend2. Publicly funded recapitalization and guarantees on deposits and debt put pressure on the credibility of sovereigns’ signatures. These considerations compound the economic Importance of unbiased and efficient assessments of bank creditworthiness. The particular role of credit ratings in the financial system is enshrined in policy. From 1936 onwards, regulatory authorities in the United States have, in many instances, delegated oversight of the credit quality of banks’ portfolios to rating agencies3. For instance, in exchange for liquidity, central banks require a minimum quality of collateral, defined in many cases by reference to credit ratings. In the realm on prudential banking regulation, the Basel II accord increased regulatory reliance on credit ratings. Under this agreement, minimum capital levels are specified as a proportion of risk-weighted assets, where risk weights may be calculated using credit ratings. Yet compared with the unweighted leverage ratio, there is no evidence to suggest that the risk-weighted capital ratio is a superior predictor of bank failure during crisis periods4. Moreover, anecdotal evidence suggests that although large banks sometimes use internal models as a substitute for credit ratings for their credit assessments, the internal models themselves often tend to rely heavily on ratings for actual or methodological

1 Morgan, 2002
2 Reinhart and Rogoff, 2009; Campello et al, 2010
3 White, 2010
4 Mariathasan and Merrouche, 2012
input. The Basel III agreement expresses a broad intention to mitigate reliance on ratings of securitized loans, but introduces an additional role for credit ratings with respect to counterparty credit risk from over-the-counter derivatives.

The credit ratings of Moody’s, Standard and Poor’s, and Fitch play a key role in the pricing of credit risk. This role will be further expanded with implementation of the Basel-2 Accord, which requires rating estimations of bank partners' credit risk.

These ratings are especially important for banks in developing countries, since economic agents there do not have long experience with the market economy and so are not highly experienced in estimating risks. There are in fact few firms in these countries that have ratings by the international rating agencies. For example, at the end of 2007, only 84 of 1135 Russian banks had Moody’s ratings (about 120 had at least one rating by an inter-national rating agency).

In practice, such models could be used by banks (in implementing the Basel-2 IRB approach) and by bank supervision authorities (as part of an Early Warning System, EWS), especially in developing countries, where there are still many banks without ratings.

At present, it appears virtually certain that a reformed Accord will offer a ratings-based “risk-bucketing” system of one form or another. In such a system, banking book assets are grouped into “buckets,” which are presumed to be homogeneous. Associated with each bucket is a fixed capital charge per dollar of exposure. In the latest version of the Basel proposal for an Internal Ratings-Based (“IRB”) approach (Basel Committee on Bank Supervision 2001), the bucketing system is required to partition instruments by internal borrower rating; by loan type (e.g., sovereign vs. corporate vs. project finance); by one or more proxies for seniority/ collateral type, which determines loss severity in the event of default; and by maturity. More complex systems might further partition instruments by, for example, country and industry of borrower. Regardless of the sophistication of the bucketing scheme, capital charges are portfolio-invariant, i.e., the capital charge on a given instrument depends only on its own characteristics, and not the characteristics of the portfolio in which it is held. I take portfolio-invariance to be the essential property of ratings-based capital rules.

As envisaged in the Basel II framework: The term “rating system” comprises all of the methods, processes, controls, and data collection and IT systems that support the assessment of credit risk, the assignment of internal risk ratings, and the quantification of default and loss estimates.

2. Bank’s rating in Albania

Evidences shows that the costs of banking crises in terms of lost economic growth are higher than in industrial countries, and problems in a single bank have a high probability of turning into a systemic crisis. Indeed, in contrast with industrial countries, it is difficult to find episodes in emerging markets where the failure of an important bank has not been accompanied by a systemic crisis. Systemic failures in the financial system are typically complex and they differ one from the other. In order to understand the processes involved it is necessary to schematize and simplify, but extreme reductionism is misleading. As the causal mechanisms are not fully understood, it is unwise to rely on a classification by supposed cause. Instead, as is done with diseases which are not well understood, we can classify by the characteristic group of symptoms displayed - the syndrome.

Many banking system crises in developing countries seem endemic, displaying a recurrent pattern of distress with insolvency and illiquidity (usually traceable to pervasive government involvement) persisting for years. Other countries have experienced epidemics, sometimes involving macroeconomic collapses, sometimes not. Each of these categories shares some symptoms with the others, but a review of the characteristics of a large number of developing country cases suggests that the syndromes are distinctive. The search for warning signals and prevention mechanisms needs to take this into account.

Since Albania is classified as a developing country, it’s a necessity for Albanian banks assessing their performance. Till now Albanian Banks have never been experienced Bank’s Rating, and still remain a big challenge for them. Although some of the Banks have Internal methods for assessing their performance, these methods do not provide investors, depositors and Regulative Authorities with sufficient information. So it is in charge to Rating Agencies to inform all the above mentioned parties. Rating Agencies have showed that the most common indicators used by policymakers and rating agencies in assessing banks performance in developing markets can be divided in two categories: (a) the macroeconomic environment (including the political, legal, and judicial landscape) and (b) microeconomic factors as

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5 BCBS, 2010.
6 Honohan “Banking system failures In developing and transition countries: Diagnosis and prediction” 1997.
represented by bank-specific financial ratios. The main question we ask is: Should rating agencies and policymakers use similar bank financial ratios to those developed in industrial countries?

Indicators of bank strength can be summarized in five key variables. Together, these variables—capital adequacy, asset quality, management, earnings, and liquidity—are called the CAMEL system (or a variation of it), a system widely used by bank supervisors in industrial countries. Capital adequacy, asset quality, and liquidity are the three most important indicators.

In the case of banking supervisors, reports by the US Treasury indicate that this system has functioned relatively well. That capital adequacy the core ratio used by banking supervisors is also a key financial indicator used by credit rating agencies in emerging markets is stressed in the following statement by Moody’s: “The strength of capital and provisions is a more important element in the analysis of emerging market banks than is the case with banks in developed markets”. Traditional indicators work where two sets of conditions are met. The first set relates to the quality of data and the supervisory framework, and the second to the existence and efficiency of markets. Data quality, supervision and the existence of efficient markets remains a challenge for the Albanian banks. Having studied all the macroeconomic factors (political, legal, and juridical landscape, financial markets, interconnections between banking and insurance industries, monetary market, government borrowing from banks, financial derivatives) and micro factors, we stopped at the most important, namely the quality of data that is closely linked to risk accounting, provision for credit losses, possessive structure of banks in Albania, Operational Risk.

3. Accounting risk

It’s obviously that the account risk is high even though since 2009 banks report under IFRS. Without underestimating the positive achievements its necessary to underline these issues:

- Banks do not use homogeneous methods for identifying and managing toxic assets. We will try to see mechanism of clean and cost of toxic assets used by Albanian Banks.

- In all developed countries, including the U.S. banks recovery techniques for toxic assets remains the same, buying them from governments. Basically, the outstanding loans of banks’ portfolio return into government spending potency, which financially, means that their cost is distributed to taxpayers. Impact of acquisition from banks of some of their toxic assets or loans backed by subprime mortgages or complex derivatives is essentially, a transfer of financial risk from the banking system in fiscal system. However, buying these securities faces a major challenge - no one knows how to price them.

In Albania, expectation is the same, the problem of the cost of such an operation, whether it faces government liquidity or borrowing from it, remain serious challenge. In the U.S., the Treasury Department has hired experts to evaluate their pricing with methods which are mainly based on the discounted cash flow that actualize the future values in current values, but again, these estimates will be substantial margin assumptions for error.

Here appears the mutual impact of the Banking Industry Financial System which generates a dichotomy between monetary policy and fiscal policy. On the other hand, we ponder to understand that exposure to information asymmetry, prioritization, risk measurement and control of the ex-ante and ex-post is basically the key to communicating vessels between banks and fiscal structures. Receive generates aggregate credit to the Government [ie VAT from purchases on credit], but on the other hand, not settlement of loans, the cost of bad debt and derivatives related to all legal disputes with market collateral contracts and insurance guarantees reduce the bank’s assets, creating capital scarcity.

Motivated by the Basel III, the risk of Capital Adequacy in Banks is modeled as a function of risk and operational risk and further Operational Risk as proof of financial risk. Here we see the proposed site for Key Risk Indicators [KRI] to be calculated, reported, and analyzed by a systematic periodicity and uniformity.

The presence and quality of functioning of the Early Warning System [EWS] - Convergence/Divergence of IFRS and Basel III. EWS system serves to identify problems early in time, before they become larger and turn into losses that require additional cost in time, money, and human effort. The fact that the level rate of bad loans has grown up rapidly, argue and simultaneously alerts for the establishment of such a system:

As we see the percentage trend of bad loans, means that loans are not classified and reported correctly so financial statement are not true.

7 Moddys 1999
8 Liliana Rojas-Suarez “Rating Banks in Emerging Markets”
9 Hoti Ilir 2012
Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% of bad loans</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012(^{10})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Banks 3 times</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
<td>22.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non banks (^{11})</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
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4. Financial Reports Quality Portfolio

Quality indicators of risk in the portfolio are the first priority list of reporting because of their importance in banking institutions. To avoid misinterpretations, no indication should be assessed in isolation from the others. For example, a portfolio risk assessment should always include write off credit report and credit report rescheduling.

Portfolio at Risk (portfolio loans)

For internal financial management, it is suggested appropriate indicators percentage of delinquent portfolio to total portfolio. For example, portfolio at risk over 10 days for weekly loan repayment; portfolio at risk over 30 days for monthly loan repayment. If using a mixture of frequencies settlement, termination for each 30-day results as the most appropriate option.

It is recommended a 90-day outage for external reporting, because the result is generally more representative for the long-term loss.

To rescheduled loans, portfolio at risk should be assessed individually and interpreted carefully than done for a standard portfolio. Loans that have fallen out of status once before as overdue loans, credit risks are greater than the whole portfolio.

It is suggested that the evaluation report should use the bank indicator of portfolio at risk and no indication of the portfolio in arrears. This is because the portfolio in arrears concentrates more on settlements that are overdue than on the entire loan balance.

Portfolio in arrears should not be used because it provides no benefit to other indicators of portfolio and risk underestimates the problems of loan repayment.

5. Provision for credit losses (loans Write-Off)

All banking institutions must build up realistic and accurate reserves for loan losses, reflecting both the size of the portfolio and the costs for them. Any failure of loan in a year, cost burdens for business next year. Reserve analysis should be undertaken on a monthly basis if the system allows it. To determine the most appropriate provisions, there is a wide variety of techniques:

![Chart 1. Provision for loan losses increases while the age of loans increases.](source: National sources, Raiffeisen RESEARCH)

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\(^{10}\) Albanian Banks Association (2012 unaudited)

\(^{11}\) MixMarket (www.mixmarket.org)
C8 Report (Report on the age structure of loans and reserve calculation) summarizes information for PAR(portfolio at risk), and enables the creation of an appropriate reserve based on this information. Reserve is calculated by multiplying balance at risk for each age category with a percentage that reflects the possibility of losing credit.

Table 2

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<tr>
<th>Emërtimi</th>
<th>Uncollected percentage</th>
<th>Calculated losses</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standard [without past due]</td>
<td>51 000</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-30 days past due</td>
<td>29 000</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-90 days past due</td>
<td>15 000</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;90 days past due</td>
<td>5 000</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL (31/12)</td>
<td>100 000</td>
<td>8.55%</td>
</tr>
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</table>

If there is a surplus reserve account for 7500, it should account for the difference revised (1550 = 8550-7500) by an increase in reserves. Bank of Albania score determines the correction of the reserve account each month, so in the end these are almost no difference.

Percentages for each group / segment of loans are placed above and constantly reviewed by the supervisor (BOA).

If the supervisory authorities do not specify what percentage should be applied to each group for provisioning time delay for settlement, BANK department risk itself or a specialized institution outside may suggest levels of rates based on historical experience of a group of loans.

4. Undetected risk, software, procedures, systems( the importance of Internal audit)
5. Banks in Albania do not report capital as per Basel II requirements.
6. Capital structure of banks in Albania is almost entirely foreign owned. The high level of capital belonging to foreign residents creates a moral hazard and Albania has the highest level of this indicator in the region. If we compare with analog developing countries, such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Romania, Bulgaria and Russia, Albania banking system totally alien to their level of uncontested. On the other hand as the two banks [RBAL and BKT] are funding 65% of the budget deficit, creates a dependency of sovereign debt with non local creditors. Some authors consider these investments, indicators of attraction of host country [Albania], but it does not mean that the attraction of investment banks turns into sustainability investments and on the other hand, the main reason of their investment is the positive differential in the rate of profit and gradients risk. In fact, the weight of bad loans to GDP has increased by an average pace for over 15% for the last 3 years. This indicator of long-term sustainability affects banks totally foreign.

7. Performance of bad loans increased by 5% cumulative average by 2008, to 23% in 2012 is associated with increased number of clients with problems of the financial year. This gives the impression that banks have higher efficiency in processing files every year before 2012 because the number of files loans is declining before 2012.

Table 3

<table>
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<tr>
<th>10% of files 2008</th>
<th>18% of files 2009</th>
<th>22% of files 2010</th>
<th>25% of files 2011</th>
<th>20% of files 2012</th>
</tr>
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</table>

We note that impression is because paradox that occurs while on the job experience grows, increase the number of files with problems. The second argument from the following scenario.

8. During this period Banks have experienced a high turnover of staff and especially in credit risk department. This was more evident during 2008-2011 and declined in 2012. Averaged in each bank, each credit employee has an experience with one or two other banks.

Table 4

| 33% staff turnover | 26% staff turnover | 24% staff turnover | 24% staff turnover | 18% staff turnover |
From a survey conducted, the highest level of staff turnover has been higher initially to FEFAD to RBAL from NCB to RBAL from RBAL to Emporiki and ProCredit, etc. Typical for example, departures from NCB to RBAL from NCB to Intesa, the NCB to NBG. While the staff at NCB entries for 2008-2009 are mainly from universities.

9. For each new unit staff from universities, has increased the growth of the refusal of files, especially for RBAL and NCB.

Table 5

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<th>Rejection Rate</th>
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<tr>
<td>13% rejection rate from firms applications</td>
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<tr>
<td>19% rejection rate from firms applications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23% rejection rate from firms applications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32% rejection rate from firms applications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36% rejection rate from firms applications</td>
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If we compare these two banks we notice that RBAL is characterized by high turnover of senior staff, and NCB middle staff. 75-80% of the movements are focused in two departments [Credit and Risk], 15% of the movements are for front office staff and only 1% of the movements are for human resources departments.

On the other hand the quality of refusals of applications for loans is hit, because maintaining a disbelief attitude from 13% to 36% of files (around 3 times more) means that employees are experiencing a high degree of subjective uncertainty that is based on the type of false positive errors, then when can reject a loan application that should have been approved. This attitude comes out of average risk a bank should take, creating the type of risk avers banker that works ‘to be in’. While banks have invested in training for operational risk [after 2010], for credit products and while the quality of accounting information has increased again. That is., That soon the bank will report the basic conflict-agent, or shareholding dispute between the parties seeking profit maximization and bank managers who seek to maximize their wage or their remuneration. This conflict also noted the fact that banks have reduced efforts to limit their investment in risk and are considered to invest most of the portfolio in Treasury Bills that are risk-free.

This scenario raises the question, do shareholders bank need a staff bank to invest in treasury bills, while they can do it themself?

10. Viewing 4-lending standards, individual files are rejected by almost two times lower than the rejected records from businesses. It argues that the preceding scenario, ie, that banks perceive more risk to businesses rather than individuals. According to the doctrine of the structure of risk based on term loan (term structure of risk) bankers tend to adopt to 1.6 times the short-term loans (<1 year) than long term loans of 1-5 years, but on the other hand approve the loan easier ie. long term, for the home over 10 years.

Table 6

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<th>Refusal Rate</th>
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<tr>
<td>11% refusal rate for applications from PI</td>
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<tr>
<td>12% refusal rate for applications from PI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14% refusal rate for applications from PI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12% refusal rate for applications from PI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14% refusal rate for applications from PI</td>
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This forms a moral hazard because the credit employee is experiencing permanent stay in the bank, but when he finds himself within the bank, generating unit risk (risk originating unit) he adopts the term loan very easily, because he sees himself transferred from the bank, while not approve medium-term loans because he feels the responsibility of the risk of his career. And this is the fundamental problem-agent again.

Some banks like NCB, RBAL, etc. have reacted by revising labor contracts. The reason that RBAL has ceased or remove senior staff relates to the fact that is the bank that has suffered severe losses in -eg., client unit, Norga beers for 10 million Euros. The same is seen in the smaller banks eg, to Veneto Bank, NBG, where the level of judicial editing files has the highest level.

11. Referring to the chart, we see that the severity of bank lending standards begins in 2009, when banks reflected the structure of accounting information in credit risk. In this year occurred the greatest migrations from 'standard loans' in credit 'sub-standard' and 'doubtful', but in subsequent years the migration of loans from credit flow prevails in 'suspicious' on loan 'loser' and following the write off or sell the collateral. In parallel with the banking conservatism tightening lending standards, has been a lowering of demand for loans. This creates what is known as 'blocking of credit' (Credit Crunch).

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This scenario issue weaknesses risk department, which does not take into account diversification through countercycle, he has done the opposite, has tightened standards for credit when demand falls. This again limits the returns to all employees' responsible departments.

6. Conclusions

1. MF mandatory requirement to translate the existing framework of banking accounting under International Financial Reporting Standards, imposes deep examination of the quality of banks' loan portfolio for the presence of 'damaged credit'.

2. It is necessary for Banks the use of homogeneous methods for identifying and managing toxic assets.

3. It is well recognized that traditional bank ratios such as the capital-to-risk-weighted asset ratio are useless indicators of bank strength when accounting standards and reporting systems are inappropriate, nonperforming loans are classified inadequately, and reserves against credit losses are underprovisioned. In addition, a deficient legal framework, unable to enforce supervisory actions when a bank’s performance is deemed faulty, seriously undermines the effectiveness of bank ratios.

4. Data quality, supervision and the existence of efficient markets remains a challenge for the Albanian banks.

5. Bank ratings is a necessity for Albanian Banking Industry, even though the difficulties that rating agencies will face, starting by the deficiency of existing framework, Provision for credit losses, capital structure, staff and other macroeconomic factors.

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Liliana Rojas-Suarez “Rating Banks in Emerging Markets”

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Abstract

Trust is an important aspect of social interaction, especially in the workplace. Trust between superiors and subordinates may allow increasing cooperation and information dissemination between subordinates and superiors. Even though the superior has trust in his/her subordinates, trust alone is not enough to ensure that the work will reach the target without further scrutiny. Therefore, a monitoring and evaluation mechanism should exist to formally monitor the performance of subordinates. With the performance evaluation, the extent to which performance is achieved can be compared to the set target. This study examines the mediating effect of feedback and procedural justice on the relationship between formal performance evaluation system and trust between superior and subordinate managers. We argue that the application of formal performance evaluation system will enhance trust between superior and subordinate managers through feedback and procedural justice. Using Partial Least Squares (PLS) as an analytical method, 93 responses from managers of Banks in Pekanbaru, Riau, Indonesia, were analyzed. The findings of this study appear to support the significant role of feedback and procedural justice on trust between superior and subordinate.

Keywords: formal performance evaluation system, feedback, procedural justice, trust, Partial Least Square (PLS), Indonesia.

1. Introduction

Some studies of human resources explained that trust is an important aspect of social interaction, especially in the work environment. Interpersonal trust is necessary in order to support the success of the organization in achieving its vision, mission and goals of the organization (Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone, 1998). Interpersonal trust is important, especially in the relationship between superior and subordinate managers. It can increase cooperation and then reduce agency problems (Jones, 1995). Trust between superior and subordinate managers enhancing collaboration and information flow between superior and subordinate managers (Spreitzer & Mishra, 1999) and also can reduce opportunistic behavior (Fisher et al. 2005).

Although trust between superior and subordinate managers already exist, but to ensure that subordinates have been working on target and to control their behavior, superior need a performance evaluation system to evaluate the performance of their subordinates. Performance evaluation that conducted by superiors to subordinates can be done by using a subjective or objective performance evaluation system. Both types of performance evaluation have different effects on trust between subordinates and superiors. Study conducted by Moers (2005) found that subjective performance measures lead to decreased trust among subordinates to superiors. In contrast, study by Hopwood (1972), Tenbrunsel and Messick (1999), Lau and Buckland (2001), and Colleti, Sedatole and Towry (2005) found a positive effect of trust in the use of more objective performance evaluation system.

Hartmann and Slapnicar (2009) developed and tested the model of the relationship between formal performance evaluation system and trust. Findings of their study not only supports the results of previous studies on the positive effects of formal (objective) performance evaluation on trust, but they also conclude that the use of formal performance evaluation system can influence the trust between superior and subordinates through feedback and procedural justice.
Based on the above explanation, the results of previous studies on the relationship between performance measurement on trust between superiors and subordinates are still not consistent. The aim of this research is to examine the mediating effect of feedback and procedural justice on the relationship of formal performance evaluation system and interpersonal trust. The result is expected to clarify the role of the performance measurement on trust between superiors and subordinates. In addition, previous research related to performance measurement and trust mostly done in western countries. Therefore, a research on performance evaluation especially, formal performance evaluation, and its relationship to trust between superior and subordinates is need to be done in different country in order to get a better understanding about this phenomena.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides an overview of the previous research and hypotheses development. Section 3 presents the design of the empirical survey that conducted. The results from the tests of hypotheses are presented in section 4. Last section of this paper, Section 5, present the discussion and conclusions of this study.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

2.1 Formal Performance Evaluation System and Trust

Formal performance evaluation is a systematic study that shows the objective conditions and employee’s performance in achieving the goals set by the company. Formal performance evaluation is an assessment that conducted formally and associated with predetermined company’s work standards. Furthermore, formal performance evaluation is also associated with the assessment that carried out by using the measures and principles that have been established by companies such as regulations and format and system that consist of a number of elements that are interconnected and which need interrelated steps in its implementation.

Studies on the relationship between performance evaluation and trust between superiors and subordinates have been done by previous researchers. Previous study conducted by Hopwood (1972) showed the important role played by the budget. Budget is categorized as financial - objective performance measurement. Respondents in this study showed a high level of trust when their superiors use the budget as a basis for evaluating their performance. Similar finding also found in Hartmann and Slapnicar (2009). Hartmann and Slapnicar (2009) found that the use of formal performance evaluation system will have a positive effect on trust between superior and subordinate. Superiors who use performance evaluation in a formal way are those superiors that explain performance targets, measure the performance of their subordinates based on a clear metrics and reward their subordinates based on clear allocation rules. This process will lead to an increase in the level of integrity, honesty, accuracy and consistency in performance evaluation.

Lau and Buckland (2001) found that trust between superior and subordinate is increased when superior uses financial measures which are more objective for evaluating subordinates’ performance. While research conducted by Lau and Sholihin (2005) reported that the level of trust increases when top-level managers use non-financial performance measurements that are said to have a larger scope and more complete.

Tenbrunsel and Messick (1999) suggests that formal performance appraisal system allows a decrease in the level of trust among individuals. In contrast, Colleti et al (2005) found a positive effect of trust in the use of formal performance evaluation system. They argue that the performance appraisal system is important in an effort to get feedback, so as to improve managerial performance. The above studies show that the performance evaluation system is not only affecting the trust, but also raises questions whether subjective or formal performance evaluation systems could affect the level of trust between managers and subordinates. The arguments and evidences mention above lead to hypothesis:

H1: The use of formal performance evaluation system is positively related to trust between superior and subordinate managers.

2.2 Formal Performance Evaluation System, Trust and Feedback

According to Colleti, Sedatole and Towry (2005) and Lau and Buckland (2001), performance evaluation conducted by superiors to subordinates is associated with feedback. Performance feedback is defined as the feedback that received by subordinates for their performance achievement (Steelmann et al., 2004). Feedback is essential since feedback increased subordinates’ understanding about their performance and will give a chance to subordinates to adjust their behavior to enhance performance (Steelmann et al., 2004).
Lau and Buckland (2001) and Colleti, Sedatole and Towry (2005) provide a view that the effect of a formal performance evaluation system on trust can be attributed to the increased feedback. Effective feedback can occur when performance evaluation is based on targets that have clearly defined, is done accurately and in a way that is understood by subordinate. In addition, rewards are distributed in a transparent and traceable. All of the dimensions mention above are the dimension of formal performance evaluation system. Therefore the use of formal performance evaluation by superior to subordinates will lead to increased feedback. Furthermore feedback that received by subordinates will increase the trust between subordinates and superior since subordinates perceive that their superior attempt to provide good feedback in order to improve subordinates' performance and improve their working relationship. Based on arguments above, it can be concluded that feedback has a role as a link between the formal performance measurement and trust between superiors and subordinates. Hartmann and Slapnicar (2009) in their study have proved that feedback is a mediating variable that mediates the relationship between formal performance evaluation and trust. The arguments and evidence lead to the following hypothesis:

H2: The relationship between formal performance evaluation system and trust between superior and subordinate managers is mediated by feedback

2.3 Formal Performance Evaluation Systems, Trust and Procedural Justice

According to Leventhal (1976), the decision makers must adhere to social norms such as consistency, honesty and accuracy to enhance the procedural fairness of the decision making processes they engage in. Therefore, when superior uphold social norms such as honesty, accuracy and consistency in evaluating the performance of subordinates, the procedural justice will enhance and then the level of trust between subordinates to their superior will also increase.

The use of formal performance evaluation systems conducted by superior in a proper manner and in accordance with established procedures and rules, will increase the confidence of subordinates that their performance have been assessed fairly and objectively. This situation will lead to increased subordinates' perceptions on procedural justice and then trust. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) have proved the existence of a positive relationship between procedural justice and trust. Findings of Dirks and Ferrin (2002) was then supported by Hartmann and Slapnicar (2009) which not only proved that the existence of a positive relationship between procedural fairness and trust, but also proved the role of procedural justice as a mediating variable that links between formal performance measurement and trust between superior and subordinates. These arguments and evidence lead to the following hypothesis:

H3: The relationship between formal performance evaluation systems and trust between superior and subordinates managers is mediated by procedural justice.

3. Research Method

3.1 Sample

We conducted a survey study among middle managers in banking industry in Pekanbaru, Riau, Indonesia. To get high response rate, a total of 144 questionnaires were distributed by hand delivered to the targeted respondents. Of the 144 questionnaire distributed, 101 were returned representing a response rate of 70.13%. However, due to some left information, 8 set questionnaires were dropped. 21 HRD managers, 14 operational managers, 32 marketing managers and 26 finance managers from 32 banks (66.67%) were participate in this study. Demographic information was collected regarding age, gender, education background, job tenure, and job position.

3.2 Operationalization of Variables

3.2.1 Formal Performance Evaluation Systems

Formal performance evaluation system is defined as a system to evaluate and assess the performance of employee that is conducted formally and objectively. Formal performance evaluation system is a construct that consist of 3 indicators: target setting, performance measurement and rewarding (Hartman and Slapnicar, 2009). Formal performance evaluation system is measured using a 6 items instrument adopted from Hartman and Slapnicar (2009). The respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which performance targets are explicitly documented in a written form and the extent to which targets are quantified. The respondents also were asked to rate the extent to which the superior relies on objective
information from the information system and the extent to which respondents’ evaluation is express in qualitative term. The last two items of this instrument address the questions whether reward are based on objective information from the system and whether reward are based on quantitative terms. For all six items, respondents were asked to indicate their agreement on the statement presented on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items include “When establishing work objective, my superior explicitly documents these objectives in writing” and “when judging my performance, my superior relies on objective information from the information system”.

3.2.2 Trust

Following Hartmann and Slapnicar (2009), in this study trust is defined as the extent to which subordinate managers perceive that their superior is inclined to take actions that are in the interest of them. Trust is measured using a 3 items instrument adapted from Read (1962) and Hartmann and Slapnicar (2009). The respondents were asked to express the extent to which their superiors are likely to take action that are in their interest by using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items include “My superior will always act in my favor if he has the chance” and “I am convinced that my superior will always fully and honestly keep me up to date of everything that is important to me”.

3.2.3 Feedback

Feedback is defined as the extent to which the feedback that given by a superiors are perceived useful by subordinate managers in improving their performance. Feedback is measured using a 4 items instrument developed by Steelman et al (2004). For all 4 items, respondents were asked to indicate on a 7 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7(strongly agree). A sample item is “My superior gives me useful feedback about my job performance”.

3.2.4 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is defined as the extent to which respondents believe that the subsytem of target setting, performance measurement and rewarding system in total leads to a fair determination of pay (Hartman and Slapnicar 2009). Procedural Justice is measured using a 4 items instrument adopted from Hartman and Slapnicar (2009). Measurement of this variable also uses the 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neutral, 7 = strongly agree. A sample item is “I have full confidence in the system’s fairness in determining pay”.

3.3 Data Analysis

In this study the data were analyzed by using the Partial Least Square (PLS) approach, using Smart PLS software. PLS is a structural equation model (SEM) of component-based or variance-based. PLS is an alternative approach that shifts from covariance-based SEM approach to variance-based SEM. Covariance-based SEM generally examine causality or theory, while PLS is more predictive models (Ghozali, 2006). PLS is a powerful analytical method (Wold, 1985). PLS is not based on many assumptions such as normality of data and large data samples. PLS can be used on small data samples, and can be used on data that are not normally distributed.

The application of PLS model is done in two steps. Firstly, the assessment of measurement by assessing the reliability and validity of the scale measure. Secondly the structural model was used in testing the hypotheses proposed. This procedure was done sequencely to ensure that the measurement of construct is reliable and valid before any attempt is made to draw conclusions about the nature of relationship among construct (Hulland, 1999).

4. Results

4.1 Measurement Model

Before the assessment of the structural model is done, the quality of measurement model was assessed. The quality of measurement model was assessed by addressing individual item reliability, construct liability, and convergent and discriminant validity (Ghozali, 2006)
Statistics from the PLS measurement models are used to examine the convergent validity of the model by examining the factor loading. The factor loading from the final PLS measurement model is reported in Table 1. Factors loading of all items of the model are greater than 0.5 and are significant at p<0.05 (two tail; t > 1.96). However, two items from formal performance evaluation have factor loading below 0.5 (Item 1 and 4). A low item loading adds very little to the explanatory power of the model and potentially biases the estimate of parameters linking the constructs (Chin, 1998; Hulland, 1999). As such, those items are removed from the scale and are not included for further analysis. The result demonstrates an acceptable convergent validity (Table 1).

Table 1. Results for Outer Loading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Original sample estimate</th>
<th>Mean of sub samples</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>T statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal Performance Evaluation System:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item2</td>
<td>0.734</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>6.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item3</td>
<td>0.604</td>
<td>0.611</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>4.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item5</td>
<td>0.616</td>
<td>0.650</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>4.557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item6</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>2.983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust between Superior and Subordinates:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust 1</td>
<td>0.818</td>
<td>0.786</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>5.274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust 2</td>
<td>0.868</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>16.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust 3</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>20.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback 1</td>
<td>0.860</td>
<td>0.855</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>16.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback 2</td>
<td>0.706</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>6.291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback 3</td>
<td>0.736</td>
<td>0.722</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>5.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback 4</td>
<td>0.680</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>0.149</td>
<td>4.575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice 1</td>
<td>0.833</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>16.403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice 2</td>
<td>0.850</td>
<td>0.844</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>18.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice 3</td>
<td>0.860</td>
<td>0.853</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>14.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice 4</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>12.527</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following Fornell and Lacker (1981) the reliability of each variable is assessed based on composite reliability. As shown in column 2 Table 2, the composite reliability for each variable is above 0.70, which demonstrates that each variable has an acceptable reliability (Nunnally, 1978). The discriminant validity of the measurement model is assessed based on the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) as compared to the correlations among the latent variables (Chin, 1998). This provides a test on the extent to which a construct shares more variance with its measure than it shares with other constructs. Table 2 shows that the square roots of the AVEs (diagonal) are all greater than the respective correlations between constructs.

Table 2. Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) Statistics, and Correlation from PLS Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Composite Reliability</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>FPES FB PJ Trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FPES</td>
<td>0.762</td>
<td>0.446</td>
<td>0.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB</td>
<td>0.835</td>
<td>0.561</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PJ</td>
<td>0.908</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>0.282</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diagonal elements are the square root of the AVE statistics. Off diagonal elements are the correlations between the latent variables calculated in PLS. FPES= Formal Performance Evaluation Systems; FB= Feedback; PJ= Procedural Justice; Trust= Trust between Superior and Subordinate Managers

Results of the test discussed above demonstrate adequate discriminant validity. Overall, results from the PLS measurement model indicate that each construct exhibits satisfactory reliability and validity.
4.2 Test of Hypotheses

A structural model in PLS was used to test hypotheses proposed. Table 3 presents the results of hypotheses testing. Hypothesis 1 which stated that the use of formal performance evaluation system will be positively related to trust between superior and subordinate managers, was not supported ($\beta$=-0.166, $t=0.956$, $p>0.05$). Hence H1 is rejected.

The results shown in Table 3 illustrates that formal performance evaluation system has direct relationship with feedback (0.500, $p<0.01$) and procedural justice (0.606, $p<0.01$). The results also shown that feedback and procedural justice have positive relationship with trust between superior and subordinate managers (0.13, $p<0.05$; 0.480, $p<0.01$ respectively).

The results indicate that feedback and procedural justice mediated the relationship between formal performance evaluation system and trust between superior and subordinate managers. To examine the mediating effect (H2 and H3) a post-hoc Sobel test (sobel 1982) was conducted. The test required running two PLSs model for each mediating variable. The first model included path from independent variable to mediating variable (Model A1 and A2). The second model included the path from mediating variable to dependent variable (Model B1 and B2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path Coefficients, t Statistics and $R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Path coefficient $\beta$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Performance Evaluation Systems $\rightarrow$ Trust between Superior and Subordinate Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback $\rightarrow$ Trust between Superior and Subordinate Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice $\rightarrow$ Trust between Superior and Subordinate Managers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FPES= Formal Performance Evaluation Systems; FB= Feedback; PJ= Procedural Justice; Trust= Trust between Superior and Subordinate Managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mediation Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: FPES= Formal Performance Evaluation Systems; FB= Feedback; PJ= Procedural Justice; Trust= Trust between Superior and Subordinate Managers

The results shown in the final column of the table, demonstrated that the relationship between formal performance evaluation systems and trust between superior and subordinate managers are mediated by feedback (Sobel=5.162, $p=0.00$) and procedural justice (Sobel=6.06, $p=0.00$). Hence H2 and H3 are supported.

Results are summarized in figure 1.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this paper is to explore the effects of feedback and procedural justice on the relationship between formal performance evaluation systems and trust between superior and subordinate managers. A structural model was tested by using PLS to examine whether the relationship between formal performance evaluation system and trust between superior and subordinates is direct or indirect through the mediating variables of feedback and procedural justice. Results indicate that no direct relationship exists between formal performance evaluation systems and trust between superior and subordinate. This finding is contrary to
hypothesis proposed (H1). The rejection of H1 indicates the formal performance evaluation system is not directly related to trust between superior and subordinates, rather formal performance evaluation system is indirectly related to trust between superior and subordinates managers through feedback and procedural justice. These results are consistent with Hartmann and Slapnicar (2009).

Results of this study show that formal performance evaluation alone cannot guarantee that the subordinates would trust their superiors. To increase the level of trust between superior and subordinate, the superior must provide quality feedback every time the performance evaluation is done. Quality feedback will lead to subordinates believe that the superior is always be in a position to support the performance of the subordinates. Therefore a good superior should be able to provide quality feedback to subordinates. Another interpretation can also be made from the results of this study. Companies that implement formal evaluation objectively, will encourage subordinates to believe that every decision in the company have been done fairly and transparent.

Although the study has reached its objectives, the findings of the study need to be interpreted with the following study limitations in mind. First, respondents in this study are from banking industry in Indonesia. Therefore, generalization of this study is limited. Future study can replicate this study to other industry to achieve a better generalization of the results. Second, as suggested by Hartmann and Slapnicar (2009) different research design such as experimental design would broaden our understanding about performance evaluation and trust.

References


Entitlement to Health Insurance in the Republic of Albania and the European Code of Social Defence

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Abstract

The entitlement to the health insurance is one of human rights and freedoms defined in the Constitution. It is part of social objectives of the State. The study aims to extend not only in the internal legislation but also to compare this with the most relevant and most important document of the field that is the European Code of Social Defense, confirming compliance with the lines and the main principles of this document. Paper also makes a quick analysis of some typical systems of health insurance in Europe. The purpose of this analysis is that by exploiting the spirit of the European Code of Social Security and analyzed systems experience, to offer appropriate solutions to concrete problems of various administrative and procedural law that are found during the development of the scheme in Albania. Also, the paper aims not only to provide a theoretical treatment of problems in this area, but also to give concrete practical suggestions, because the improvement of legislation in this area should be done in the context of a policy of harmonization with European standards and parameters.

Keywords: health insurance, social security, insuree, contributor, mandatory health insurance scheme

1. Introduction

The right to health is affirmed at the international level with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 25, in 1948. Inter alia states that "Everyone has the right to a standard of life adequate for its health and the well-being of his family.

Entering the constitution of the World Health Organization also confirms that it is a fundamental right of every human being to enjoy the highest attainable standards of health. Integral part of the right to health is also the right of the basic conditions of health and health care.

Albanian model of health insurance has realized this right preferring to keep in harmony legislation and institutions responsible for the organization and implementation of the right to health insurance.

Within the Albanian Constitution, the right to health insurance of citizens has taken place in the group of economic and social rights. It is also understood that the existence of this right is based not only in the human nature but is associated with the obligation and the interaction of the state to create special conditions so that this right can be accomplished. Considering the importance of health care, and in fulfillment of the obligations and of the constitutional objective, the state assumes facilitation and creation of conditions for the implementation of this right.

In respect of the Constitution, Law 7870 dated 13.10.1994 "On health insurance in the Republic of Albania" amended, has created a national non-profit health insurance system, which guarantees the right to health insurance.

Our study aims to present the right for health insurance in Albania, in the context of the principles of the European Code of Social Protection also focusing is generally in health insurance systems in Slovenia.

2. Overview of Compulsory Health Care Insurance Scheme

2.1 The principle of compulsory health care insurance scheme

The right to health care is a constitutional right. The Constitution of the Republic of Albania in its Article 55 specifies that "All the citizens equally enjoy the right to health care provided from the state. Everyone has the right to health insurance in accordance with the procedure established by law." (Constitution of the Republic of Albanian, article 55)

The right to health insurance of citizens is included in the group of economic and social rights in the Constitution. This right is a positive one just like most of the rights that are part of this group. This conclusion is based on the reference made by constitutional provisions when it conditions the application of this right to a special law which shall
establish rules and its application procedure. It is also understood that the existence of this right is based not only on human nature but it is associated with the obligation and the interaction of the state to create special conditions so that this right can be realized. The law no. 7870, dated 13/10/1994 "On Health Insurance in the Republic of Albania", as amended, fulfill the constitutional obligation of determining the procedure for realizing the right of watch individual to health insurance.

The law stipulates that health insurance in the Republic of Albania is compulsory. Compulsory health insurances scheme is universal because it covers all Albanian citizens residing permanently in Albania, as well as foreigners employed and insured in Albania. Theoretically, all population groups are covered by health insurance. However, the law provides for the opportunity to include in this protection any special individual whose insurance is not provided for by this law. This approach consists a further development in the constitutional law for health insurance. Voluntary insured people are included in the scheme and have the right to benefit in the same way with all the contributory categories of the scheme. All persons participating in the scheme are considered as insured. Participation in the scheme is based on the payment of contributions. Contributions are paid from the income of economically active persons and from the state budget, which pays for economically inactive persons. Here we have to do with another important principle of compulsory health insurance schemes—the principle of solidarity.

Pursuant to the law, the compulsory health care insurance scheme remains open for the non-active category as well. The Council of Ministers has the right to specify other groups of citizens in need, for which the state should contribute.

When certain individuals do not find themselves included in any category of the compulsory scheme, the law provides for the possibility of voluntary insurance implementation. These people, who may be housewives, emigrants, or students studying abroad may voluntarily join the scheme by paying contributions based on the minimum wage when they are in Albania. Once paying contributions, they benefit health insurance just like all other insured.

2.1.1 Financial Resources and Contribution sizes

Financial resources of the health insurance scheme are compulsory health insurance, comprising of contributions of economically active persons according to the categories specified in Article 8 of the law no. 7870, dated 13/10/1994 "On Health Insurance in the Republic of Albania" (Law no. 7870, 1994). This includes contributions from voluntary insurance, which means contributions from people who do not find themselves in the categories insured on mandatory basis, or in the categories for which the state pays.

- financing from the state budget, which means contributions for economically inactive persons, such as children, students, pensioners, persons with disabilities (mental and physical), the unemployed, people who receive social aid, mothers on maternity leave, but also other groups of beneficiaries, which can be determined by the government, depending on its social and health policies.
- donations
- other income, as bank interests, indemnifications, reimbursed prescription fees, specified categories (DCM no. 7870, dated 13/02/2003), etc

Employed persons (including foreigners) pay a fixed contribution of 3.4% of gross salary, in the minimum and maximum limits that are determined by the Council of Ministers. The payment of this contribution is divided equally between the employer and the employees (1.7%), for the self-employed and unpaid family workers exerting their activity in the city the amount of the contribution is 7% and for the self-employed and unpaid family workers exerting their activity in the village, the contribution is 5% for lowland areas and 3% for mountain and hilly areas (Law no. 7870, dated 13/10/1994).

At first glance, this approach seems not to be in line with the principle of equality. Currently, the principle of equality is considered fulfilled when it comes to benefits, since the benefits from this scheme are equally provided to all insured persons who have the same health needs, regardless of the contribution that each of them has deposited. It is clear that we don’t imply here equality concerning the specific amount of contributions, which any insurer shall be liable to pay. The idea was to find and establish a mechanism that would be applied equally for all insured, regardless of the specific values of contributions. One of such ways shall be for example, the unification of the contribution amount for all insured whether they are economically active or non-active. In this way, the insured will be treated equally in principle although specific fees will change depending on each individual salary. In this case, an upper ceiling has to be established on the maximum amount allowed to be considered for the calculation of contributions effect, a ceiling, which is currently 5 times the minimum wage.
2.1.2 Identification of insured persons

The document which indicates that the person is insured and that can benefit from all the services of the scheme is the health booklet (DCM. 86, dated 13/02/2003). Health booklet is delivered to the insured either by the Health Insurance Regional Directorates or the family doctor. In order to obtain health booklet persons must prove that they have paid contributions or belong to inactive groups covered by the State. For this reason, the persons must present one of these documents:

- Social and health insurance contributions booklet (employees, self-employed, employers),
- Retirement pension booklet for the pensioners,
- Birth certificate for children,
- An authentication from the school for pupils and students,
- An authentication from the job office for unemployed job seekers,

All of the above mentioned documents are arranged with DCM. 86, dated 13/02/2003 "For the health booklet". According to this decision, HII determines the form and content of this identification and personal document. The latter determines the manner of issuance, their fulfillment and use. In this way, health booklet is a document through which the status of individuals concerning insurance is identified under the provisions of DCM. 87, dated 13/02/2003 "On the identification and obligations of persons receiving health services in the Republic of Albania". This decision specifies identification of people that receive the service and ways of their identification through health care booklets. According to this decision, persons who are eligible to receive primary, secondary, tertiary and pharmaceutical health services, should be supplied with health booklets and take advantage of basic health insurance law. All those people, who do not present documentation proving that they are the beneficiaries of health care services, have to make full payment to receive the health service that is for the medical treatment and drugs.

2.1.3 Coverage of costs in primary health care

Since 1995, after the insurance scheme was enforced and up to 2006, the scheme covered only the costs of the services provided by family doctor (GP) in primary health care (World Bank, Problems, Issues, and Alternative Approaches). These costs included physician payment and coverage of simple check up costs. Each ensured individual is registered at the family doctor and they have the right to change the family doctor to his/her discretion, but not more than once a year. This section of the scheme doesn’t provide for co-financing, which means that the insured person does not pay anything for visits and other services in outpatient primary service. Uninsured person pays according to the rate approved by the Council of Ministers. The health service benefited once the insured person submits the health booklet.

At the end of the visit, the doctor prescribes prescription with full or partial refund to the insured and unreimbursed prescription for the uninsured. The relations of the physicians with insurance scheme is regulated by a contract that clearly defines the obligations of the parties whose main element is the obligation of the physician to meet the provision of health services for insured persons under the procedures established by the insurance scheme. This service is paid by the insurance scheme under the terms of the contract.

After legislative changes and especially with the entry into force of the Decision no. 857, dated 20/12/2006 "On the financing of primary health care services from the compulsory health care insurance scheme" all primary health care is funded by HII and partly funded by the MoH in terms of investments. Funding from the scheme is performed through contracts, which are already bided not simply between HII and doctors but between HII and health centers. HC-s provide primary health care as a public non-budgetary and non-profitable juridical person. Health centers are responsible for the use of funding from HII. According to this decision, HII gains independence in providing its services to insured persons, being the direct contractor of HC-sand monitored of their performance. Meantime, the minimum package of services that HS-s will provide is determined by the Ministry of Health and approved by the Council of Ministers. Additional services and those offered to uninsured individuals are determined by special agreements between the MOH and HII.

Such a method of financing and controlling of health care centers by HII is considered as too much advanced, as it enables the further development of service delivery conditions and hiring of qualified medical personnel. A significant element is the principle of non-discrimination in the delivery of services to the population, the confidentiality of data and the demand for the establishment of quality standards. It should be noted that the establishment of this form of financing has led to maintaining the transparent procedure of the population access to health services at the same levels. The main requirement of the procedure is the submission of the health booklet, which proves if the patient's is insured or not.
2.1.4 Coverage of the costs of hospital health services

An expansion of health benefits for insured persons through hospital services is regulated in detail with DCM. 1661 dated 29.12.2008 “For the financing of hospital health services from the compulsory health care insurance scheme”. The scheme is currently extended only in public hospitals (World Health Organization Statistical Information System) and procedural requirements for the insured are two: provision of proofs of the insured status through health booklet and implementation of the referral system, which means addressing to the hospital with a recommendation from the primary health system. Persons that do not comply with these procedures, receive the hospital services after paying the relevant fees.

It is intended that the procedures of benefiting hospital health service on the part of the insured become as simple as possible, by shifting the weight of formalities and documents on the hospital or service provider. The decision provides for the drafting of a contract between the hospital and health insurance institute in which the parties define the respective obligations regarding delivery of services to the insured persons and the payment for rendered services.

2.1.5 Coverage of unique tertiary examinations

Coverage of unique tertiary examinations, otherwise known as coverage of expensive equipment, which are located in university level hospitals, is regulated in detail with DCM. No. 383, dated 19/06/2004 “On the approval of procedures, fees and the extent of coverage of unique and tertiary service included in health insurance.” We mean here the screening services such as scanner, magnetresonance, coronarographia etc. This Act sets out the conditions and procedures for benefiting. This service will be provided to those insured persons owning the health booklets and observing the recommendation system starting from the family doctor, specialist etc. The Council of Ministers has defined groups of insured persons who receive this health service free of charge and those who receive it through co-payment. Thus, children up to 12 years old, totally disabled and war veterans as well as TB and CA patients profit the health service coverage cost at a rate of 100 percent, while other economically active categories are covered at a rate of 90% and 10% are covered by co-payments. Uninsured or persons or those who have not respected referral system pay the full cost.

2.1.6 Coverage of a part of drug prices

The scheme covers drugs contained in the "List of reimbursed drugs". This list is approved on annual basis and the list approved by DCM, no 471 date 18.07.2012 “For the adoption of the reimbursed drugs list by HII and the extent of their coverage” is actually in force.

The list contains 402 reimbursed medicines as well as their alternatives. If for a drug exist so many other alternatives, the scheme will cover the price of the less expensive drug.

The principle of participation or co-payment is implemented in the drugs coverage. According to this principle, health insurance scheme covers a part of the drug price and the rest is paid by the insured persons at the pharmacy(Law no. 7870, 1994). The insured individuals profit drugs in the pharmacy through full or partial refunded prescriptions, or no refunded prescriptions. Ministry of Health and HII set rules both for the manner of fulfillment and execution of prescription from pharmacies that have a contract with HII. While reimbursable prescription format is defined by HII itself.

Prescriptions with full refund are issued to certain protected categories just like veterans, children 0-12 months, pensioners, people suffering from some serious diseases such as cancer, tuberculosis, blood diseases etc.. The co-payment for these prescriptions is zero, which means that the insured pay nothing. For other categories, partially refunded prescriptions are issued for the most part of drugs, which means that these drugs are received through co-payment. Uninsured persons pay the full price of the drug. Only individuals supplied with health booklet are benefiting through receiving reimbursed drugs.

3. Overview of European Health Insurance Scheme

3.1 European social objectives in the context of the European Code of Social Security

Social rights have played a very important role in European development during the last century, but despite progress in many areas, not all Europeans enjoy them. Council of Europe began work on projects in 1999 to find solutions to the many problems faced by individual citizens when they try to seek the right to social protection, housing, health and
One of the legal instruments of the Council of Europe is the European Code of Social Protection. European Code of Social Security and its Protocol guarantee minimum protection, including among other things, medical care, health insurance, compensation for work injuries, maternity, unemployment, invalidity and survivors' benefits, family allowances and pensions. Revised Code (1990) takes into account recent changes in the social security legislation in the member states and improves the protection guaranteed at national level.

European Code of Social Protection represents a minimum standards. It's aim is not the standardization of national social protection systems. Standardization would require all contracting parties to provide the same benefits for the same categories of the population, to the same extent and in the same conditions. Instead, the Code recognizes the will of harmonization of social protection systems and the establishment of minimum requirements that must be met by the states. This scope is guaranteed at least a certain minimum level of social protection. If states can and want to provide more than this minimum conditions, they are free to do that.

Code respects the diversity and individuality of the national defense of social systems le features products, the economical, social, and political tradition among which are developing countries. In this way the code determines what the goals are desired and the same time allows each state to decide how to achieve those goals. The particularity is that the goals are desired in such a way that can be applied to all types of social protection systems, whether it refers to employment protection, certain categories of employees, all economically active population or the entire resident population.

European code for each branch defines the scope of application (contingencies covered, protected persons), the level of benefits; qualifying for benefits; benefit period; period until the beginning of the benefit recipient. The European Code of Social Security include this type of medical care benefits:(Article 10, of the European Code of Social Security)

- Care by general practitioners (GPs), who are also sometimes called “family doctors” or “primary care providers”. Often GPs will act as the first port of call for patients and will be responsible for authorizing specialist or hospital treatment. As well as providing GP care the contracting parties must also provide for home visits by GPs;
- Specialist care in hospitals either on an in-patient or an out-patient basis. Any specialist care that can be reasonably provided outside the hospital infrastructure should also be made available;
- Essential drugs but only if they are prescribed by doctors or specialists;
- Medical rehabilitation, including the supply, maintenance and renewal of prosthetic and orthopedics appliances prescribed by doctors or specialists;

The personal scope of health care can be organized in a number of ways. An important distinction to make is that between the provision of derived rights and individual rights. Systems that operate through derived rights will usually base entitlement on employment or economic activity, this means that employees or the economically active are directly entitled to medical care. These rights are then extended to the wives and children of the employee or economically active person, in other words the wives and children derive their entitlement to medical care from the employees or economically active people in their family. Systems that base entitlement on residence provide individual rights so that every man, woman and child is directly entitled; their rights are not derived from anyone else. The Code makes provision for systems that are based upon derived rights stemming from employment or professional activity as well as those systems offering individual rights based upon residence.

3.2 The compulsory health care insurance scheme of Slovenia

The compulsory health insurance covers all population with permanent residence in Slovenia, which is covered under the unique compulsory insurance scheme either as mandatory member or as their (family) dependents. Virtually the entire (100%) population is insured. Coverage of the individual under compulsory health insurance is, in principle, related to his contribution, which entitles insured individuals and their family members to services. There are 21 categories of insured persons,(OECD Health, 2011)which can be grouped into some main types. The largest category comprises all employed workers whose contributions are dependent on income or on other bases for payment of contributions (farmers pay a proportion of their cadastral income or of the basis for pension and disability insurance respectively; natural persons, independently performing business or professional activity as their only or prime occupation pay a proportion of the gross basis for pension and disability insurance, etc. Pensioners also pay certain proportion of their gross pensions. The second group comprises categories whose contributions are fixed amounts. Socially disadvantaged groups are covered under different mechanisms from state or local self-government budgets. the employment service of Slovenia
compulsory health care insurance scheme of Slovenia offered the voluntary health insurance scheme

3.2.1 Rights to health care services

The most comprehensive range of rights present the rights to health care services derived from the compulsory health insurance to which all insured persons are entitled to. These are preventive examinations and services (general health check-ups, measures for prevention of infectious diseases, measures for early detection of certain diseases, etc.), services for prevention, detection and treatment of illnesses on all levels of health sector, treatment and nursing care at home and in special social institutions and in nursing homes for senior citizens, emergency transportation by vehicles, drugs listed in the special list and medical and technical aids (orthopedic, orthotic, eye, ear and other aids). The act has defined certain groups and diseases which are granted to be covered in full price (100%) by compulsory insurance.

These services for specific groups and diseases described above are covered to 100% by compulsory health insurance other services are covered only in a certain share of the total value of the service. Percentages have been introduced by the act allowing, HII to decide upon exact level of co-payments but within the legal framework. For example the level of co-payments vary from a minimum of 15 % to a maximum of 95%, and thus determine the minimum or maximum level of co-payments to be paid by the patients. Thus compulsory health insurance covers, in the case of health care services (including drugs, medical and technical aids), the full prices only for legally described groups and certain diseases. In the cases of all other services and population groups, the compulsory health insurance covers just certain percentages of their full prices. The difference to the full price shall either be covered by the insured person himself, or can be covered by the voluntary health insurance company, at which the person has taken a voluntary health insurance policy for copayments. Since 1993 (World Health Organization Statistical Information System, Core Health Indicators) such regulation of compulsory health insurance which presume co-payments and cost-sharing in the system has opened good opportunities to a wide affirmation of the voluntary complementary health insurance.

3.2.2 Financing of compulsory health insurance

The contributions for the compulsory health insurance are the main source of financing the compulsory health insurance. The contributions are collected from different categories of insured persons, who contribute the largest share of the income, pay the contribution as a certain percentage of their gross salaries, while their employers also pay a similar amount. In Slovenia, the aggregate contribution rate for active insured persons was corrected only once in the past 10 years, namely in 2002 when it rose from 13.25% to the present 13.45% of gross salary. The above is broken down into the employee’s contribution totaling to 6.36% while the employer’s totals to 6.56%; employers, however contribute the further 0.53% for occupational diseases and injuries at work. (World Health Organization ,Regional Overview of Social Health Insurance Europe)The retired persons only pay the contribution, equal to the employee’s share. The basis for determining the contribution in case of farmers is their cadastral income or the basis for pension and disability insurance. For other categories of contributors, a flat-rate contribution is determined ranging approximately around the contribution...
rate of an employee with a minimum salary. In addition to that, the employers and those organizing different public works are obliged to pay a special contribution for covering occupational diseases and injuries at work.

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

In all examined health insurance scheme we see that systems are based on the structure of self-governance which consist of patients, health care providers both ambulatory and hospital and such third party payer insurance. Within the legal framework set by the government, these layers operate largely autonomously, providing health care as well as generating and distributing health resources.

From this overview of the compulsory insurance scheme health care, we conclude that the right to health insurance as a social-economic right, guaranteed not only by the constitutional provisions but also by specific legislation which establishes specific procedures how this right, the body responsible for its security and regulates relations arising between persons benefiting from this right, health care providers and the administration responsible for health insurance.

Health insurance is a compulsory and universally insurance scheme and as covering all RA citizens with permanent residence in Albanian. Participation in the scheme is based on the payment of contributions. All persons participating in the scheme are considered insurees. Health insurance contributions are personal, so it cover only the person who pays or which pays the contribution and not cover their member of families.

The particularity of this scheme is that if there is delay in the payment of contributions of more than 1 month, the person is not entitled to benefit from the scheme for the period that is covered by contributions.

Health insurance scheme does not have qualification or waiting periods. In this sense, the benefits of the scheme can be obtained the day after, the day that the person has paid contributions for the first time. Also, benefits from this scheme are given equally to all insured persons who have the same health needs, regardless of the the contribution that has made each of them.

The principle of participation or co-payment. According to this principle the health insurance scheme covers a fraction of the price of the drug and the rest been payed by the insured people at the pharmacy.

Internal legislation creates the possibility that potentially all Albanian citizens, but also foreigners who live in Albania to be insured.

Starting from a general point of view and experiences of the above health insurance schemes and based on the requirements of the European Code of Social Security, would recommend the following.
- To review the possibility of increasing the amount of compulsory health insurance contribution, taking into account all the country's economic and social factors.
- To assess the possibility of extending the services offered in the basic package of mandatory health insurance.
- Review beneficiary categories regarding the inactive which, as the third age category (or old age which is an integral categories European Code of Social Security).
- The inclusion of the family benefits to the compulsory health insurance scheme.

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Flooding Vulnerability Assessment – A Case Study of Hou-Jing Stream in Taiwan

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Abstract

The research aims to determine how factors of population distribution, industry, and infrastructure influence the process of assessing flooding vulnerability. The main research goals are as follows:

1. To locate river basin inhabitants of sites vulnerable to flooding and define primary flood protection zones.
2. To evaluate the impact of flooding on industry.
3. To evaluate infrastructural sufficiency for handling floods.

The paper first summarizes related land-use and flood control measures for risk mitigation through literature review and a case study. The results of the case study provide a quantitative understanding of the effectiveness of practicing land use flood control measures based on concepts of flood risk management. The framework and simulation results of this paper provide a useful reference for urban planners who engage in risk assessment modeling.

Keywords: Vulnerability, Risk, Flooding

1. Introduction

Taiwan is situated in a location constantly vulnerable to typhoons attacks annually in summer and heavy rain in winter. It often rains densely and hard and due to the steep terrain, rivers flow quickly to the sea. While in urban areas, it causes flooding most of times. Flooding is the most frequently seen natural disasters in Taiwan.

In order to use ecological way to drain the water, we have adopted the concept of flood risk and land use planning. While the truth is that considerations of how to control flooding situations in a scale of a city is still lacking. The use of physiographic drainage-inundation model (PHD-mode) can simulate scenarios under various rainfall circumstances and helps to indicate appropriate flooding prevention strategies.

Recently, the setting of retention facility is based on Water Code and different levels of river, so as to enhance the ability to urban flooding prevention. In both typhoon Morakot(2009) and typhoon Fanapi(2011) severe damages and flooding along Hou-Jing Stream had been observed. In 2012, regulation project of flood-prone areas includes Hou-Jing basin area.

The research aims to determine how factors of population distribution, industry, and infrastructure influence the process of assessing flooding vulnerability. To simulate different flooding scenarios and implement adaptation strategies so as to plan and manage flood-prone areas.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Physiographic Drainage-Inundation model, PHD-model

In the past, we used to use PHD-model to simulate the flooding situations of typhoon Morakot and typhoon Fanapi which showed the high accurate ability are fit to real conditions and makes it reasonable to develop the model. There are a variety of land uses like farm lands, communities, parks, transportation systems and drainage systems and all of those land use can make a big difference in flows. In the process, we put a net to cover all over the research area and every grid of the net is considered as a cell. Each cell represents different geological status, and how the adjacent cells change water relies on water-flow continuity equation to describe.
2.1.1 Water-flow continuity equation

There are three kinds of water exchange forms: river type links, weir type link, and culvert links. The interval between two adjacent cells is called river type links. When the interval between two adjacent cells is the roads, embankments and so on, it is called box culvert connection type. When the interval between two adjacent cells is separated by the road or box culvert, it is called culvert links.

![Diagram of River type link, Weir type link, and Culvert link]

2.1.2 Required input data of PHD-model

A flooding simulation process requires enough input data for PHD-model and that includes three types of parameters: geometry data like no., area, coordinate and elevation; direction data like the number of adjacent cells, perimeter and water exchange form; feature data like manning the N value, infiltration rate, building coverage ratio.

2.2 Disaster Risk Analysis

In 1979, United Nations Disaster Relief Organization (UNDRO) defined definition of disaster risk in the report of natural disasters and vulnerability analysis (UNDRO, 1980): 

\[ R(\text{Risk}) = H(\text{Hazard}) \times V(\text{Vulnerability}) \]

Hazards mean human lives and property caused by damage, or a potential damage. American Risk and Insurance Association (ARIA) defined risks are consist of uncertainties, probability and loss. Whereas the risk is usually the results after the quantification, it is usually hard to gather complete data or proficiency calculation, to solve the problem we use risk matrix to indicate the level of disaster risk.

### Table 1. Risk matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Severe (5)</th>
<th>Serious (4)</th>
<th>Medium (3)</th>
<th>Not Serious (2)</th>
<th>None (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rare (1)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seldom (2)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sometimes (3)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often (4)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>always (5)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Disaster risk analysis is mainly the estimation of disasters degree and distribution characteristics to analyze some areas disaster’s influence and impact. It contains identification of risk factor, hazard analysis, vulnerability analysis and estimates level of risk.

2.3 Land Use and Coping Strategies

Flood simulation mechanism can identify three types of coping strategies. First, there are needs of flood control facilities to minimize the loss of damage in developed areas in between high developed density area where it is near the river at the same time. Second, low cost engineering ways are talking about regional scaled areas and developing cases. Designating protection areas for planting trees and constructing retention facilities are common solutions. Last, we plan land use planning such as regional planning and ecological planning to distinguish risk areas by the degree of risk.
3. Method

3.1 Research Scope

The research aims to determine how factors of population distribution, industry, and infrastructure influence the process of assessing flooding vulnerability, simulate flooding situations under different rainfall scenarios and finally implement land use and coping strategies for planning flood-prone areas.

3.2 Data Collection

3.2.1 Geographical environment

The empirical area of the research is Hou-Jing basin area. Its area is approximately 73.45 square kilometers. The Hou-Jing drainage system which is also an important river consists of Nan Zi drainage system, Shilong River drainage system and Tsao-Kung irrigation system.

Figure 1. Main rivers distribution in Hou-Jing basin

3.2.2 Historical disasters

Hou-Jing drainage system is still under construction so it cannot functionally drain water when it comes heavy rain fall or a typhoon. After we had a site visiting and diagnosed the main reasons are followings: drainage paths are flat and hard to lead the water to go, dusts and stones come with water stay at the tunnels, and broken drainage system managements.

4. Methodology section

Followings are the research process: To collect land use survey information in 1995, to develop flooding simulation procedures, to classify the hazard factors, to categorize the vulnerable factors, to calculate the risk factor and finally get the risk map done.

4.1 Hazard Map

The research uses PHD-model as a main research tool. We gathered the rainfall information from the meteorological weather station at Zuzijo and its annual maximum series over 24 hours. The tide data is at the Kaohsiung port station. In order to simulate more cases in severe flooding places, we used mean water level 0.9 m as the parameter. The analysis of the peak flow is triangular unit, rainfall intensity formulas and coordinate system is TWD 97. Recurrence interval is based on water code which it said river managed by county should build embankment for 10 years rainfall return period and 10 year return period time of flooding hazard map. The most important parameter on the flooding hazard map in the
empirical area of Hou-Jing area is water depth (WD). Finally, we divided the WD into 5 levels: 0-0.3m, 0.3-0.5m, 0.5-1.0m, 1.0-3.0m, and 3.0m and more. In the research, we have both 10 year return period flooding hazard map and 25 year return period flooding hazard map.

**Table 2.** 10-year return period flood depth chart, 25-year return period flood depth map

![Image of flood depth charts]

4.2 Vulnerability map

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Population, the number of elderly living alone, residential land use</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Farming: farm land, animal husbandry, agriculture incidental facilities; aquaculture; business; industrial</th>
<th>Facility</th>
<th>Organizations, schools, health care, leisure facilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

4.3 Risk Map

4.3.1 Population Risk Map

In the research, we assume that the flood vulnerability analysis in the Hou-Jing area is the same. Population vulnerability consists of population density and numbers of elderly. Population density is a measurement of population living in the village in Hou-Jing area.

\[
\text{Vulnerability}_{\text{人口}} = V(\alpha_i, \beta_i)
\]

\(\alpha_i\): Population density, where the population is allocated to each of the years in building

\(\beta_i\): Anyang institutionalized elderly persons

After completing constructing database, we put data into the geographic information system for population calculation and made some grading and overlay operations to get vulnerability maps. We divided population density \(\alpha_i\) into five levels and used the same color but deep to shallow to represent its level and give grades from 1 to 5 to represent its level as well. As for weight part, elders represent grades of 5. Finally, we can have a simple matrix of 5 levels: lowest (1 to 2), low (3-4), medium (5-6), high (7-8) and highest (9 to 10).

\[
\text{Risk}_{\text{population}} = \text{Hazard} \times \text{Vulnerability}_{\text{population}}
\]

**Table 3.** The exposure and vulnerability weighted degree classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exposure vulnerability</th>
<th>1lowest</th>
<th>2lowest</th>
<th>3low</th>
<th>5low</th>
<th>5low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6medium</td>
<td>7high</td>
<td>8high</td>
<td>9highest</td>
<td>10 highest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.2 Industry Risk Map

Different industries have different types of vulnerability. Because vulnerability is composed of three components: exposure, resilience, resistance to damage intensity. Exposure factor is based on flooding area and break into 5 levels.
Resilience is according to differences of land uses from industrial areas, commercial areas, aquaculture areas and farm lands and the bearable WD is 10 cm, 10 cm, 30 cm, 50 cm. Finally, we can have a simple matrix of 3 levels: lowest (2 to 3), low (4), medium (5), high (6-7) and highest (8).

Table 4. The exposure and vulnerability weighted degree classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>exposure</th>
<th>vulnerability 1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2 lowest</td>
<td>3 lowest</td>
<td>4 low</td>
<td>6 high</td>
<td>6 high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3 lowest</td>
<td>4 low</td>
<td>5 medium</td>
<td>6 high</td>
<td>7 high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4 low</td>
<td>5 medium</td>
<td>6 high</td>
<td>7 high</td>
<td>8 highest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vulnerability_{Industrial} = V(α_i, β_i, γ_i, δ_i)
α_i : Farm land area
β_i : Aquaculture area
γ_i : Commercial area
δ_i : Industrial area
Risk_{Industrial} = Hazard \ast Vulnerability_{Industrial}

C. Facilities risk maps
Vulnerability of facilities can be categorized into schools, health care, leisure facilities. And its exposure to flooding in ascending order by size divided into five levels, lowest (1), low (2), medium(3), high (4) and highest (5).

Vulnerability_{Facility} = α_i + β_i + γ_i
α_i: Organization area
β_i: School area
γ_i: Health care area
Risk_{Facility} = Hazard \ast Vulnerability_{Facility}

5. Conclusions and Policy Suggestion

Risk map is the combination of flooding hazard and vulnerability, and most of time governments take it as a risk assessment and damage prevention index. After completing hazard map and vulnerability map then we can make risk map. The risk matrix combined with two factors of hazard and vulnerability, and we distributed different values of risk in village scaled map. The goal is to compare high risk map to the current use and urban planning to figure out places with inappropriate developments so as to bring out regional planning and urban design.

5.1 Population risk maps:

Comparing population vulnerability map to flooding hazard map, we can find out that high risk area are mostly in Renwu district, Nanzi district and Niaosong district. Also, there is high risk area distributing in Zaoying district. In this area, it is one of the earliest developed areas among Kaohsiung so the main land use is residential areas. Where it is situated is near Love river so it usually affected by typhoon season and heavy rainfall. However, there is important transportation systems Zaoying district and that attracts many people to move into this area. It is necessary to construct retention facility, water drainage system and so on.
5.2 Industry risk maps and facility risk maps

First, comparing industry vulnerability map to flooding hazard map, we can find out that high risk area are mostly in Renwu district, Niaosong district, and Fongshang district. Second, comparing facility vulnerability map to flooding hazard map, we can find out that high risk area are mostly in Nanzi district and Zaoying district. Both industry risk map and facility risk map indicate that high risk areas locate in Nanzi district and Renwu district. In Nanzi district, there are plenty public facilities like Kaohsiung Metropolitan Park, New Town Development, sewage treatment plants and many other facilities are still under construction. While in Renwu district, according to urban planning in this area, it needs flooding prevention construction plan. As for low height place or not smoothed water drainage places, it is keen to make the building lots higher so as not to let water flow goes in.

6. Acknowledgement

This research was one part of Study "Master Plan of Management of Hou-Jing River Basin/ Urban and Rural Landscape Improvement Plan. I would be thankful to National Science Council for financial support. The funds were used to employ students in survey design, questionnaire survey, data collection, data analysis and the writing of this research program.
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Doris Lessing’s Attitude to Marriage as Seen through the Albanian Binoculars

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Abstract

Being considered a novelist of ideas, we believe Lessing’s strength lies in her concept of the individual and his or her relation to the society. Because she deals with abstract ideas about women, men and society, and because she cannot place all her ideas in narrative context, her own voice comes through even more distinctly. She moves from realistic fiction to science fiction with a clearly didactic purpose: to make the individual alert of the risk that the unjust society poses to life itself. Therein lies her interest in marriage. This is going to be one of the main issues to be analyzed and compared to the Albanian environment. Martha Quest in “Children of Violence” series forces herself into marriage in an act of rebellion towards the tensions and the expectations of her traditional parents and community. Unlike Martha Quest the Albanian female is considered a curse from the very first moment she comes to light, due to the fact that she will provide no support to the family in the future (she is supposed to get married and join her husband’s family), as compared to the male who is expected to provide all the commodities to the parents and the relatives. Therefore, the aim of this presentation is to show Lessing’s attitude towards marriage as compared to the Albanian reality of the female identity defined by her relation to any man in her life.

While reading Doris Lessing’s fiction, one can not go without noticing the insistence of the writer to overcome the limitations imposed by the patriarchal society before the individual. Under this view, the subject of marriage and its role in the loss of individual independence marks one of the most important problems covered by this prose writer. Her desire is to overcome social categories and restrictions imposed on the individual especially the female one.

Marriage, a traditional social product, in Lessing’s fiction is never described as a supporting category, or one that incites freedom to intimate relationships. The woman described in Lessing’s work, whether divorced, married, single, or widowed, seeks independence from men, though often turns to her role as a wife, because ultimately she is dependent physically, emotionally and financially on men.¹ Doris Lessing does not accept the feminist view that men are born to keep women oppressed, claiming that it is the society, not biology that determines the role of women and stifles initiative and talent. It seems as if the writer brings up some thought from Simon de Beauvoir’s reflections when she proclaims that a woman is not born, but rather becomes one². The impact of marriage on restrictions placed on individual female are especially apparent in the short story To Room Nineteen or in the novels The Grass Is Singing and The Summer Before the Dark.

In most of her prose writing, beginning with the earliest stories to her latest novels, Mrs. Lessing makes use of the issue of marriage to come up with the idea that marriage is a symbol of the individual’s inability to find a coherent and balanced place in society, and that it marks a destructive, but necessary force to human life. Here it lays the connection with a male-dominated Albania, where married women still struggle to attain the freedom to choose their career after marriage, as society often considers them fit only for housekeeping and child rearing.

This is why D. Lessing focuses on the husband – wife relationships to highlight her views about the limitations imposed by society. In the short story To Room Nineteen, the writer unveils that when one fails to put reason in balance with feeling, it will generate the destruction of the relationship. This lack of balance in the Rawlings marriage brings failure of harmony in their relationship. Susan Rawlings feels imprisoned within the four walls of the house. The same picture is drawn even in the Albanian family, where the husband heads the family and makes all decisions on family matters. Women must obey their husbands, do the housework, and look after the children. Couples usually live with the

briogroom’s parents so they can care for them. Living in extended families also helps the couples to reduce expenses. Susan Rawlings’ attempts to escape the conjugal prison lead her to Room Nineteen. She occupies this room as “someone”, any person who in appearance resembles many other women who had previously rented the room. Under this view, the “any-person” symbolizes the same person in the same role Susan has long ago taken in her conjugal life. In both cases she is forced to adapt herself to the shape dictated by others or by her awareness. In her family, Susan is appreciated on the basis of relationships she establishes with her children, with her spouse, or as the housewife, the house caretaker. At the beginning, Susan feels emotionally free in Room Nineteen, but as the time flees she “realizes” that this place, away from the cave she took her name and form, is not the desired paradise, but her mental hell.

At the beginning of the story the narrator says, “This is a story, I suppose, about a failure in intelligence: the Rawlings’ marriage was grounded in intelligence.” At this point, the narrator makes it clear that whatever choice Susan makes, she will remain unbalanced, for she chose “either reason or feeling instead of balancing them in life”. In presenting categories - reason / feeling; wife / mother / woman / caretaker – Mrs. Lessing stresses once again the idea that society itself is divided into such categories. It requires the individual to meet the specific role within the category. The inability of the individual to harmonize different functions within different categories leads to her mental or physical destruction. In this sense, the writer opposes marriage as a predetermined social category, because it forces women to undergo their role within the category by giving up emotion.

The anthropologist Antonia Young suggests in her very interesting study Women Who Become Men: Albanian Sworn Virgins, that “to be a woman is basically an occupational status, if seen socially ... to keep the household in a way that the male world runs smoothly without problems”. The Kanun is explicit about the purpose of women’s lives: “A woman is known as a sack made to endure as long as she lives in her husband’s house. Her parents do not interfere in her affairs, but they bear the responsibility for her and must answer for anything dishonorable that she does.” Men’s control of women is also outlined: ‘the parents of his ... wife ... give him (the groom) a cartridge’ as protection against ‘two acts (for which) a woman may be shot in the back ... a) for adultery; b) for betrayal of hospitality’ (to any guest). The preservation of this law continued to be demonstrated until quite recent times, the bridegroom’s parents giving the groom a cartridge on the wedding day. Role-playing is central in understanding gender communication in Albania. Deprived of any social right the Albanian female existence is labeled in terms of male service. A very interesting point on role playing is made by Antonia Young in her study undertaken while observing life in the North of Albania. She listed according to the Kanun a number of jobs performed by man including hard labour tasks (chopping the wood, harvesting and cropping or shepherding), paying the respects to the guests as well as maintaining and protecting the honor of the family. Meanwhile the woman was supposed to give birth to and raise children, take care of cooking and the households, serving to the men and the guests of the family (including the washing of their feet); carrying water and firewood, preparing dairy products, insurance and food storage, doing the laundry, sewing and embroidery as well as preparing the dowry. Moreover, they had to carry out all the works performed by men in the case of blood feud. This was apparently one of the reasons that had excluded women from feud and led little by little to the birth of the idea that “craftsmanship was women’s work” and “the war, a real man work”.

Cases of marriage described in Lessing’s fiction do not only present the relationships within a cople, but they also determine the type of the individual and the community where they live. According to Doris Lessing, the identity of a man is determined by the work that he does, and also by his position in the social and economic hierarchy. Compared to them, the role and place of women in society is determined by the nature of the relationship she establishes to men. Marriage imprisons women in the family spinning wheel and makes her a hostage of the traditional models defined in part by the society and partly influenced by personality.

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6 The Kanun is a set of traditional Albanian laws. The Kanun was primarily oral and only in the 20th century was it published in writing. There is only one Kanun since the ancient times commonly referred to the “Kanun of Leke”.
9 The Kanun in (Albanian) is a set of traditional Christian Albanian laws. The Kanun was primarily oral and only in the 20th century was it published in writing.
Within the house man is the backbone of economic support, and the woman is forced to give up her profession, her previous life even her own name. Albeit Susan Rawlings had a prosperous job, a very comfortable house furnished at will, after getting married is forced to give up everything – her job, her house, her name. This portraying brings us in mind the position of the traditional Albanian woman who from the day of her marriage is no longer called by her own name. Her husband’s name (in the possessive form) is used when speaking of her. “The bride is the energetic young addition to the workforce, potential bearer of future inheritors to the home and land. She is the only person who does not share in the celebrations following the wedding ceremony. She stands, eyes downcast while all the guests partake of the lavish quantities of food and drink.”

Rose Wilder Lane described the young Albanian bride of the North during the mid – twentieth – century as the person who once arriving at her husband’s house “takes a humble place in the corner, standing, her hands folded on her breast, her eyes downcast, and for three days and nights she is required to remain in that position, without lifting her eyes, without moving, and without eating or drinking. On the second day ... she goes about the household, obeying the commands of the elders, always standing until they tell her to sit, and for six months, not speaking unless they address her.”

Janet Reineck describes the situation more vividly:

“In a high mountain village it is the morning after a wedding. A rooster crows. It must be day, but still dark. And cold. December. Her eyes sting, her head aches from too little sleep, from the cold. She isn’t groggy. She wakes into a chilling awareness of her new life, and her new name, ‘Bride’. The awareness stings her, rushes her pulse. The awareness, the sting, hit her, wrench her from sleep, day after day, for months, for years, gradually diminishing, becoming ritual, habit, as she molds herself to fit her new persona.”

When she goes to her new husband’s home she is known as nuse (new bride) until another son marries. During the first month of marriage a new bride is expected to be dressed in her best clothing and be ready at any time for visitors coming to meet her to approve her as a worthy new addition to the household.

In her short story Doris Lessing makes use of the metaphor of the house and the room to determine the physical, emotional and social restrictions she is inclined to. The role of women in Lessing’s fiction changes in accordance with the changing needs of the families. For this reason, women are unable to undertake actions or to exercise their power as “free women”. Although Mrs. Lessing does not give men absolute power, it should be noted that the author stresses the fact that it is the society itself which fuels gender inequality. The Nobelist tries to amplify women’s attempts to save themselves from woman’s social models and especially the recurring pattern of “a proper marriage”, based on the utopian desire of female freedom.

Martha Quest in the “Children of Violence” series forces herself into marriage in an act of rebellion towards the tensions and the expectations of her traditional parents and community. Unlike Martha Quest the Albanian female is considered a curse from the very first moment she comes to light, due to the fact that she will provide no support to the family in the future (she is supposed to get married and join her husband’s family), as compared to the male who is expected to provide all the commodities to the parents and the relatives. Therefore the Albanian woman is likely to be submissive to the male dominion first in the family and then in the society. Historically she had got no name of her own, but is regarded as “someone’s daughter, wife or mother.” Accomplishing this role the Albanian woman is forced into marriage by her father and/or other male relatives of her family.

The aspirations for freedom lead Martha Quest to a completely conventional marriage, to divorce, child abandonment and later to a love which, in the eyes of Lessing’s heroine, gets the value of a real marriage. In the long calvary of this journey, Martha learns that “true freedom can be achieved only by throwing away marriage and responsibility of a marital relationship.” This idea is followed in the last novel of the series, “The four-gated city”. In this series of novels, the same difficulties are encountered by other characters who attempt to preserve traditional marriage, revealing once again the writer negative view about marriage.

In other literary works of Doris Lessing the reader can notice other choices made by her heroines in order to achieve freedom. Hence we can mention ménage a trois in *A Man and Two Women*), and adultery in *Not a Very Nice Story*. Elsewhere we can notice the choice to keep a relationship but without getting married. In all of these stories marriage is considered a prison and as one of the recurring patterns, but destructive to the individual's behavior. Referring to the Albanian case, A. Young states that it remains true that considerable sexual repression exists especially in traditional rural society. Sex is not discussed or even acknowledged amongst most women and extra-marital sex is theoretically non-existent, rare and severely punishable. Sex for women has always been seen to serve purely a procreative function. Birth control remains little known and undesired, large families are the norm, and the hope of always one more son is reason enough not to seek ways of preventing conception.16

Although this is a minor attempt to show some of the attitudes to marriage identified in Lessing's fiction and in Albanian reality at the time Doris Lessing puts the events in her prose works, we can notice how close and detached at the same time the two cases stand. What remains common to both situations is the fact that to Lessing marriage is seen as a traditional institution which imposes its beliefs onto the individual. During mid twentieth century the same attitude hold true even in Albania. Traditional Muslims and Orthodox Christians generally do not recognize dating as a prerequisite for marriage, although modern Albanian youth would disagree. In any event, families expect dating couples to follow a strict code of conduct in public places. Although Albanian youth make their own choice of spouse, they highly value their parents' approval. A formal engagement ceremony marks the proposal of marriage. In rural Albania, parents still arrange marriages with the help of a matchmaker. In fact, sometimes couples become betrothed even before they reach puberty. In northern Albania, men may pay a “bride price” for their future bride, and among certain tribes in the mountains, the tradition of the armed relatives of the bridegroom “stealing" the bride still commonly precedes a formal wedding. Traditionally, Albanians celebrate weddings for seven days. Premarital sex, once punishable, has now become a common indulgence in Albanian society, and the number of extramarital affairs has been rising over the last decade. Polygamy, however, remains generally prohibited in Albania. To sum it up, what Doris Lessing advises through her portraying of marriage as a negative influence in the individual's life, is that harmony and success depends on the possibility of a society which does not imposes its belief, and on the individual who is ready to put a balance between reason and feeling.

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Decentralization Reform, Case of Albania

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Abstract

During the last two decades the process of decentralization has been extended worldwide. This process has taken place in developed countries but in nowadays, this process is also being applied in developing countries in order to challenge the monopoly of centralized decision making of governments. The decentralization reform in Albania has done progress during the transition period. Today the local governance in Albania is absorbing and implementing the decentralization legal framework which is approved up to now and also is moving toward a complicated but progressive process of decentralization and autonomy that combines the decentralization of functions/services with fiscal decentralization supported by the process of strengthening the local democracy and accountability through free election and local community participation. This practice is supported by the economic theory of decentralization that it is a process that can and should lead to the improvement of the services that citizens receive from government by balancing local needs and expectations regarding the quantity, quality, cost and mix of services. This paper makes a snapshot of the process of decentralization by evaluating what has already been achieved, what is in process and what are the challenges laid ahead. It does the analysis of fiscal decentralization and fiscal autonomy in Albania and also gives a short description about the European models (West and East European countries). This paper touches upon the main achievements and challenges on all the complex issues that relate to decentralization. It is mainly focused on the progress of decentralization during the last couple years.

1. Introduction

Although an independent country since 1912, Albania started building its democratic institutions only from the early-1990s, after almost half a century of dictatorship and centralized government. Throughout the nineteen-nineties, Albania’s transition from one of the most isolated countries in Central Europe to a democratic society and market economy has been beset by multiple political, economic and regional crises. The years of 1991 to 1998 were dominated by central reforms, including the establishment of the basic structures of a democratic system, and the structures of a market economy.

Starting from the year 2000, when the Decentralization Strategy was approved by the Government, Albania has made considerable progress in the process of decentralization. The implementation of the strategy has in fact passed the intensive phase of the basic laws that define the competencies and establish the relations between central government and local government.
The law No. 8652, date 30.07.2000 “On organization and Functioning of the Local Governments”, is very important for local government which, sometimes called the Organic Law or the Local Government Law, defines the functional responsibilities of the two tiers of local governments in the country – the communes and municipalities, and the regions. The Local Government law has defined a long-term profile of Local Governments. In addition to other issues, the law defines on one side, local responsibilities and functions and on the other side, local fiscal authorities and property rights. The relations and links between these two pillars are quite clear and sufficient to lead to the effective achievement of this profile.

The fiscal decentralization process in Albania is underway with good progress shown during the past five years. Attention during that period has focused on putting appropriate policies into place. Nevertheless, local governments, governed by popularly elected councils and mayors/heads, are providing local public services and are mobilizing revenues based on autonomous taxing powers.

Today the local governance in Albania is absorbing and implementing the decentralization legal framework which is approved up to now and also is moving toward a complicated but progressive process of decentralization and autonomy that combines the decentralization of functions/services with fiscal decentralization supported by the process of strengthening the local democracy and accountability through free election and local community participation. This practice is supported by the economic theory of decentralization that it is a process that can and should lead to the improvement of the services that citizens receive from government by balancing local needs and expectations regarding the quantity, quality, cost and mix of services.

Pursuant to the Constitution of the Republic of Albania, there are two levels of the local governance in Albania: a) the first level consists of communes and municipalities and b) the second level consists of the regions.

The Constitution of the Republic of Albania defines “Communes and municipalities are the basic units of local government.

The region is the second level of the local government which, according to the Constitution, compiles and implements the regional policies (not in the sense of EC regions – author's note) and where such policies are harmonized with the state policy.

2. Decentralization process in Albania

The first legal framework and financing system is established for local governments during the years 1992-1993. During this time are approved from the Parliament Law “On Organization and Functioning of Local Governments and Law” “On Local Government Budgets”. However, still the responsibilities of local governments were very vaguely defined and subject to considerable control by the Central Government. The system of grants consisted of a dispersed system, with allocations made by each line Ministry, in a non-transparent, ad hoc manner. Grants were strictly conditional, and ensured a very minimum level of provision of public services, although constituting 95 percent of local budgets. Local government had only partial expenditure authority over 5 percent of incomes coming from own local taxes and fees, but had no incentive to collect additional funds. Such funds could be used only for non-wage operating expenditures and investment, with approval of the Ministry of Finance in a system of public expenditure limits, with surpluses transferred to the State budget.

From late 1998, the situation of local governments began to evolve with a central-local dialog on the need to implement local government and decentralization reform.

On May 1998, the Government of Albania signed the European Charter for Local Self-Government, which defines common standards and principles for the protection and promotion of local autonomy and rights in all signatory countries. One of the main principles of the Charter states: “Local self-governments denote the right and ability of local authorities, within the limits of law, to regulate and manage a substantial share of public affairs under their own responsibility and in the interest of the local population”. The Charter is both a model and an objective for Albania. It is a model of how to establish modern, democratic and effective governance based on the principles of local autonomy and subsidiarity¹. On the other hand, subsidiarity is one of the guiding principles of the Charter meaning that responsibility for a public service should be assigned to the lowest level of government consistent with allocative efficiency.

During this period (1998), the new Constitution was approved by national referendum of November 1999. The very important step was the sanctioning of the basic principles of autonomy in the Constitution. The article 13 of constitution establishes that “Local Government in the Republic of Albania is founded upon the basis of the principle of

¹This principle means that competencies and powers should be assigned to the level of government that is closest to community.
decentralization of power and is exercised according to the principle of local autonomy." The Constitution establishes also the main concepts and principles regarding the local government institution, their composition, their basic responsibilities and their authorities.

The Government has adopted in January 2000, a formal multi-year Decentralization Strategy (which was reviewed in 2006) as an integrated policy document that defines the long-term vision of local government in Albania, as well as the general goals and objectives of decentralization. The long term vision of local government in Albania has fixed a strong and powerful first level (municipalities and communes) and a coordinative role of the Regional Council as an upper level of local government. The approach of compiling Decentralization Strategy was through an open, transparent, participatory dialog of all the interested stakeholders. They reached an agreement among themselves on functions, authorities, financial resources and properties to be decentralized and carried out by local governments. The outcome of this dialog was a consensus among the participants from the national and local governments and from civil society on the priorities and phases of the decentralization process. Since that, Albania has in place a strategy and mechanisms of dialog among stakeholders to implement a phased process of decentralization.

Since October 1st, 2000, local governments are operating based on the new Local Government Law. Local governments should receive title to their properties for the first time, through implementation of the Property Transfer Law.

The Government year by year issued formal mandates to continue the structured dialog on decentralization, including representatives of the national and local governments, as well as civil society through the Group of Experts for Decentralization/Inter-Ministerial Committee for Decentralization. These measures have created an opportunity that is unique among the transition countries. Another mechanism of dialog since February 2000 is the Medium-Term Budgetary Program (MTBP). This program is the instrument aiming at defining the priorities as well as the long and short-term objectives on development through a consultation process with all interested actors and is the framework for defining and implementing country economic and social policy developments. At the initiative of Ministry of Finance, decentralization became a cross cutting theme of the MTBP process in Albania, starting in 2001. Decentralization reform and local government’s revenues and expenditures have a separate chapter in the Program with implications of the reform on the annual budget and for three-year period. Measures to strengthen local government finance are considered formally as part of the process of developing national fiscal policy and targets.

If we would consider the phase of these laws (basic) the first phase, the second phase is about absorbing the new competencies and creating the complementary legal and regulatory framework for implementation of these new competencies.

3. The local Government functions

Since that, Parliament has adopted key laws, starting with the most important Law “On Organization and Functioning of Local Governments" approved in 2000 which together with Decentralization Strategy marked the official start of the process of decentralization in Albania clearly defining the functional responsibilities of both levels of local governance as well as autonomy for the generation of revenues in conformity with the Constitution and the European Charter for Local Self-Government.

At present, Albania is organized with two levels of local government, consisting of 12 regions, and 373 first level local government units, of which 65 municipalities (urban areas) and 308 communes (rural areas). Mayors and members of municipality/commune councils are directly elected, while regional councils consist of indirect representation, being formed from representatives of the municipal/commune councils in the region. National territorial structures include 12 Prefects, one in each Region, representing the authority of the central government in the territory, and territorial branches of some line Ministries.

According the law, “On organization and functioning of local government”, the functions of local government are defined in three categories: i) own functions, ii) shared functions and iii) delegated functions.

For own functions, local governments enjoy full decision-making authority. Own functions of municipalities/communes include basic local public services, such as solid waste, roads, public areas and parks, public lighting, water/wastewater, local economic development, local culture and sports.

Some own functions of Local Government in Public Services are:

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2 Law No. 8652, dated 31.07.2000 "On Organization and Functioning of LG". In this document it will be shortly called Local Government Law.
• Garbage collection and cleaning,
• Construction and maintenance of local roads,
• Sidewalks,
• Public lights,
• Parks and green spaces,
• Cemetery,
• Urban public transport,
• Kindergartens,
• Veterinary service,
• Water/wastewater
• Municipal police etc,

Shared functions are a new concept of Albania’s local government system, and they cover key sector areas such as education, health, social care and public order; the respective roles of the central and local governments still need to be elaborated in separate sector laws. Dedicated law for each public service must define what competences will posses the municipalities and communes within each sector. Once established, Local Government Units will exercise such competencies as autonomous.

Delegated functions are those that while the core responsibility remains at central level, for implementing opportunities, Local Government Units are engaged to a certain extended and for defined tasks. Delegated functions can be either mandatory (such as civil register), if defined by dedicated laws including also the financing of the related expenditures, or non-mandatory thus based on free negotiations between a ministry and a municipality/commune or regional council.

The own functions of the regions include adoption and implementation of regional development policies. Other functions can be delegated to them by their constituent municipalities/communes, or by the central government.

4. Fiscal Decentralization

Decentralization policy should first assign service responsibilities before defining local revenue powers, that is, “Finance Follows Function”. The rationale for this phasing (in Albania) is to make it more likely that the revenue powers assigned to local governments can be in line with the costs associated with those services. This helps determine the appropriate size of a resource transfer system (flows of intergovernmental transfers from “higher” to “lower” tiers of government).

The Law, “On Organization and Functioning of Local Government” defines the principals of local government finance that tries to guarantee the autonomy and functioning of local governments units through:

• Establishing the right for diversified local sources such as taxes, fees and other local revenues, funds transferred by central budget (directly or in the form of participation in national taxes and fees) and loans;
• Granting authority for collecting revenues in independent way;
• Delivery of sufficient funds from central government and the fulfillment of all defined standards, as well as functions and authorities delegated from it;
• The right of drafting, approving, implementing and administering their own annual budget.

Fiscal decentralization is considered a key component of the reform. It has incorporated the principle that money follows the responsibilities. Fiscal decentralization aims at generating more local revenues for supporting the improvement of quantity and quality of local services but it also would contribute to a further strengthening of the local sense of accountability and understanding that first of all it is the local community that decided for the local priorities and contributed for their achievements.

Based on the authorities given by Organic Law, changes during 2002 and 2003 made up the most important and serious steps in fiscal decentralization progress in Albania. The key elements of this reform include the reform on national revenues for local governments and the reform of locally generated revenues that tries to satisfy basic goals of local government finance system. The reform of locally generated revenues aims to create chances in generating more fiscal revenues for supporting the improvement of quantity and quality of local services but it also would contribute to a further strengthening of local sense of accountability and understanding of all it is the local community that decided for the local priorities and contributed for their achievements.

Based on the current legislation of the local government the local taxes are:

• The small business tax,
• Immovable property tax, which includes the building and agricultural land taxes;
• The hotel tax;
• New constructions infrastructure impact tax;
• Immovable property right transfer tax;
• Vehicles’ annual registration tax;
• Tax on occupation of public spaces;
• Table tax;
• Temporary tax.

The council of local units has full discretion to decide for tax base and tax rate within term of local tax laws.

4.1 Reform of Transfers

In the State budget 2002, the concept of unconditional transfers for local governments was adopted for the first time and the total transfer pool was the outcome of the annual budget process for that year. The total unconditional pool was distributed among local governments (municipalities, communes and regions), based on a formula. This formula balanced the need to take account of objective criteria related to costs of local services and to ensure a measure of equalization to support poorer local governments. The major results of the formula were to improve equity; to create a greater relation between size/population and amount of funds received; and to ensure some equalization effect. For the first time, the local transfers from the state budget were made transparent and predictable, which was an immeasurable improvement to aid the budget management of local officials.

When the project budget is prepared, each municipality and commune can preliminarily calculate for the next year the amount in its budget that it will take from the state budget in the form of unconditional transfer that started on 2002.

Table: Formula Used to Distribute the Unconditional Transfer, 2002 - 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of Total Pool</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>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regions</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipalities/Communes</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>91.5%</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>91.5%</td>
<td>91.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation Fund</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of Municipal &amp; Commune Share</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By Formula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal Shares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area of Communes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Services ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tirana Share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax Capacity Adjustment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Adjustments</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of Regional Share</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By Formula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Compensation Fund</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regional Formula</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal Shares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographic Indicator⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area of Region/Length of Roads⁵</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

³ This amount (2002-2005) was distributed among the municipalities other than Tirana on the basis of the relative populations of these municipalities, in 2005-on going; Tirana Municipality is included to Urban Services criteria.

⁴ This is an indicator which takes on the value 1, 3, or 5 with 1 indicating that the terrain of the region (e.g. flat plain) as well as other comparative advantages of the region whereas a 5 would indicate a mountainous region with few comparative advantages.

⁵ In 2003 the area factor was changed to km. of roads in the region; road length continued to be used in 2004.
Fiscal equalization was used during 2003 for the first time because of implementation of fiscal package for the first year and huge disparities expected to be created in different local government especially from local small business tax, and vehicle registration tax. Fiscal capacity is calculated only on small business tax and on vehicle registration tax. First adaptation of this allocation is done in accordance to the coefficient of fiscal capacity. Each municipality and commune with revenues per capita higher than the national average, will contribute 25 percent of the fiscal equalization difference, divided with its population. This sum is subtracted from initial calculation of grant. Each municipality and commune that is below national average will be compensated with 25 percent of this difference, divided by its population; this sum is added to initial calculation of grant.

4.2 The Fiscal decentralization Impact

There is an especially significant change with regard to composition of local revenues. The proportion of revenues from the State budget has decreased considerably from 76% that was in 2002 to 43% in 2003 and to 46% in 2010. The revenues that comes from local taxes and fees (own revenues) are increased from 24% in 2002, to 57% in 2003 and to 54% in 2010. This represents an increased autonomy of municipalities and communes to determine own local revenues and their rates; enhances the capacity to ensure more efficient collection; and, increases responsibility and autonomy for the allocation of these revenues, based on local priorities and needs. Greater local revenue autonomy also supports a process of improving the accountability of local governments, first of all to their local communities.

The expenditures of local government per GDP, where council of local governments have full discretion to make the decision year by year are increased. In 2000 the expenditures with the local autonomy was 1.13% of GDP and in 2010 are 2.9% of GDP and also the tendencies is to increase in coming years.

Graph 1

Source: Ministry of Finance

Graph 2

Source: Ministry of Finance
4.3 Municipal Borrowing

In the long term, the Government could remove itself from the business of allocating funds for local capital investment and turn this function over to the private capital market. Local governments could identify their own investment priorities and seek funding from private banks. Some move in this direction is reflected in the Government’s decision to remove the prohibition on local government borrowing and substitute limited borrowing powers.

The law on municipal borrowing that was approved by Parliament in 2008 has several valuable features. This law offers the opportunities to finance the investment program of local governments. It defines debt broadly, to include any monetary obligation or liability created by a financing agreement, the issuance of securities, or a guarantee to third parties. As such it closes several loopholes which have been a source of problems in neighboring countries. It also provides an appropriate level of Ministry of Finance oversight. Up to now very few of local governments have borrowed from internal financial markets and this is related closely with the economic crisis.

5. Problematic issues

5.1 Capacities to absorb the transfer of competencies

While there are still issues to be resolved regarding the legal framework it should be said that the main core of the laws that define the framework of decentralization is already here. The decentralization it has entered into a phase of absorbing the laws that are in place rather than creating new ones. Local units sometimes lack the capacities to implement the competencies they now have. Most of the problems of capacities relate to the issues of budgeting, its design and monitoring, tax collection and planning, Strategic Planning for Local economic Development etc. Training is most necessary in these areas.

During the last years a New Agency for Local Government Training was formed under the Association of Municipalities. However this Agency is still in the process of defining itself and preparing the curricula. There is also the issue of training costs. Who is going to bear it? Local Governments (who have almost no resources for training of their employees) or Central Government? Another problem related with capacities to implement is that of human resources for small municipalities and communes. Educated people are leaving these areas and migrating to bigger towns leaving the local units without professionals they need to carry out the job.

5.2 Further specification of the competencies

Although the Organic Law has made quite a progress in defining the competencies/functions for the local government, still there is need for further specification on these competencies and function. Especially the common functions (education, health, social assistance, public order, and environment protection) need further specifications on what is every layer of government responsible for. There has been some movement towards the so called “elite decentralization” especially for shared functions. This is a decentralization that those that have the capacities and expertise can get more competencies that those that don’t. It is emergent to discus and approve the space developing law.

5.3 Competencies and functions of the Council of Region

This second level of local government (Regions) was created with the reform after the year 2000 (the new organic law). However the role and functions of council of regions are not clear yet. The organic law mentions as their primary function that of regional planning. In fact the role of this level of government is still vague. Region councils are not directly elected by citizens and as such they do not have anybody to be accountable to. Region councils do not have any. A step forward is the specification of the role and competencies of the Regions for Education, Health Care, Social Issues and local and regional developing.

5.4 Fragmentation

Albanian territory is divided in 373 local units (65 Municipalities and 308 communes). 47% of Albanian Population lives in

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6 Law No. 9869, date 4.2.2008 “On Local Borrowing”
local government units smaller than 10,000 inhabitants. The internal migration has created a situation where some local units are experiencing increase of their number of inhabitants (and as a result, resources to provide adequate public services are insufficient), while other local units are experiencing reduction of their number. This affects also the technical capacities of these units to implement their competencies and deliver the public services. Out of 308 communes, in 2007, 60 communes collected local taxes in the amount from 200,000 leks to 300,000 leks. (2000 USD – 3000 USD). What can a local unit do with such an income from its own resources? On one hand, the smaller units bring the government closer to citizens (and that is the purpose of the decentralization) but on the other, they lack the capacities to deliver these citizens the services they need. A dilemma that should be faced and resolved by the process of decentralization in the coming years.

5.5 Fiscal Decentralization

This is the vital part of the reform. It should be said that during the last four years there is improvement in the increase of the local own revenues as well as in the ratio between local taxes and tariffs and unconditional transfers. However, there are still issues that under the effective implementation of fiscal decentralization as well as the progress of the reform in this area:

- There is still insufficient local expenditure autonomy. There is progress in this area but a lot remains to be done.
- Local Revenue autonomy remains low. Although the fiscal reform of 2002 marked a very important step forward for local government, they still cannot set the tax rates for vehicle tax and property transfer tax. In addition, the local governments are not allowed to assess the tax base.
- Property tax which elsewhere in the developed world is one of the most important taxes for local government faces a big challenge in Albania. The challenge is related with property evaluation. Albania has still not finished the registration process of properties.
- Lack of capacities for tax administration. Many local government units have suffered from this “disease” and this has had direct impacts on the revenue collection for these units.
- To clarify the fiscal relationship between central government and local government is necessary to have a special local finance law.
- According the organic law for local government defines the income tax and profit tax of corporate as share taxes, but up to now, didn’t do anything. It is necessary to have the rule how is the part of these taxes that should go to central government (state budget) and which part goes to local government.

References


Ministry of Interior, Republic of Albania, the data 2008.


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7 According to the data Ministry of Finance
8 Data from Ministry of Finance
A Consideration on Emotional Labour, Burnout Syndrome and Job Performance: The Case of Health Institutions

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Abstract
The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between emotional labour which is defined as workers’ exhibiting appropriate emotions designated by the organization towards the customers of the organization, and burnout syndrome and job performance. Accordingly, a field research based on survey method was conducted on the employees of a health institution operating in the province of Konya. As a result of the research, statistically significant relationship was found between emotional labour and burnout. In addition, it was found that job performance was decreasing as burnout levels were increasing and there was a statistically significant relationship between emotional labour level and job performance of workers. In addition, it was determined that there was a statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor and job performance of the employees.

Keywords: Emotional Labour, Burnout Syndrome, Task Performance, Contextual Performance.

1. Introduction
In the service sector, where the relationships with customer were intensively experienced, in providing the customer satisfaction, the effort the employees emotionally and mentally spent has importance as much as the one they emotionally spent in terms of the quality of work performed. In the frame of this understanding, in business life, like physical effort, also emotional effort the employees exerted has been begun to be seen as a value and the concept of emotional labor, seen as marketable value in exchange of wage, has emerged (Hochschild, 1983: 7). Especially, in health sector, where face to face relationships are experienced in high level, in terms of patient satisfaction, patients should exert the emotional labor in high level. Besides the emotional labor, exerted in high level, can positively affect the organizational outcomes such as improving job performance and job satisfaction, it negatively affects the organizational outcomes such as burnout. Therefore, in the study, the relationships between emotional labor, burnout, and job performance will be examine.

2. Conceptual Framework
2.1 Emotional Labor
The concept of emotional labor is first used by Hochschild (1979) with the expression of emotional work. In 1983, in the book called “The Managed Heart” by Hochschild, this concept first time was defined as motional labor and began to develop. Hochschild (1983: 7) defined the emotional labor as making an indication facially and physically, as a
requirement of job, arranging the emotions in such a way that they can be seen by the others. When regarding to the studies carried out, emotional labor was generally expressed as “the action to exhibit the appropriate emotions” (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 90) or “the forms of efforts, planning, and supervision needed to express the organizationally desired emotions across the process of sustaining interpersonal relationships” (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 987; Grandey, 2000: 97).

When the literature of emotional labor is examined, there are some different views about the dimensions of emotional labor, but it is seen that this is generally considered under three dimensions as deep acting, surface acting (Grandey, 2000; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Diefendorf et al. 2005), and genuine emotion (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). Deep acting is the controlling process of employee his/her emotions and thoughts as a requirement of indication rules (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 22). Surface acting is that employees, in the frame of the institutional and professional indication rules, fixing their emotions, reflect them on the customer or receiver in different way from the emotions they actually feel (Hochschild, 1983; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 22; Basim and Begenirbaş, 2012: 79). And genuine emotions are expressed that the employee reflects out his/her emotions inherently (Basim and Begenirbaş, 2012: 79). In this context, in this study, emotional labor was considered in three dimensions as deep acting, surface acting, and genuine emotions (Basim and Begenirbaş; 2012).

2.2 Burnout Syndrome

Burnout is a concept first considered in the clinical studies by Freudenberger (1974). Freudenberger (1974: 159) defines the burnout “as a state of being exhausted in the internal resources of individual as a result of being unsuccessful, wearing out, losing energy and power, and unsatisfied desires” (Budak and Sürgevil, 2005: 96). With that Maslach (1982) considered the burnout syndrome as a social problem (Maslach and Goldberg, 1998: 64). Since it reflected the real experiences of people in business life, it became a concept that is begun to be examined in the organizational literature. From this point of view, burnout syndrome is defined as a long termed reaction against the chronic, emotional, and interpersonal stress resources in business environment (Maslach and Goldberg, 1998: 64). The exhaustion behavior in the business environment emerge in three forms as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach and Jackson, 1981: 99; Maslach and Goldberg, 1998: 64). Emotional exhaustion is defined as exhaustion of individual’s emotions and feelings toward the other people (Leiter and Maslach, 1988: 297; Bruce, 2009: 58; Yıldırım and İçeri, 2010:124). Depersonalization is defined as that the individual feels lack of emotion toward the people (Bruce, 2009: 58); his/her negative and inflexible attitudes toward the people he/she serves; that he/she becomes unreactive to the job (Budak and Sürgevil, 2005: 96); and that he/she behaves to the people like an object, says insolent words to the people, exhibits an indifferent and mocker attitude (Yıldırım and İçeri, 2010: 124). Reduced personal accomplishment represents the dimension of evaluating the own achievement of person and it means the decrease at the level of the sufficiency and efficiency in the business of individual (Maslach and Goldberg, 1998: 64).

2.3 Job Performance

Job performance can be qualified as total of individual performances in different organizational sections realized in a standard time interval (Edwards et al., 2008: 444). Job performance is generally conceptualized as behaviors and actions making contribution to the aims of organization and being in the control of individual (Johnson and Maede, 2010: 1). From this aspect, job performance, in which the aim, target and beliefs are shaped by task demands within the organization, is defined as a multidimensional structure (Befort and Hattrup, 2003: 17). In the literature, it is seen that job performance is generally considered in two dimensions as task and contextual performance (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994). Task performance states the basic responsibilities that points out the technical core of organization; distinguishes the tasks within organization from each other (Edwards et al., 2008: 444); and has to perform the task (Onay, 2011: 590). Contextual performance considers the organizational, social, and psychological environment providing support in the technical environment of organization (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994: 476). The contextual performance is behaviors including the activities such as that the employee, who provides information to the culture and climate of organization, has information about the rules and procedures of organization; helps to the other people in the organization; contributes to the organizational instruments; and exerts extra effort for completing the task (Befort and Hattrup, 2003: 17). In this context, it can be said that task performance is a concept associated with performing a task determined within organization, while contextual performance includes the voluntary behaviors to support the organizational achievement (Onay, 2011: 590)
2.4 Relationships between Emotional Labor, Burnout and Job Performance

Emotional labor has social and psychological effects on the employees. One of the psychological effects of emotional labor is burnout (Larson and Yao, 2005: 1103). In the studies carried out, burnout was evaluated as an outcome of emotional labor (Morris and Feldman, 1996). Similarly, Grandey (2000), in the study he carried out, considered burnout as an outcome of emotional labor. In the study, in case that the emotional participation of employees is high in the relationships with customer, it was put forward that burnout will emerge. Brotheridge and Grandey (2002), in the study they carried out, they determined that there was a positive relationship between the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization of burnout and the dimensions of deep and surface acting of emotional labor. However, while it was determined that there was a negative relationship between reduced personal achievement and surface acting, it was determined that there was a positive relationship between deep acting and emotional exhaustion of burnout. Brotheridge and Grandey, on the other hand, stated that there was a positive relationship between deep acting and the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization of burnout. Similarly, Kim (2008), in the study he carried out, determined a positive relationship between the behavior of deep acting and emotional exhaustion and personal achievement, determined a negative relationship between reduced personal achievement and surface acting. While a positive relationship was determined between the behavior of deep acting and emotional exhaustion and personal achievement, a negative relationship was determined between depersonalization and emotional labor. When the relationship between emotional labor and job performance was examined, Ünlü and Yürür (2011), in the study they carried out, determined that there was a positive relationship between emotional labor and job performance. Onay (2011), in his study, while he determined a positive relationship between task performance and surface acting and deep acting, he concluded that there was a negative relationship between contextual performance and surface acting.

3. Research Methodology

In this section of the study, information will be given about the aim, hypotheses, and findings of study realized by using the method of survey. In addition, whether or not the results obtained in the study were statistically significant will be assessed and whether or not the hypotheses are confirmed will be tested.

3.1 Method of Study and Sample

In forming the dataset of this study, method of survey was utilized from the method of survey, the study was carried out on the employees of a health institute (since the institute did not permit about publishing its name, in the study, the expression of health institute took place) being in active in the province Konya. In the studies, the data were collected by means of standard questionnaire prepared by regarding to likert scale and via face to face interviews conducted with the responders. The items in the scale were put in order in the form “1 = I definitely disagree” and “5 = I definitely agree”. In the study, in determining the points to be included in the sample, convenience sampling method, used in the similar studies (Cui et al., 2003; Zhou, 2004), was chosen. Convenience sampling, since it provided the possibility to rapidly access to a number of dates, was a preferred method (Nakip, 2003).

In calculating the sample size, Yazıcıoğlu and Erdoğan (2004: 50) were utilized. The authors, for confidentiality value \( \alpha = 0.05 \) with equation error \( \pm 0.05 \), and in the condition that the rate of being observed and not being observed of each \( x \) variable in the universe is accepted equal, in case of having a sample size of 500 people, calculated the number of survey that should be conducted as 217. In this context, the rate of survey that should be returned is approximately 44%. In the health institution, where the study was carried out, 280 health personnel work and as a result of application made, 128 questionnaires, suitable to asses, were obtained. The return rate, obtained in this context, is approximately 45% and it can be said that this represents the main body.

3.2 The aim and Hypotheses of the Study

The aim of study is to determine the levels of emotional labor, burnout, and job performance of the employees of a health institute being in active in a health sector in the province Konya and to examine the relationships between the levels of emotional labor, burnout, and job performance. In the direction of this aim, the hypotheses developed in the scope of study were put in order as follows.

**Hypothesis 1**: “There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor and burnout emotion of health staff”.

...
Hypothesis 2: “There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor and job performance of health staff”.

3.3 The Scales Used in the Study

In the study, in order to determine the levels of emotional labor of the employees of health institute, “Scale of Emotional Labor”, including some items of emotional labor scales by Grandey (2000) and Kruml ve Geddes (2000), developed by Diefendorff et al. (2005), and adapted to Turkish by Başım and Begenirbaş (2012 was used; in order to measure the level of burnout, “Scale of Burnout”, developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and adapted to Turkish by Ergin (1992); and in order to determine the levels of job performance, “Scale of Job Performance” Borman and Motowidlo (1993), Borman et al. (1995) and Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) used in their studies.

4. The Findings of Study

4.1 Specifications of sample

65.9% of those participating in the study is male, and 34.1% female. The mean age of participants is about 35 and the youngest participator is 24 years old and the oldest participator is 58 years old. The academic titles of participants are: 42.1% Asst Dr., 9.5% specialist doctor, 20.6% Asst. Prof. Dr., 17.5% Assoc. Prof. Dr. and 10.3% Prof. Dr. 48.3% of participants are working on internal medicine, 44.2% on surgical medicine, and 7.5% on basic medicine.

4.2 The Findings about Emotional Labor

In order to determine the levels of emotional labor of those participating in the study, the items taking place in Table 1 were asked in the form of 5-point likert scale. In the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “disagreeing at all” and 5 is in the meaning of agreeing in very high level. The results are seen as follows:

Table1. The level of Emotional Labor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale of Emotional Labor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>While I am engaged in the patients, I pretend to feel myself well.</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In order to be able to exhibit the emotions my profession requires, I pretend to take on a masque.</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While I am engaged in the patients, as if I am making a show, I exhibit an extra performance.</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I play act for being able to be interested in the patients appropriately</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While I am performing my profession, I behave as if I feel the emotions I do not feel</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I exhibit the different emotions other than those I actually feel to the patients.</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Surface Acting</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I exert effort to also actually feel the emotions I have to show</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I try to actually experience the emotions I have to show to the patients</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I show an intensive effort in order to be able to feel inside of me</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In order to be able to feel the emotions I have to show to the patients, I do everything as much as possible</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deep Acting</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The emotions I showed to the patients spontaneously reveal.</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The emotions I exhibit to the patients are friendly</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The emotions I showed to the patients is the same as those I felt at that moment.</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While I am engaged in the patients, I show false emotions.</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genuine Emotions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12.95</td>
<td>2.41</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Total*</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37.55</td>
<td>7.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (i) n=113, (ii) in the scale, I is in the meaning of “I definitely disagree” and 5, in the meaning of “I definitely agree” (iii). According to two way Anova Test of Friedman, χ²=636,045; p<0,001; the results are statistically significant.

* Cronbach's alpha values of the variables examined after added points related to variables. Cronbach’s alpha value of the scale is 0.719. The Cronbach's alpha values show that the scale was highly reliability and possible to use total score by related to item scores of variables.
When Table 1 is examined, it can be said that the answers of participants associated with each dimension predominantly range in the low level. In other words, the level of emotional labor is low. While the scores of the dimension of surface acting and deep acting are at low level in the context of scale, genuine emotions is higher compared to the other two dimensions in the context of scale. This case can be evaluated in such a way that employees reflect their genuine emotions to their patients in the working environment.

4.3 Findings about Burnout Emotion

In order to determine the levels of burnout of those participating in the study, the items taking place in Table 2 were asked in the form of 5-point likert scale. In the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “disagreeing at all” and 5 is in the meaning of agreeing in very high level. The results are seen as follows:

Table 2. Scale of Burnout

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale of Burnout</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I am alienated to my job.</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel myself emotionally exhausted after return from the job.</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I wake up in the morning, I cannot bear to this more</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Striving with the people having problem is really back-breaking</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel being sick of the work I do</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that my job constrained me</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I work too much on my job</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directly working with people is creating stress on me</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I reach at the end of the way</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Exhaustion</td>
<td>24.59</td>
<td>7.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a necessity of my job, I feel that the people I meet behave as if they are not human being.</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since I have begun to work on this job, I became harder against the people.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am afraid that this job increasingly made me solid</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a necessity of my job, I do not care what the people I meet are.</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a necessity of my job, I feel that the people I meet behave as if I have created the problems they meet.</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td>13.26</td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a necessity of job, I immediately recognize what the people I meet feel.</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a necessity of my job, I find the most appropriate solution ways for the problems of the people I meet.</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanks to job I carry out, I believe that I make a contribution to the life of people.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a power to be able to do a lot of thing.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a necessity of my job, I create a comfortable atmosphere among the people I meet.</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After a close work with the people, I feel myself stimulated.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I obtained a lot of considerable success on this work.</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In my job, I approach to emotional problems in unruffled way</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Personal Achievement</td>
<td>26.66</td>
<td>5.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total *</td>
<td>65.22</td>
<td>11.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (i) n=107, (ii) in the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “I definitely disagree” and 5 is in the meaning of “I definitely agree”, (iii). According to two way Anova Test of Friedman, \( \chi^2=638.976; p<0.001 \); the results are statistically significant.

When Table 2 is examined, it can be said that the answers of participants associated with each dimension predominantly range in the low level. In other words, the level of burnout of the participants is low. The scores of the dimension of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization are lower in the context of scale compared to the dimension of reduced personal achievement. When the results in the table are generally evaluated, it can be put forward that the employees perceived burnout as reduced personal achievement.

* Cronbach's alpha values of the variables examined after added points related to variables. Cronbach's alpha value of the scale is 0.800. The Cronbach's alpha values show that the scale was highly reliability and possible to use total score by related to item scores of variables.
4.4 Findings about Job Performance

In order to determine the levels of job performance of those participating in the study, the items taking place in Table 3 were asked in the form of 5-point likert scale. In the scale, 1 is in the meaning of “disagreeing at all” and 5 is in the meaning of agreeing in very high level. The results are seen as follows:

Table 5. Job Performance of Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale of Job Performance</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think that my professional knowledge is enough</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am skillful in performing my job.</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that my professional abilities are adequate.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am quick in performing my job.</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task Performance</strong></td>
<td><strong>15.83</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.88</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am interested to my job.</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I like the hospital.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am interested and helpful to the patients.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that my affiliation and respect to the patients are adequate.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I have care and attention in performing my job.</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I work with my workmate in harmony and cooperation.</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that my respect and obedience are full to my superiors.</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am very glad about my job.</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am honest and trustworthy.</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I work cleanly and tidily.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am kind and cheerful.</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I fit to the health rules.</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am friendly and helpful.</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am patient.</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I have understanding and tolerance</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am resolved.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am energetic and sympathetic</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I can decide on my own about my job.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I have responsibility emotion.</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that my social relationships are positive.</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Contextual Performance**

| General Total * | 81.30 | 16.22|

Notes: (i) n=119, (ii) in the scale, I is in the meaning of “I definitely disagree” and 5, in the meaning of “I definitely agree” (iii). According to two way Anova Test of Friedman, $\chi^2=632.303; p<0.001$; the results are statistically significant.

It is seen that job performances of the participants in the context of scale are higher in general meaning. In the context, the dimensions of contextual performance are at higher level compared to the task performance. This situation can be evaluated in such a way that the working environment and objective conditions forming this environment are positively perceived.

4.5 Hypotheses of Study

The evaluation about hypotheses developed in the context of study will be done in this section the first hypothesis of this study is to scrutinize whether or not there is a relationship between the level of emotional labor and burnout emotion of health staff. In order to evaluate this situation, the correlation level between the dimensions forming the scales was regarded and the level of relationship was calculated by using Pearson correlation coefficient (Table 6).

* Cronbach's alpha values of the variables examined after added points related to variables. Cronbach's alpha value of the scale is 0.943. The Cronbach's alpha values show that the scale was highly reliability and possible to use total score by related to item scores of variables.
Table 6. Correlation Matrix for Level of Emotional Labor and Level of Burnout

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Surface Acting</th>
<th>Deep Acting</th>
<th>Genuine Emotions</th>
<th>Emotional Labor</th>
<th>Emotional Burnout</th>
<th>Depersonalization</th>
<th>Reduced Personal Achievement</th>
<th>Burnout</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surface Acting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep Acting</td>
<td>.234(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuine Emotions</td>
<td>-.379(**)</td>
<td>-.051</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Labor</td>
<td>.794(**)</td>
<td>.708(**)</td>
<td>-.0016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Exhaustion</td>
<td>.435(**)</td>
<td>.196(*)</td>
<td>-.211(*)</td>
<td>.382(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td>.488(**)</td>
<td>.226(*)</td>
<td>-.223(*)</td>
<td>.436(**)</td>
<td>.722(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Personal Achievement</td>
<td>-.0168</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.235(**)</td>
<td>-.0025</td>
<td>-.0106</td>
<td>-.206(*)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burnout</td>
<td>.390(**)</td>
<td>.241(**)</td>
<td>-.0115</td>
<td>.401(**)</td>
<td>.882(**)</td>
<td>.748(**)</td>
<td>.309(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **p<.001, *p<.05

As seen in correlation matrix in Table 6, there are different situations in correlational relationships between the dimensions forming the scale. There is a positive direction and statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and surface acting, while there is a negative direction and statically significant between reduced personal achievement. There is a negative directional and statistically significant relationship between emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and genuine emotions, while there is a positive directional and statically significant relationship between reduced personal achievement. When regarded in general meaning, there is a positive directional and statistically significant relationship between burnout emotion and the level of emotional labor. In the context of these results, Hypothesis 1 putting forward that there is a statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor and burnout emotion of health staff was accepted.

In the second hypothesis of this study, it is put forward that there is a relationship between the level of emotional labor and job performance of health staff. In order to evaluate this situation, the correlation level between the dimensions forming the scales was regarded and the level of relationship was calculated by using Pearson correlation coefficient (Table 7).

Table 7: Correlation matrix for the level of emotional labor and job performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Surface Acting</th>
<th>Deep Acting</th>
<th>Genuine Emotions</th>
<th>Emotional Labor</th>
<th>Task Performance</th>
<th>Contextual Conference</th>
<th>Job Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surface Acting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep Acting</td>
<td>.234**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genuine Emotions</td>
<td>-.079**</td>
<td>-.051</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Labor</td>
<td>.079**</td>
<td>.708(**)</td>
<td>-.0016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Performance</td>
<td>-.0140</td>
<td>-.036</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>-.099</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextual Performance</td>
<td>-.0385**</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.238(**)</td>
<td>-.217(*)</td>
<td>.623(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Performance</td>
<td>-.0360**</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.224(*)</td>
<td>-.206(*)</td>
<td>.741(**)</td>
<td>.987(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **p<.001, *p<.05

As seen in correlation matrix in Table 7, there are different situations in the correlation relationships between the dimensions forming the scale. There is a negative directional relationship the task performance and contextual performance and surface acting. There are a negative directional relationship between task performance and deep acting, while there is a positive directional relationship contextual performance and deep acting. There is positive directional and statistically significant relationship between task performance and genuine emotions. When regarded in general meaning, between the level of emotional labor and job performance there is a negative directional and statistically significant relationship. In the context of these results, hypothesis 2 putting forward that there is a statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor and job performance was accepted.
5. Conclusion

In this study, the relationships between the emotional labor and burnout levels and job performance of the employees of health institute were scrutinized. According to the results of the study, it was determined that while the levels of emotional labor of the employees were in the middle level, their levels of burnout are low and their job performance is in high level. The emotional labor was assessed in three sub-dimensions and it was determined that there was statistically significant relationship between these sub-dimensions and burnout, also assessed in three sub-dimensions. It was concluded that between emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and genuine emotions, there was a negative directional and statistically significant relationship, that while between reduced personal achievement, there was a relationship positive directional and statistically significant. When the relationship between emotional labor and job performance was examined, according to the results of study, it was determined that there was a statistically significant relationship between the level of emotional labor, and job performance of health staff. In addition, in the scope of study, it was identified that the levels of emotional labor of the individuals working in health institute affected their levels of burnout and job performance. This conclusion has a quality supporting the studies carried out in the literature (Larson and Yao, 2005; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Grandey, 2000; Kim, 2008; Ünlü and Yürür, 2011; Onay, 2011). In this context, that the further studies, due to some limitation in health sector, are carried out in the different sector in different sample size can be suggested in terms of generalizability of study. Let’s make this explanation different slightly.

References


An Empirical Assessment on the Relations Between the Euro Exchange Rate, Trade Balance and the Consumer Price Index: Case of Albania

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Abstract

As economic theory postulates, there are some relationships between currency exchange rates, Consumer Price Index and External Trade Balance. Normally, as exchange rates for the national currency go up, imports are supposed to go up as well, whereas exports are expected to go down. The opposite happens with a devaluing national currency. Additionally, Consumer Price Index is expected to go up with more expensive euros or dollars against ALL. More imports, particularly imports with higher prices, mean higher consumer prices, in a country relying heavily on imports. We undertake this study to empirically and statistically estimate these relationships, as far as there are no models used from Albanian institutions that deal with macroeconomic issues or forecasts. If these estimates confirm theory, this may mean that the economic principles, free and fair competition in particular, are working properly in Albania. In addition, we attempt to know how strong is correlation between these variables. Further on, we try to make short term forecasts for the exchange rates of euro. The indicators used in our model are predicting the trends and relations among exchange rate, CPI and trade balance, although the data series are limited.

1. Problem

The economic theory tells us that the exchange rate between the national currency and exports or imports, therefore the trade balance, has a connection: the depreciation of the national currency (ALL) versus foreign currencies (ex. Euro (EUR) as the main foreign currency in the Albanian economy), and this evaluation, makes the imported goods to rise in the domestic market price so it is expected an increase of the Consumer Price Index, CPI) and exported goods are sold cheaper in foreign markets. This promotes exports at a time when the goods are exported to overseas market competitive by improving the country's trade balance. On the other hand if the national currency is overevaluated, the effect is the opposite. Thus, the exchange rate becomes effective regulatory mechanism in international trade competition between different countries. This is more pronounced among countries with a relatively important position in international trade (let us remember the impact of the fluctuation of currency exchange rate between the Chinese economy and that of the U.S. in trade balance between the two countries. Obviously this strong connection is expected to occur at a time when competition is perfect and variables are measured without any error (this usually expresses the trade volume and exchange rate that exists in the market). On the other hand, in terms of low weight still Albanian exports the weak competition in international market fluctuations in exchange rates between our currency and EUR ALL- s will affect not with the same intensity the fluctuation in consumer prices and the trade balance of the country. Therefore, the above mentioned economic theory also explains that between CPI, Exchange Rate and Trade Balance should be a positive dependency, if the euro becomes more expensive, in an economy where imports of consumer goods are important, goods and services are expected to become more expensive, so the CPI will increase . Moreover, the trade balance in favor of imports deepened, especially for consumer goods is expected to increase in the CPI, hence inflation.
In this case we can speak of a kind of "import" of inflation, especially when the prices of these goods out grow. In this way the growth of imports may not only be due to increased physical volume of imports but also of their value due to higher prices of imports.

But these reports have not been tested or evaluated for the Albanian economy, so here is a related problem of not recognising these effects on economy.

2. Objectives

In this research we have the following objectives:
   i. Empirical assessment of the impact of the euro exchange rate on the level of the INDEX Consumer Price Index (CPI)
   ii. Empirical assessment of the impact on the trade balance level INDEX Consumer Price Index (CPI)
   iii. Empirical assessment of the impact of the euro exchange rate on the trade balance level
   iv. Build one or several alternative models for short-term prognosis exchange rate and CPI

3. Methodology and data

The methodology we used in this research is the statistical and econometric modeling, mainly:
   a. Regression models multisectorial
   b. Hammering double exponential constant (mainly Holt-Winter)
   c. ARIMA models

The data we have received from the site of the Bank of Albania. They are time series with monthly terms, starting from 2007 until the end of 2011. Before 2007 there is no data for the three variables simultaneously, so we are limited in the time period where no data for the three variables.

Variables for which we have data received three, as mentioned in the above discussion of the problem:
   - Exchange rate of the euro expressed in lek lek for one euro, February Course
   - The trade balance in euros, expressed as the difference between exports with imports, February Balance
   - Consumer Price Index, expressed in %, February CPI.

4. The research results

4.1 Trends and Indicators

The data show that the exchange rate (the euro) has a positive dynamics, as shown in Chart 1 below:

But the course dynamics is characterized by seasonal light shaking. Below we present quarterly seasonal indices of course, where the positive effects appear in the second season and the third:

Table 1: Seasonal Indices of the Exchange Rate EUR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tremujori Index</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100,109</td>
<td>100,247</td>
<td>100,016</td>
<td>99,6271</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A similar dynamics is also presented in CPI (Graphic 2):
The CPI dynamics has seasonal indexes:

**Table 2: Seasonal Indexes of CPI**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quarter</th>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>100,061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>99,9673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>99,7768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>100,195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the dynamics of the trade balance is as follows:

**4.2 Empirical Dependence**

When viewed alone, it appears that the trade balance does not depend significantly on the exchange rate:

**Table 3: Balance's dependency from the exchange rate**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-255.7995</td>
<td>69.07561</td>
<td>-3.703180</td>
<td>0.0005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RATE</td>
<td>3.329549</td>
<td>3.113914</td>
<td>1.069249</td>
<td>0.2895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RATE(-1)</td>
<td>-2.811532</td>
<td>3.115805</td>
<td>-0.902345</td>
<td>0.3707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.033792</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted Ri</td>
<td>-0.000716</td>
<td>St. Err. Var. Corr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regress SE</td>
<td>29.83942</td>
<td>Akaike criteria</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHCM</td>
<td>49861.88</td>
<td>Shvarc criteria</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>-282.5319</td>
<td>Stat. F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stat. d</td>
<td>1.223021</td>
<td>Prob(Stat. F)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We identify the balance does not depend on the exchange rate significantly, although note that the growth rate has a tendency to balance grow!.

**Table 4: CPI dependence of foreign exchange and / or trade balance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>29.64717</td>
<td>4.443233</td>
<td>6.672432</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RATE</td>
<td>0.566246</td>
<td>0.033784</td>
<td>16.76061</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.828867</td>
<td>Mes. Var. Varur</td>
<td></td>
<td>104.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CPI statistically depends on the exchange rate, the rate increased by 1 ALL CPI is expected to rise by 0.55%, but the error term is autocorrelation first order of important. (See table below):

**Table 5: Correlations for the error term**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Autocorrelation</th>
<th>Partial Correlation</th>
<th>AC</th>
<th>PAC</th>
<th>Stat-Q</th>
<th>Prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.*****</td>
<td>.*****</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>43.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.*****</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
<td>72.450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.****</td>
<td>.*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.513</td>
<td>-0.119</td>
<td>89.638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.***</td>
<td>.*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.365</td>
<td>-0.065</td>
<td>98.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.**</td>
<td>.*</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.213</td>
<td>-0.118</td>
<td>101.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.*</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>102.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CPI depends on the course without delay, about the same as from the course with a delay, but the course is too late kolinear with a course without delay and need not be kept in the model.

To eliminate the effect of the first order autocorrelation in the series back and CPI Course in stationary chain through differentiation, after which we assess:

**Table 6: Dependence chain CPI differences on exchange rate difference**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.169136</td>
<td>0.123568</td>
<td>1.368769</td>
<td>0.1764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D(RATE)</td>
<td>0.220509</td>
<td>0.097069</td>
<td>2.271669</td>
<td>0.0269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.083019</td>
<td>Avg. Var. Corr</td>
<td>0.220339</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted Ri</td>
<td>0.066931</td>
<td>St. Err. Var. Corr</td>
<td>0.966112</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regress SE</td>
<td>0.933220</td>
<td>Akaike Criteria</td>
<td>2.732960</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHKM</td>
<td>49.64133</td>
<td>Shwarc Criteria</td>
<td>2.803385</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>-78.62232</td>
<td>Hannan-Quinn Criteria</td>
<td>2.780451</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob(Stat. F)</td>
<td>0.026899</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We notice that the difference in the exchange rate affects significantly increase in the difference of the CPI increase.

**Table 7: Dependence of the rate of CPI, as well as a dynamic exchange with delay**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable corr: İÇK</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>30.14623</td>
<td>4.511657</td>
<td>6.681853</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate</td>
<td>0.478304</td>
<td>0.203385</td>
<td>2.351722</td>
<td>0.0222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate(-1)</td>
<td>0.084578</td>
<td>0.203508</td>
<td>0.415601</td>
<td>0.6793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.828374</td>
<td>Avg. Var. Corr</td>
<td>104.1017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted Ri</td>
<td>0.822244</td>
<td>St. Err. Var. Corr</td>
<td>4.622639</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regress SE</td>
<td>1.948954</td>
<td>Akaike Criteria</td>
<td>4.221972</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHKM</td>
<td>212.7117</td>
<td>Shwarc Criteria</td>
<td>4.327610</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>-121.5482</td>
<td>Stat. F</td>
<td>135.1453</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stat. d</td>
<td>0.270781</td>
<td>Prob(Stat. F)</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, we note that in our country the exchange rate change is reflected in the change of the CPI, CPI therefore
depends on the course, but since the error term is high autocorrelation coefficient of the first order, the terms may include an AR (1) in the model. In this case there is a major upgrade of the model, because the coefficient of determination ranges from 0.828 to 0.96. This model can be used for prognosis:

**Table 8: Model AR(1) for the rate**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable corr: İÇK</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>76.761767</td>
<td>15.70501</td>
<td>4.887725</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate</td>
<td>0.240204</td>
<td>0.098887</td>
<td>2.429069</td>
<td>0.0164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AR(1)</td>
<td>0.962537</td>
<td>0.041179</td>
<td>23.37438</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.960530</td>
<td>Avg. Var. Corr</td>
<td>104.1017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajusted Ri</td>
<td>0.959120</td>
<td>St. Err. Var. Corr</td>
<td>4.622639</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regress SE</td>
<td>0.934641</td>
<td>Akaike Criteria</td>
<td>2.752201</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHCM</td>
<td>48.91905</td>
<td>Shwarc Criteria</td>
<td>2.857839</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>-78.18994</td>
<td>Stat. F</td>
<td>681.3948</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stat. d</td>
<td>1.695406</td>
<td>Prob(Stat. F)</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another model, competitive with the first, would be as follows:

**Table 9: An alternative autoregression model for the Course**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable varur: KURSI</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2.295871</td>
<td>2.971653</td>
<td>0.772590</td>
<td>0.4432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate (-1)</td>
<td>1.324907</td>
<td>0.143251</td>
<td>9.248853</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate (-2)</td>
<td>-0.447166</td>
<td>0.230150</td>
<td>-1.942935</td>
<td>0.0573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate (-3)</td>
<td>0.105926</td>
<td>0.144472</td>
<td>0.733196</td>
<td>0.4667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.974065</td>
<td>Avg. Var. Corr</td>
<td>131.6246</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajusted Ri</td>
<td>0.972597</td>
<td>St. Err. Var. Corr</td>
<td>7.539687</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regress SE</td>
<td>1.248103</td>
<td>Akaike Criteria</td>
<td>3.348718</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHCM</td>
<td>82.56135</td>
<td>Shwarc Criteria</td>
<td>3.492090</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>-91.43847</td>
<td>Stat. F</td>
<td>663.5301</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stat. d</td>
<td>1.906086</td>
<td>Prob(Stat. F)</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The exchange rate depends on the **dynamic delay** of up to two, in other words, the exchange is a process AR (2), this model can be used for prognosis of CPI. CPI depends on the course, but to a large extent and also the trade balance (Table 10).

CPI model with two variables supports the analysis by means of indicators Cp (Mallou), as follows. Model with two variables has little Cp with the two models with only one of the variables. The model with the two variables has the highest coefficient of determination adjusted (Table 11).

**Table 10: Dependence of the rate of CPI and trade balance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>26.60175</td>
<td>4.830357</td>
<td>5.507202</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BALANCE</td>
<td>-0.012515</td>
<td>0.008244</td>
<td>-1.518098</td>
<td>0.1345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RATE</td>
<td>0.571701</td>
<td>0.033603</td>
<td>17.01322</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>0.835517</td>
<td>Avg. Var. Corr</td>
<td>104.0000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajusted Ri</td>
<td>0.829746</td>
<td>St. Err. Var. Corr</td>
<td>4.650497</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regress SE</td>
<td>1.918880</td>
<td>Akaike Criteria</td>
<td>4.190067</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHCM</td>
<td>209.8797</td>
<td>Shwarc Criteria</td>
<td>4.294784</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>-122.7020</td>
<td>Stat. F</td>
<td>144.7707</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stat. d</td>
<td>0.319577</td>
<td>Prob(Stat. F)</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11: Cpi and the Adjusted Coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard Average mistake</th>
<th>Ajusted R²</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Cp</th>
<th>Included variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.8821</td>
<td>83.5517</td>
<td>82.9746</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>AB¹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.76492</td>
<td>82.8867</td>
<td>82.5917</td>
<td>3.30462</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.6271</td>
<td>1.69492</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>290.45</td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But this model suffers from autocorrelation in the error term and we will preffer CPI model with only the exchange rate.

5. Prognosis exchange rate

In the short-term prognosis are exercised with exponential flattening method of Holt. This model is compared with a number of other models and statistical indicators (standard error) better than almost everyone else. Only one of them is somewhat smaller (see below) but Holt model takes into account seasonal fluctuations in prognosis, so we preferred this model.

- Holt model with two constants: 0.9999 and 0.0344, with error 1:23
- linear model: rate = -149 552 +0.393 * t, with error 3:08
- flattening model with a simple exponential constant 0.9999, with error 1223
- flattening exponential model with constant linear Brown 0.7878, with error 1295
- flattening exponential model with three constant sheshuese Brown 0.868, 0.0001, 0.0517, with error 1361.

Prognosis for the 12 months of 2012 with the Holt model is as following table:

Table 12: Course prognosis model of Holt

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Foracast</th>
<th>Left limit of the prognosis</th>
<th>Right limit of the prognosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12-1</td>
<td>139,132</td>
<td>136.820</td>
<td>141,444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-2</td>
<td>139,486</td>
<td>136.156</td>
<td>142,816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-3</td>
<td>139,326</td>
<td>135.187</td>
<td>143,465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-4</td>
<td>138,946</td>
<td>134.105</td>
<td>143,787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-5</td>
<td>139,781</td>
<td>134.251</td>
<td>145,310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-6</td>
<td>140,136</td>
<td>133.970</td>
<td>146,302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-7</td>
<td>139,974</td>
<td>133.221</td>
<td>146,727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-8</td>
<td>139,592</td>
<td>132.284</td>
<td>146,899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-9</td>
<td>140,430</td>
<td>132.518</td>
<td>148,342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-10</td>
<td>140,766</td>
<td>132.303</td>
<td>149,268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-11</td>
<td>140,623</td>
<td>131.608</td>
<td>149,637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-12</td>
<td>140,237</td>
<td>130.715</td>
<td>149,760</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The latest data on the Balance of Payments for 2012 show a net current account deficit of EUR 671,1 million at the end of Third Quarter (Q3). This is estimated as 9.2 % of nominal GDP. Trade balance amounted a deficit of EUR 1,481 million with the main indicators given in the table.

Table 13: Albania's BoP: Trade Balance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current Acct (EUR mln)</th>
<th>9M 2011</th>
<th>9M 2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CA / GDP</td>
<td>-16.30%</td>
<td>-12.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Balance</td>
<td>11.10%</td>
<td>9.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Acct (EUR mln)</td>
<td>-1.583</td>
<td>-1.4814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source: Bank of Albania</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ A=Rate, B=Balance
The level of economic activity during 2012 was slowed down with its impact at main indicators considered in this study. However the exchange rate was pretty stable with annual CPI level of 2.4%.

According to the declarations of the Bank of Albania, the inflation rate increased progressively during first three quarters of 2012, and fell at the end of the year.

The exchange rate EUR/ALL was almost at the limits foreseen at the prognosis of the Holt model as shown in the annual data graph:

Source: Bank of Albania

6. Key Conclusions and Recommendations

The indicators used in our model are predicting the trends and relations among exchange rate, CPI and trade balance, although the data series are limited.

Some of the main conclusions drawn from the above analysis are:

a. The level of consumer prices in Albania significantly affected by the exchange rate of the euro. This is due to the large share of consumer goods occupy our imports.

b. Trade balance, contrary to what is expected on theoretical grounds, fails to significantly influence the way that the exchange rate. This may perhaps because competition in our economy is not yet fully in regional trade and beyond. This would require more in-depth studies to clarify.

c. Consumer price level depends to some extent, though not so significant, the trade balance. This can be explained by the fact that our trade balance is very negative, and price changes in the global arena transferred through imports in the level of consumer prices in the country in what is known as imported inflation.

Some of the main recommendations are:

a) Monitoring and surveillance of exchange rate can be a tool to keep under control the acceptable level of consumer prices, and maybe should be used especially when fluctuations (humiliating) sensitive to our currency.

b) To assess the relative role of the exchange rate on the trade balance, we would recommend a thorough study and evaluation of factors affecting the level of trade balance, as well as an analysis of how competition works in foreign trade.

c) Also analysis, could split and take into consideration the main important groups of CPI basket and main contributors on Albania’s trade balance. These might give more clarifications and prove stronger linkages on the factors considered in this approach.

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M.Osmani: Statistikë, Tiranë, 2011
Monetary policy report of BOA Q4 2012
The Current Status and Challenges of the Human Resource Developments in Kosovo

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to explore the status and challenges of human resources and development in Kosovo. Literature review suggested that government intervention, vocational and technical education, social network, and organizational structures are the key factors that influence human resources and development practices in the country. Beyond that the paper aims to compare the evaluation of performance in other sectors of well and then through comparison has a purpose to promote value-added production and skilled workforce in the organizations via developing various national labor enhancement policies, strategies and regulations and providing a set of training subsidies for employee in all sectors. Human resource development has become an essential component the development process. This is due to the fact that any development process is driven by the human factor. It is further urge, that policy formulation is a journey with challenges. The strength of the policy implementation lies in identifying such challenges, and finding ways of overcoming them. Lastly, the discussion reveals that human resource development is closely linked to other human resource factors that pertain at a given period, such as recruitment policies, labor market patterns, the age and experience of staff etc. Human resource development policies therefore must be reviewed from time to time to keep in step with the changing environment. It also highlights the key challenges faced, the lessons learnt and the way forward in enhancing sustainable human resource development in the country.

Keywords: Human resources, development, challenges, training, strategy, policy, management

1. Introduction

Kosovo's economy until the late 60s has been well developed. The economic development started in the 70s and up to 80 years-it has been a good development, but political instability of recent years '80 and '90-tions made to the Kosovo economy gradually be destroyed and the economy verge happened in '98 and '99 war between Kosovo and Serbia. Therefore, current education sector in Republic of Kosovo is characterized by extensive reform efforts in all sub-sectors, addressing key challenges of increasing participation and improving equity and quality of education with limited resources. The last decade has seen a proliferation of new legislation, construction of schools and classrooms and setting up of new institutions. Human resource development has become an essential component the development process. This is due to the fact that any development process is driven by the human factor. It is further urge, that policy formulation is a journey with challenges. The strength of the policy implementation lies in identifying such challenges, and finding ways of overcoming them. Human resource development is closely linked to other human resource factors that pertain at a given period, such as recruitment policies, labor market patterns, the age and experience of staff etc. Human resource development policies therefore must be reviewed from time to time to keep in step with the changing environment. It also highlights the key challenges faced, the lessons learnt and the way forward in enhancing sustainable human resource development in the country.

Based on the theory and the information that will collect in Kosovo’s companies will give recommendations on how the human resources should be treated, what methods and what tools to use companies to develop human resources. As noted in the introduction to this paper that Human Resources are the source that give life organization, is therefore
the most important resources in the organization and handling of human resources will need to be special. In this study, we will use quantitative and qualitative method. Quantitative method we will conduct survey to collect data from different organizations and institutions for human resources and development, and collect data from the staff that are treated as human resources. The main objective of this study is to explore the status and challenges of human resources and development in Kosovo.

2. Research Methodology

The research will be conducted by collecting data from available primary and secondary sources such as surveys, statutes, cases, books, encyclopedia, journals, seminar, conference papers and internet materials. A survey has been conducted with the staff of the different organizations and institutions in Kosovo. The aim of this survey is to assess and collect data on the HR development, performance and challenges faced by organizations and institutions in Kosovo.

2.1 Objectives

The main purpose of this study is to explore the status and challenges of human resources and development in Kosovo. Literature review suggested that government intervention, vocational and technical education, social network, and organizational structures are the key factors that influence human resources and development practices in the country. To understand the current status of HR development in Kosovo by identifying:

- key HR development aspects of interest
- the membership status and how HR Association could contribute further
- strengths and weaknesses of HR professionals
- HR challenges faced by organizations

2.2 Key HR development aspects of interest in Kosovo

The majorities of professional and administrative staff working in independent institutions are civil servants, and are paid according to the relevant legislation in place. In most organizations, there is a person covering HR but who cover it varies as: owner/manager, HR Professionals, accounting and administrativ positions. The HR development is mainly focused on the following HR aspects: recruitment, learning and development, personal administration and remunartion and benefits. Most of the organizations in Kosovo do not have proper process of the HR aspects. Only few organizations have separate department for HR, which tells us that HR is still in beginning process of development. According to one survey, one-fourth of independent institutions have one or more senior positions where the incumbent's mandate has expired. In fact, there have been numerous cases when the appointment procedure took more than one year, which severely hampered the work of these organizations. “The State of Independent Institutions in Kosovo”. For example, the recruitment of the first local Ombudsperson had taken four years, with the process finally concluded in 2009. The subsequent recruitment of the five Deputy ombudspersons took place between 2010 and 2011 and lasted more than one year. The recruitment of the IMC Council has also encountered serious delays. The mandate of all the board members has expired, with three of them vacant for more than one year. As a result, the IMC Council has been unable to make any decision over the past year due to the lack of quorum as its board membership was decimated by mandate expiry. (July 2012 Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, “The State of Independent Institutions in Kosovo”, July 2008. http://kalyan-city.blogspot.com/2011/04/what-is-management-definitions-meaning.html). The reasons for these delays include the poor advance planning for upcoming vacancies and a lack of suitable candidates once the appointment procedure commences. Therefore, there is need and interest for developing the HR aspects in most of the big organizations in Kosovo. The weakness of HR professionals in Kosovo according to the survey that we have done are:

2.2.1 Lack of professional experience

As we know that Kosovo is a new independent country, with only 5 years of independence, so by far we had a lot of problems in front of us. Due to this we couldn’t advance our professional background as a country, as well as in the HR area we had obstacles. We didn’t have any professional experience on HR, this was sort of new for us, so we had a lot to do in this case.
2.2.2 Lack of qualification

Also, qualification was another issue of us. Our universities, nor public nor private didn’t offer programs on HR, so we didn’t actually have a clue. The only source for HR qualified people were from those who studied abroad, even though most of them didn’t come back to their home country, causing that brain drain effect, which was destroying us as a country.

2.2.3 Low level of business sector awareness

As we mentioned previously Kosovo had a lot of problems on professional experience and qualification. So, these lacks rewarded us with a low level of business sector awareness, where unqualified people opened companies and small businesses, so they weren’t aware of HR area, and how important is it for the good of a company or business. So, due to this we had unsatisfied employees, with no rights, whom were obliged to work, because they needed money.

2.2.4 Low level of problems awareness

In this internet world, is impossible to not know about the new approaches on professional field. Also, we can see about this HR thing, read more about it and get familiar with. But, the problem is that we close our eyes to this new approaches and go on with the old. This is the issue on problems awareness. We (business sector) only make the money flow, and don’t care about the workers, who liked or not they have to work. So, this is the issue in Kosovo, we see things, but we close our eyes when it comes to implement them in our businesses. The major HR challenges in Kosovo organizations can be foreseen as below:

2.3 Changing culture

This passing years, and also after the independence we were opened to new things that were coming to us. One of those were organizations and businesses from abroad. They brought within also a new culture, which was a bit hard for us to adapt. This also caused our HR not so productive in this field.

2.4 Motivation

Kosovars are known as very optimistic people, and also as hard workers. But, as everyone we need motivation to do a better job. And we can say that we lack of motivation. We don’t have enough creativity, new ideas, aggregators that would motivate employees to do a better job and also be more creative by themselves.

2.5 Recruiting professionals

If we want to be better on the future, for sure we have to see where problems are and fix them. We had a chance to know about qualifications, professional experience and other lacks on our way. So, we have to recruit professionals, as national ones, also from abroad that would learn us and expand the knowledge about HR importance. 

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1 Baki Koleci, Fetah Reçica & Neritan Turkeshi; Menaxhment; fq 28, Universiteti AAB
2.6 Results for the survey

Graph. 1.

The chart shows that of 209 respondents 33% are run by state organizations directly or indirectly, 28% of medium businesses, NGOs and 22% of small businesses by 17%. From this we see that small businesses have a low level of knowledge of HR and HR do not pay attention.

Graph. 2.

When we asked how long they have been working at the same company, answered by 209 respondents only 11% in alternative 1-5 years, 6-10 years 39% and 50% 11-15 years, these answers do not understand that in Kosovo have a permanent workers, ie a worker employed in a company and the company does not change. Here you have two means of assessing, on the one hand we have a no movement of workers, which makes employees feel that they have different experiences, which remain less skilled and less flexible in performing, but on the other hand if the value of the company is positive because if companies invest in these human resources are sure will not lose after a while.
From answered that we get 42% see the owner or manager who deals with human resources, accountant handles 13%, 9% have not taken one and 36% have a professional HR expert, ie by 64% in our survey Kosovo, HR is not treated professionally, only 36 have professional workers who deal with HR.

Graph.4.

From this we see that the recruitment function becomes 47% of owners and managers and 53% of the unit's HR professional. Also see these responses have yet to be desired in this respect as this feature still be owners or managers and not allowed to work professional people who are trained in this field.

Graph.5.

On the question whether an employee evaluation procedures in organizations have received positive responses 65% and 11% are in progress processing of employee evaluation procedure. From this we see that progress in the evaluation of employees, since companies are developing procedures for evaluating its employees.
Question of who performs the evaluation of employees responded to the HR department and 55% to 9%, external consultants and 36% have taken owners and managers. Also in this regard, we see an improvement in relation to the first question, which dealt with who deal with HR.

Graph.7.

Wanting to identify on the identification of training needs of employees, our question whether the identification procedure of training 56% responded that the identification procedures for training and 44% answered NO.

Graph.8.

The chart shows that 71% of organizations hold more than one training for their employees, 16% of organizations do not keep training at all and 13% of organizations only keep the job training.

Graph.9.
Asked about the changes in structure, have 73% have a negative response signal that these companies have not yet realized that there must be changes in the treatment of HR to achieve success in the market.

The priorities identified by respondents to the professionalism of HR are: Ambition and improvement, professionalism, communication skills, flexibility and adoptivity, competence, creativity, motivation, recognition of the legislature, loyalty, and mediation role attribute for team work.

According to the research we draw these vulnerabilities for HR: Lack of professional experience, lack of qualifications, low level of awareness, lack of targets.
On the question of whether you are part of an association of HR have a negative 91% and 9% positive response. From this we see that organizations generally do not deal with human resources, the source that gives life to a company that is the source without which all the company would not have a value.

3. Conclusions / Recomendations

Based on the study and survey that we have done we can argue that HR status in Kosovo is still in development process and there is a lot of need for improvements and changes. So, in order to improve human resources in Kosovo there is a need for new training modules and practices where employed can be trained and updated with new knowledge and be more productive. Another thing that needs to be done is to reform the education system, this can help employees to gain more knowledge regarding the needs of the market and at the same time organizations will find easier to select and make decision for the right employees. Training abroad is also one thing that needs to be done and can help a lot to these companies that operate outside Kosovo because as we mentioned above after the independence we were opened to new things that were coming to us. One of those were organizations and businesses from abroad. They brought within also a new culture, which was a bit hard for us to adapt. This also caused our HR not so productive in this field. At the end we need also to have a new information sources such as professional studies, periodical issues, internet forums in order to help organizations to have proper process of the HR development aspects.

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The Development of the Service Sector in Albania and Its Future

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Abstract

Today citizens of the modern world are living in an economy that is increasingly based on services. The service sector is not anymore a minor part of the overall economy, but a major sector adding lots of value to the economy. The service industry represents the fastest growing economic sector. The objective of the paper is to analyze the service sector in Albania for the past few years and compare it with other countries within the European Union and countries in the Balkan area. Most of the workforce in Albania is employed in the service sector, marketing numerous types of services to customers such as: food, personal care, entertainment, banking, insurance, transport, consultancy, tourism, office services, professional services, etc. Over the last 20 years, Albania has transformed from an agricultural economy to a service-oriented economy. The service sector in Albania is new and dynamic. Two main services where foreign direct investment is oriented are telecommunications and financial intermediation, 23% and 33% respectively. Telecommunications is the most dynamic service sector in the Albanian economy. The main aim of this research paper is to portray an analytical view of the Albanian service sector, their quality and the future development. The paper will provide information on services which are not well developed and have huge growth potential. The methodology employed in the paper is secondary research of accessible literature, statistic reports for OCED countries, EU countries from Eurostat, World Bank, Albanian Statistics Institute (INSTAT), as well as the Albanian Ministry of Finance and other recognized institutions.

Keywords: service sector, telecommunication, development of services, employment

1. Definition of Service Sector

The service sector consists of the "soft" parts of the economy, i.e. activities where people offer their knowledge and time to improve productivity, performance, potential, and sustainability. The basic characteristic of this sector is the production of services instead of end products. Services (also known as "intangible goods") include attention, advice, experience, and discussion. There are many definitions of what constitutes a service. Many definitions of services focus on the fact that the service itself does not produce tangible output, although it can be a tool for producing some tangible outputs. The production of information is generally also regarded as a service, but some economists now attribute it to a fourth sector, the quaternary sector.

The tertiary sector of the economy (also known as the service sector or the service industry) is one of three economic sectors, the others being the secondary sector (approximately the same as manufacturing) and the primary sector (agriculture, fishing, and extraction of raw minerals). The tertiary sector of industry involves the provision of services to other businesses as well as final consumers. Services may involve transportation, distribution, and sale of goods from producer to consumer, as may happen in wholesaling and retailing, or may involve the provision of a service, such as in pest control or entertainment. The goods may be transformed in the process of providing the service, as
happens in the restaurant industry. However, the focus is on people interacting with people and serving the customer rather than transforming physical goods.

Examples of service sector employment include:
- Government
- Healthcare/hospitals
- Public health
- Waste disposal
- Education
- Banking
- Insurance
- Financial services
- Legal services
- Consulting
- News media
- Hospitality industry (e.g. restaurants, hotels, casinos)
- Tourism
- Retail sales
- Franchising
- Real estate
- Sales

2. Introduction

Today citizens of the modern world are living in economies that are increasingly based on services. Services are not a minor part of the economy, but are at the center of value creating within economies. The service industry represents the fastest growing economic sector in the world. According to Prof. Leonard Berry, from the marketing department at Texas A&M University "A good is an object while a service is an act, a performance, an effort" (Berry L. 1994). This industry is spread out in various areas that include finance, insurance, transportation, communications, utilities, wholesale trade, retail, tourism, education, health, professional services, food, housing, leasing, etc.

3. Economic Context of Albania

Albania is a country that changed from a controlled economy during the communist regime to a democratic country with an open economy in 1990. Although the country is rich in natural resources, the economy is mainly bolstered by emigrant annual remittances, services, and the agricultural sector. In contrast to many other transition economies, macroeconomic stability in Albania in the early 1990s was followed almost immediately by a non-inflationary economic upsurge with the exception of 1996 and 1997, when Albania was faced with a major economic crisis triggered by the collapse of the pyramid investment schemes. Total liabilities of these schemes were estimated at almost 50% of GDP in 1996. The economic impact of the crisis was severe; the Albanian lek lost half of its value. The loss of wealth in the pyramid schemes took the economy in a depression, remittances from abroad fell heavily (minus 47%) which directly reduced investments in construction and other industries.

Table 1: Key Macroeconomic indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>Million (ALL)</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The average inflation rate</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP Deflator</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real GDP Growth</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Billion (ALL)</td>
<td>1,089.3</td>
<td>1,148.1</td>
<td>1,222.5</td>
<td>1,297.7</td>
<td>1,346.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment Rate</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: INSTAT, Albanian National Bank, Ministry of Finance, World Bank
In the period after 1998, Albania experienced rapid economic growth (real GDP growth rates of more than 7% per year), low inflation and a stable currency. Albania continued to pursue a sustainable economic policy until 2009. The economy was able to absorb the impact of the financial crises that rippled around all international markets in 2008. The risk of the financial crises reaching the Albanian economy was far closer due to the fact that a huge number of the world's biggest economies were experiencing full out economic crises. Over the last 2-3 years, the effects of the global crisis have made the Albanian economy more sensitive, decreasing the GDP growth rate yearly until it reached 1.5% in 2012.

The slow decrease of GDP comes due to the close exposure the Albanian economy has with Greece and Italy. The main channels through which the Albanian economy is affected by developments in these countries are: demand for exports in report to remittances and foreign direct investment. In 2012 the country's economy was characterized by a slow but positive growth, stimulus fiscal policy, a relatively stable exchange rate, reduction of risk premiums, and low inflationary pressures from the demand side.

4. Current Situations in the Albanian Service Sector

Albania is a middle income country by Western European standards, with GDP per capita greater than several countries in the region. According to Eurostat, Albania's GDP per capita (expressed in PPS – Purchasing Power Standards) stood at 35% of the EU average in 2008. Unemployment rate of 13.3% is considerably lower than many countries in the Balkans. In 2012 Albania reached an unemployment level of 15%, versus 13.30% in 2011. Albania's economy is predominantly service-based. Agriculture accounts for 18.65% of GDP and employs 44.10% of the population. Manufacturing and other industries account for 15.82% of GDP and employ 19.90% of the population. Services accounts for 65.53% of the GDP and employs 36.00% of the population.

As is seen from the graph below in the years before 1990, the service sector made about 22.09% of GDP. The country's economy was mostly based on heavy industry and agriculture. The transition years from 1990 -1995 were difficult years for Albania and its economy. During these years heavy industry production was brought to a halt, and the entire economy was kept alive through remittances. The service sector was still in its infancy and contributed very little to the overall GDP, which increased with the consolidation of the rule of law and expansion of the private sector. Since 1995 the service sector became more consolidated and grew every year, until 2011 which made about 65.53% of GDP, the highest ever in the economy. A major reason why the service industry experienced such growth is due to the increase in efficiency of the postal service, telecommunications, banking sector, insurance companies, and transportation.

Fig. 1. Value added in the service sector as percent of GDP in Albania


Figure 2 shows the percentage of people employed throughout the Albanian economic sector. The service sector is still growing while other sectors are falling down in terms of employment. The current employment situation as is shown in figure 2 indicates a strong presence in agriculture with 44% of the workforce, followed by the services sector with 36%. Heavy industry is less developed and employs only 19.9% of all employees in Albania.
Fig. 2. Employment by sector of the economy in Albania

![Employment by sector of the economy](image)


4.1 Postal Services

The Albanian Post has supremacy on the overall postal service market. It controls all prices and terms due to its huge market share, delivers packets with considerations of government regulations. The Albanian Post is a monopoly guaranteed by the government. There are also other companies who offer post services such as: FedEx, TNT, DHL, UPS and others, but these companies usually deliver abroad and are very expensive.

4.2 Telecommunication

Telecommunications represents one of the most dynamic sectors in Albania developed mainly through privatization and subsequent investment by foreign investors and to some extent from domestic investors as well. Albanian Mobile Communication (AMC) was the first operator to enter the mobile communication market in 1996. AMC at its beginning stages was a state owned company. Vodafone Albania was the second company that would be granted a license for mobile communication in 2001. Eagle Mobile was the third operator to enter the market in 2008, employing over 250 employees, while another 150 employees were hired by sub-contracting companies. In 2009 the Albanian government granted a fourth license for wireless communication to a domestically owned company “PLUS”. The fixed-broadband operator Alb telecom privatized 76% of its government owned shares for a value of €120 million Euros to Calik Energy Telekomunikasyon (Turkey), together with its partner Turk Telekom. During 2005-2009 the number of fixed-broadband connections rose by nearly 30%, while mobile new numbers contracted tripled. According to OECD (April 2010) the fixed line telephone contracts remains the lowest in Eastern Europe, while mobile telephony has grown rapidly.

Some key Albanian telecommunications industry data for 2012 show that there are at least 200,000 subscribers of fixed-broadband service in Albania, 80,000 more subscribers then in 2010. Meanwhile the current number for fixed-telephony subscribers stands at 340,000 up from 331,000 in 2010. Another important indicator is wireless communication subscribers, which stand at 5.1 million in 2012. This is an increase from the 4.5 million subscribers in 2010. The entrance of the 3G services has increased the number of subscribers who use network cards and modem devices. However experts recommend further regulatory measures in the underdeveloped mobile sector is needed.

4.3 Banking Sector

After the year 1990 all countries in the region went through a banking system restructuring process by privatizing state banks to foreign banking institutions. Most of these investors are from Austria, France, Greece and Italy. Foreign banks have had a positive impact on the financial system by strengthening risk management, increasing levels of fair competition, and providing more sophisticated financial products to their clients. The banking sector in Albania is in good condition, not only thanks to its privatization, but also due to the right monetary policy that provided support at the right time, through two rate cuts in interest rates and the injection of money supply through foreign exchange in 2009. Even with the right monetary policy put in place during the financial crises, foreign investors are still concerned for the financial system not only in Albania but in all Eastern European countries.

Bank lending slowed in all countries of Eastern Europe, while in Albania loans granted to the private sector continued to grow, only at a slower pace. Bad loans in Albania make about 12% of all loans, classifying it as the second
country in the region with bad loans. Italian and Austrian banks have resisted the financial crisis, while banks of Greek subsidiaries are facing difficult times due to the economic crises.

4.4 Insurance Companies

In 2008 the number of insurance companies, foreign or domestic, that operated in Albania were 10; 7 of them offer non-life insurance companies, two offer only life insurance and one offers both services. Insurance companies that offer non-life insurance, according to their market share in Albania are: Sigal, Sigma, Insig Insurance Institute, Atlantic InterAlbanian Albsig, Intersig and Eurosig. Sigal leads the market with approximately 27.2% of non-life premiums sold. On the other hand, insurance companies operating in the Albanian market have also increased their presence in nearby countries. Insig, Sigal, UNIQA Group and Sigma are present in Kosovo and Macedonia, while Albsig has established a branch only in Macedonia.

4.5 Transportation

Modernization of Albania's transport infrastructure is seen as central to sustainable trade and private-sector development, and at a more general level, economic growth and investment. Albania has scheduled General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) commitments on maritime, air, and road transport, as well as services auxiliary to all methods of transportation. The Stabilization and Association Agreement with the EU also has a transportation component to it as well that the Albanian government will have to abide too.

4.6 Higher education

Higher education is offered by 13 public universities and 46 private universities and faculties operating in Albania. In the academic year 2010/2011, a total of 86,345 full-time students (excluding Ph.D. students) and 19,084 part-time and distance learning students were enrolled in public higher education institutions and 26,784 students in private institutions, with a full-time teaching staff of 4,053 persons and part-time teaching staff of 572.

5. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in the Service Sector

The service sector is the branch of the Albanian economy that attracts more foreign investors. According to data from the Institute of Statistics (INSTAT), in Albania over 2,269 business ventures are owned by foreign nationals. Over 1,500 of these business ventures or 67% of them operate in the service sector. Foreigners own about 700 trading companies and 120 companies in the transport and telecommunications sector. Foreign investment initiative is less engaged in the production sector of the economy, where there are currently 744 foreign owned companies. Of these companies 65% of them have invested in heavy industry, 33% in construction, and slightly more than 1% in agricultural and seafood products. The same trend applies predominantly in the service sector for joint ventures between Albanians and foreign investors. In Albania there are about 1,300 such ventures, of which 63% operate in the service sector.

For the past 20 years, Albania has transformed from an agricultural economy to a service-oriented economy. The service sector is quite young and dynamic. Foreign Direct Investment in the service sector accounts for three quarters of the total FDIs in Albania's economy. In 2009, Albania received 717 million Euros from foreign investments, while in 2010 FDI inflows amounted to 793 million Euros. In 2010, Albania was ranked second in terms of the amount of FDI flows within countries of Eastern Europe, after Serbia. In 2011, Albania received 742 million Euros as foreign direct investments, 51 million Euros less then a year ago. As Albania is in the early stages of securing FDIs, most of them (approximately 80 percent in 2010 and even more in 2011) were in the form of equity in new businesses as well as additional equity invested in existing enterprises with foreign investors.

In 2011 FDI inflows rose only in energy and natural gas sector, for its distribution and other services, but declined in all other activities compared with a year ago. Most of the FDI went into the service sector, mainly in financial intermediation. The high level of FDI in the financial services in 2008 was as result of the acquisition of shares of Popular Bank (Banka Popullore) and Union Bank from foreign investors. Since that time, FDI in the intermediate financial sector has declined, mainly as a consequence of the European financial crisis. The types of FDIs in the Albanian market up to know have been primarily focused on production services geared towards the local market.
Telecommunications and intermediate financial institutions are the two main services which FDI is oriented at, with 23% and 33% respectively of total investments. Telecommunications is the most dynamic service sector of the Albanian economy. FDIs in this sector were introduced through privatizations and current investments. In the intermediate financial sector, where FDIs are perhaps influenced by the size of the investment but also from the legal grounds, foreign investors appear more widely. It is characteristic of countries in transition in their early stages of a free market economy development the financial sector development is preceded by the improvement of the banking sector. Various scholarly studies show that the presence of banks in developing countries is a prerequisite for generating FDI in other sectors of the economy from foreign financially sound companies.

Among the most important recipients of FDI in 2007 were wholesalers and retailers, but their share in total FDI declined in the coming years. Supermarket chains that dominate the retail sector in new member states of the EU are in the early stages of expansion in Albania. Besides METRO Group (Germany), which has invested in a wholesale store in Albania, the other foreign company offering its services in wholesale and retail trade is the Italian supermarket giant Conad. Activities in real estate by foreign affiliates also remain marginal, accounting for only 2% of FDIs. Somewhat more important has been the development of “other business activities” including consulting, IT, and call centers, which accounted for approximately 4% of FDIs in 2010. Since 2007 business operations and information technology services have increased and are expected to have positive growth compared to other countries in the region. Albania’s close proximity to Italy and the good language skills of Italian by Albanians have made possible the creation of ‘call centers’. Among the pioneers to invest in call centers in Albania are Italian Answer Group and Tele performance.

**Fig. 3.** Foreign Direct Investment in Albania’s Service Sector (Data in Mil Albanian Lek)

![FDI inflow in Services Sector](image)

**Sources:** INSTAT

As seen from Table 4 investments in the service sector in the past few years have undergone major fluctuations, sometimes declining into negative numbers. It is evident and understandable that the financial crisis have affected this sector as well, where many foreign entrepreneurs have considered such investments too risky. In 2006 this sector of the economy experienced an investment boom with a 26.4% increase, whereas in 2012 a huge decline in direct investment is noticed even going down to as much as -8.4%. The various factors that have affected either the increase or decrease in FDI investments in the service sector rise not only from negative economic or financial trends in the country, but also the nation where the investment is realized.

**Table 4:** The percentage increase of FDIs in the Service Sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Transport</th>
<th>Post &amp; Telecommunication</th>
<th>Other Services</th>
<th>Matured Intermediate Financial Services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>-3.4</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>-5.1</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>-3.2</td>
<td>-9.9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>-8.4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:** INSTAT 2013
6. Difference with Other European Countries

![Graph: Value added in the services sector as percent of GDP (measure: percent)]

The service sector in Albania is constantly increasing as shown by the graph above from the World Bank. In 2011 it amounted to 65.53% of the total GDP, far lower than countries in the EU which amounts to more than 70% of their GDP. In reality Albania is still a nation trying to get the candidate status to enter the EU and does not receive the funds and subsidies that other EU countries receive from the union. European countries continue to pride themselves on their rich industrial heritage and strong global position in high-end manufacturing. Yet the underlying reality is that manufacturing is playing a steadily diminishing role in both employment and output. In contrast, the service sector accounts for around two-thirds of total EU output, and for four-fifths of growth in recent years. In terms of employment growth, the dominance of services is even more striking. With few exceptions, manufacturing employment in the EU has contracted, thus total employment expansion comes from either services or construction.

One important observation is that the services sector accounts for as much as three-quarters of cross-country differences in economic growth across individual EU countries. Relatively fast-growing countries have also typically had above-average productivity growth. Even though productivity growth is generally lower in the service sector than in manufacturing, it nevertheless accounts for a large share of aggregate growth in output per employee because of its large size. It is not unlikely that the economic crisis of recent years has sped up this process of deindustrialization in Europe, as a number of traditional sectors are confronted with overcapacity. Yet, the EU economy must find ways to expand faster in coming years in order to both replace the jobs lost during the crisis and to provide incomes with which excessive debt burdens are to be reduced (Uppenberg, Kristian. July 2010).

7. Conclusions

The service sector occupies an important place in modern economies. As much as about 55% of jobs are being offered by the service sector by marketing numerous types of services to customers, such as food, personal care, entertainment, banking, insurance, transport, consultancy, tourism, office services, professional services, etc. Service sector has a vital role to play in the economic, political and administrative changes that are taking place in Albania.

With the increasing awareness consumers look forward to a better service sector, these expectations may be more. With a democratic political setup and too many expectations from the government’s side will lead to deterioration in the quality of service to be provided. With the plan of expansion in new areas asking for introduction of new services and other areas demanding improvement in quality of service, the government is constantly under pressure to provide services quantitatively and qualitatively. Therefore, the public agencies should venture into professional management to bring about result-oriented businesses.

The service sector management as a profession would contain the following:

1. Service deliverers - This involves the pure service rendered by the professional staff like doctors in hospitals, teachers in academics.

2. Service managers - The personnel who provide the supporting managerial services like administration – e.g. a registrar in a University.
3. Service analysts - People who are entrusted with the task of concurrent review and evaluation of services in the organization – e.g. personal manager in a Human Resources

4. Supporting staff - Personnel employed in manual jobs in the service organizations such as nurses in hospitals.

From what was written above in this research paper investments in financial services and telecommunications are due to state privatizations of government owned entities and the opening of the Albanian economy. The new foreign companies that acquired other companies through privatization invested substantial capital that positively affected the entire Albanian economy. Attracting more FDIs in these services as well as in other sectors of the economy-the government should keep in mind that the services sector does not affect the growth of exports and consequently the need to improve the trade balance acquires intensification of policy changes to facilitate the conditions of doing business in Albania. Another important factor for attracting foreign investors is the low salaries received by all levels of the workforce. The average monthly gross salary in Albania is around €150 – competitive on a global level. Wages in service firms are significantly higher than in the economy as a whole, but are still highly competitive at around one-third to one-fifth the level of those in EU countries.

Albania offers a unique, low cost operations centre for service activities serving the Italian, Greek and English-speaking markets. Albania is unique in that approximately 70% of the population speaks Italian and 30% speaks Greek, making Albania the only offshore location that can provide front and back offices services for these markets, resulting in cost savings of up to 75%.

Among the important factors for further growth of business services are a well trained workforce as well as better services of fixed broadband communications. The hotel and restaurant industry represents 1% of the total investment form FDIs, while Albania has good potential in attracting tourists that appreciate nature untouched by the human hand. Investments are scarce in the area of legal consulting services, the presence of which would be necessary for all domestic and foreign investors. Foreign Direct Investments can expand rapidly with the implementation of the recommendations mentioned above.

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Abroad or Back Home? Reflecting on Foreignizing and Domesticating Tendencies Observed in Children’s Literature Translated into Albanian

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Abstract

This article aims to investigate children’s literature translated into Albanian in order to identify tendencies of foreignization and domestication and the degree of visibility of the original author and culture versus the translator in the target text. Firstly, there will be introduced theoretical views from various translation studies scholars such as Schleiermacher, Berman, Venuti, Tymoczko, etc. in order to create the necessary background of the present study. Afterwards, several examples will be extracted from children’s literature translated into Albanian, the comparison of which to the original will be crucial to decide on the attitude of translators not only towards the original, but also towards target readers (mainly, but not exclusively children) and their culture. Aiming towards a wide encompassing study, extracted examples from the translated variants into Albanian will be compared not only to the original, but also among themselves (in those cases in which there is more than one translation of the same source text) in order to explore the degree of submission or resistance of source text to target language cultural values through translation. Such a thorough comparison will contribute to a diachronic analysis of the outlined tendencies and considerations about the level of achievement of the intended effect. Finally, the paper will be completed by some conclusions and recommendations referring to the corpus analyzed and overall to the translation of children’s literature in general.

Keywords: children’s literature; translation; foreignization; domestication, culture.

1. Introduction

A literary text is always contextualized in a specific linguistic and cultural community, and, as such, it is always specific with reference to social, cultural, historical and linguistic conventions. The process of translation makes the search for complete equivalence among different languages and cultures not only difficult, but also futile. Through this paper we aim at identification of cultural specific items (CSIs) in children’s literature written originally in English and investigation of the concrete strategies used by translators when they are brought into Albanian language. The inclinations of Albanian translations will be classified into two main tendencies: domestication and foreignization, which will allow us to reflect on the degree of visibility of the original author and culture versus Albanian cultural values in the translated texts.

2. Research questions

Comparison of English texts with Albanian variants will serve the aim of posing answers to the following questions:
1. What are some cultural specific items found in the original texts?
2. How are they brought into Albanian language?
3. Which is the most frequently observed tendency in each Albanian variant?
4. Which is the most frequently observed tendency in all corpus?
5. Are there any cases in which the translator is not consistent with the general tendency observed within the same Albanian variant? Does this have any kind of impact on the readers’ general understanding of the text?
6. What can translators who will encounter translation of CSIs in the future benefit from this study?

3. Description of procedure of study and corpus involved

In order to complete this research we have focused our attention on Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland and Gulliver’s Travels as source texts (STs) and their Albanian variants as target texts (TTs). In cases where more than one Albanian variant corresponding to the same ST has been found, the comparison has been extended among Albanian variants as
well in order to witness on the one hand different tendencies exhibited from different translators towards the same ST, and, on the other hand, to contemplate on the degree of consistency within each variant in itself. Furthermore, such a wide corpus provides helpful insights into the translation of cultural specific items not only in children’s literature, but also in literary translation in general. Having said that, we need to emphasize the fact that it is not easy to settle on a final definition of children’s literature and that is why examples are taken not only from Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland, but also from Gulliver’s Travels (originally not written for children, but mainly read by children today)¹. This corpus selection also relies on the perception of translation as a process of transfer, not only from one language into another but also from the adult system to children’s system².

The table below illustrates the corpus we have selected for our study.

**Table 1. Corpus of comparative study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original books in English language - STs</th>
<th>Albanian variants - TTs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gulliver’s Travels [GT]</strong></td>
<td>TT1 Halit Sefo (1974)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[UG]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland [AAiW]</strong></td>
<td>TT2 Mago Afezolli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1961)  [LBÇ - V.II]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TT3 Mago Afezolli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1992)  [LBÇ - V.III]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TT4 Taulant and Eri Tafa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2008)  [LBÇ - V.IV]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Aiming at explicitation of the general tendency observed in Albanian variants, we have closely read the STs parallel with the Albanian TTs with the intention of identifying CSIs in the STs and the way they (may) have been altered through translation. Examples found to represent the same tendency have been grouped together as evidence of similar behavior from the translator(s). Following this process of identification and comparison, we have analyzed the examples and have extracted important data which laid the foundations for the constructing of several tables and charts, which, in turn, have aided us towards outlining important findings and conclusions mentioned by the end of this paper.

4. **Theoretical background on foreignization and domestication**

One of the most important decisions the Albanian translators of children’s literature have to make is whether to create a text which will preserve the original (British and American) cultural elements or to produce a text which will be accepted in the (Albanian) target cultural environment. These two different tendencies present a dilemma that has been described in different ways and by different terminology by translation scholars through time. In this section of the paper there will be briefly introduced some approaches to this dilemma in order to establish a theoretical background to our study, which will serve as the foundation for the analyses of the examples that follow in the next sections.

Since the beginning of the nineteenth century, Schleiermacher viewed a translation which bore the traces of the foreign peculiarities more suitable than a naturalized translation ³. Approaching a similar view, Berman praised Schleiermacher for his early radical critique and also supports the practice of ethnocentric translations⁴. On the other hand, Venuti, the scholar who has contributed significantly to this debate, blames domesticating translation strategies for the invisibility of the translator. According to him, strategies of translation involve firstly selection of the foreign task to be translated and, secondly, developing a method to translate it⁵. The methods can essentially be divided into two groups: domesticating and foreignizing, based on the strategies chosen by the translator.

The terminology used by different scholars is not the same, however, we can surely find similar approaches among them. For example, according to Schleiermacher, there are two paths or options for the translator: “Either the translator leaves the writer alone as much as possible and moves the reader toward the writer, or he leaves the reader alone as much as possible and moves the writer toward the reader⁶”. Schleiermacher supports the first method and

¹ The term children’s literature can refer to different concepts, such as literature recommended to children, literature read by children and literature published for them (Klingberg, 2008:8).
encourages translators to take their readers abroad instead of leaving them at home in their familiar surroundings. These paths are called foreignization and domestication, using the terminology adopted by Venuti. Domesticated translations elude readers by imposing the view that the text is not a translation and that it was originally written in the target language. Venuti describes the dominance of domesticated English translations of foreign works, whereby translations are viewed as originals and translators as “invisible” as possible. He also warns against such dangers of domestications as: an attitude of superiority, even colonialism, towards cultures whose language is not English. He favours a more foreignizing approach, which, according to him, would make the reader feel cultural and linguistic differences and motivate the process of reading by preserving characteristic features of the ST and its foreign flavour, i.e. keeping linguistic and cultural differences in TT. Referring back to translation of children’s literature, foreignizing can also serve educationalist purposes, since preservation of foreign cultural items involves children into a process of raised awareness about other cultures and peoples. It must be stated, however, that with foreignizing tendencies, although more information is given about the foreign culture, there is always risk of incomprehension as the difficulty of understanding the text is raised to a higher level. However, in the realm of children’s literature, domesticating and foreignizing reveal delicate matters since translations have a great impact on how children see foreign cultures.

There are also modern translation scholars, such as Tymoczko, who deny the dichotomy mentioned above about the mutual exclusive orientation of the translator towards one strategy or the other. According to Tymoczko, a translation may be ‘radically oriented to the ST in some respects, but depart radically from the ST in other respects so as to assimilate it to a norm of a receiving culture’. There are still different scholars who contribute to this unsettled debate. Generally, we may state that a domesticated orientation tends to be a smoother reading experience for the readers, whereas a foreignizing approach would require more knowledge and experience about the source language and its authentic cultural values.

To conclude our discussion at this point, we must say that, as translators are constantly involved in decision-making processes, they should always be careful when choosing which strategy they are going to use. Their decisions will depend on several factors such as purpose of translation and age of receiving audience among others, but, it is always important to be consistent in their decisions in order not to cause confusion on the readers and to interrupt the natural flow of reading and understanding.

5. Comparative study on translation of CSIs from English into Albanian

5.1 Defining key terms

Domestication and foreignizing can be applied to different aspects of the texts: historical events, cultural and religious rites, personal names, etc. It is the scope of this paper to discover how English cultural specific items (CSIs) have been brought into Albanian: whether traces of them have been retained in translation or whether they have been assimilated in Albanian.

For the purposes of this paper we will be guided by the definition given about culture by Newmark: “the way of life and its manifestations which are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression.” Also, according to him, “culture-bound terms, whether single-unit lexemes, phrases or collocations are those which are particularly tied to the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression”. Throughout this paper we are not going to refer to the translation of proper nouns since that would take an even larger time and space which could not be covered within the limits of this single article. Our analysis will be confined to translation of monetary units, measure units and foods and drinks.

5.2 Taxonomy for treating CSIs in translation illustrated by examples from corpus selected

In order to provide a theoretical framework to our study, we will make reference to the Croatian linguist and translation scholar Vladimir Ivir and the taxonomy he introduces in “Procedures and strategies for the translation of culture” about

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translation of cultural words, since it has served as the basis for many later classifications. This model proposes seven strategies: borrowing, definition, literal translation, substitution, lexical creation, omission and addition, which will be explained and illustrated below with examples taken from the corpus under study. Since presenting all examples we have encountered would be far beyond the scopes of this paper, we think it is sufficient to mention only representative examples for each tendency observed. However, the results mentioned in the later part of this paper refer to all extracted examples (although they are not mentioned explicitly in this study due to the limited space).

5.2.1 Borrowing

Borrowing involves precise transmission of cultural information. According to Ivir, this is a strategy frequently used by translators, but in those cases when the reader can recognize the borrowed term and its meaning. Borrowing as a strategy may also be combined with definition or substitution. Also Ivir adds that borrowing is more acceptable as a strategy when the “TL is relatively open to foreign influences”.

Example 1

...about two months after my arrival, we set out for the metropolis, situated near the middle of that empire, and about three thousand miles distance from our house... (GT, p. 103)

Example 2

Let me see: that would be four thousand miles down, I think - “... (AAiW, p. 13)

In both examples we can see that the cultural specific item – miles – is borrowed into Albanian by preserving the same form.

5.2.2 Definition

Ivir states that this strategy is not widely used in itself, but it is mainly used as complementary to borrowing. There are different ways to introduce definitions, such as in the body of the text or through footnotes. Sometimes, as Ivir rightly points out, this strategy may lead towards overtranslation and overemphasis on certain linguistic expressions which would not be otherwise emphasized in SL. He advises against the use of this strategy when the cultural term is just used as cultural background.

Example 1

This liquor tasted like a small cyder, and was not unpleasant. (GT, p. 93)

Example 2

“Write than down,” the King said to the jury; and the jury eagerly wrote down all three dates on their slates, and the added them up, and reduced the answer to shillings and pence. AAiW, p. 113)

In the first example the CSI consists of a drink, which is transmitted in the same form in Albanian, followed by an explanatory definition included in the footnote by the end of the page. The second example shows the use of the strategy of definition for the translation of monetary units, again complemented by a footnote. In both cases, as we may see, definitions are accompanied by borrowings of the CSI terms from SL.

5.2.3 Literal translation

Literal translation is a word-for-word translation of the concept that is unknown for the target culture audience. This procedure, according to Ivir, is the most common method of cultural transference.14

Example 1

I saw a stage erected about a foot and a half from the ground ...(GT, p. 17)

Example 2

She took down a jar from one of the shelves as she passed: it was labeled “ORANGE MARMALADE,” but to her great disappointed it was empty. (AAiW, p.13)

In the first example the CSI consists of a unit of measure, whereas in the second example the CSI is at item of food. In both cases the items are translated word-for-word into Albanian.

5.2.4 Substitution

In cases when the SL culture and the TL culture partially overlap, translators can use the strategy of substitution. In “substitution” an expression denoting a similar concept in the target culture is used as if it were a full equivalent. However, there is always the disadvantage of assimilating foreign culture terms or concepts in the TL culture.15

Example 1

...I wondered how I could forbear when I saw his dishes of the size of a silver three-pence, a leg of pork hardly a mouthful, a cup not so big as a nutshel... (GT, p. 157)

Example 2

Who stole the tarts? (AAiW, p. 110)

The first example is a monetary unit substituted into a familiar concept in Albanian. The same strategy is applied even in the second case, when the CSI consists of a food not so widely known for Albanian readers, which is why the translator has transformed it into another more ‘accepted’ Albanian sweet. The strategy of substitution, as it can be observed even through the examples, fails to reflect the fact that the original communication was taking place in a different cultural setting and that the source text was an expression of a source culture.

5.2.5 Lexical creation

Through lexical creation translators coin new words to translate nonexistent or non-lexicalised items. These new words may be accepted in the TL, or may not be accepted and are used just once in TL because they are less easily understood than a word that has sprung up naturally.

Example 1

When bending my eyes downwards as much as I could, I perceived it to be a human creature not six inches high, with a bow and arrow in his hand, and a quiver at his back. (GT, p. 16)


15 Reflecting on the use of substitution, Ivir points out that its main setback is “that it identifies concepts which are not identical, eliminating the ‘strangeness’ of the foreign culture and treating foreign-culture concepts as its own” (1987: 42).
Example 2

However, this bottle was not marked ‘poison,’ so Alice ventured to taste it, and finding it very nice, (it had, in fact, a sort of mixed flavour of cherry-tart, custard, pineapple, roast turkey, toffee, and hot buttered toast,) she very soon finished it off. (AAiW, p. 17)

Ajo u bind se në etiketën e shishes nuk ishte shkruar “helm”, pranaj e ktheu ta provonte dhe e vërteta është se lëngu i saj iu duk shumë i shijshtëm. Shija e saj kishtë diçka që të kujtonte tortën me qershi, me krem, me ananas, gjinë e pyejur, kërcitëset dhe kekun e ngrohtë me gjalp. (LBÇ - V.IV, fq. 13)

In the first example, the translator has opted for the creation of a new term to measure distance, which is not normally used in Albanian. In the second example, another term is newly created, this time to “fill” a lexical gap for a sort of candy inexistent in Albanian culture.

5.2.6 Omission

The procedure of omission involves deletion of CSIs. This may be justified by communicative purposes.16

Example 1

She was very good-natured, and not above forty foot high, being little for her age. (GT, p. 99)

Example 2

But she went on all the same, shedding gallons of tears, until there was a large pool all around her, about four inches deep and reaching half down the hall (AAiW, p. 21)

As it can clearly be seen through the above examples, the strategy of omission has been used to avoid transference of CSIs: in the first case referring to measure units of distance, and, in the second case, measure units of volume for liquids.

5.2.7 Addition

When using this strategy, translators explicate in the TL cultural information expressed implicitly in the ST, which may be clearly understood by SL readers, but that is not the case with TL readers.

Example 1

…and every citizen under that of the principal men in his own city, chosen after the manner of Venice by ballot? (GT, p. 146)

Example 2

She was now only ten inches high…. (AAiW, p. 17)

We can observe that in both cases the CSIs have been clarified in Albanian language, by adding some more explicit information.

Referring back to Venuti’s dichotomy, we can classify the strategies presented as in the table below:

Table 2. Strategies of translation for CSIs (with reference to Ivir’s taxonomy and Venuti’s dichotomy)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domestication</th>
<th>Foreignizing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>Borrowing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>Literal translation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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16 It should be noted that Ivir does not consider in his taxonomy omissions used in order to abridge the text, which happens quite often in translation.
5.3 Illustration of findings through tables and charts

The present study aims at contributing to a qualitative research. After all CSI items are identified in ST and TT, we need to analyze the data in order to estimate the frequency of the strategies individually at first, and, then, to decide whether CSI items are mostly domesticated or foreignized. We have identified a total of 342 CSIs in ST and in Table 3 we will present the different strategies used in the Albanian variant of *Gulliver’s Travels* to bring these cultural items to the target readers.

**Table 3. Strategies of translation observed in Albanian translation of “Gulliver’s Travels”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tendency</th>
<th>Domestication</th>
<th>Foreignizing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of CSIs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of CSIs</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can easily be noticed from the above table and chart, the prevailing tendency is foreignizing, which means that foreign elements have been preserved and brought into Albanian language, mostly through literal translation and borrowing. However, a significant amount of CSIs have been domesticated or adapted into the TL culture, through substitution, lexical creation or omission.

In *Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland* we have identified 43 CSIs and in Table 4 – Table 7 we will present data which will inform us about the way the cultural items have been brought into the four different Albanian variants.

**Table 4. Strategies of translation observed in Variant 1 of “Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tendency</th>
<th>Domestication</th>
<th>Foreignizing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of CSIs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of CSIs</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5. Strategies of translation observed in Variant 2 of “Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland”**
Table 6. Strategies of translation observed in Variant 3 of "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tendency</th>
<th>Domestication</th>
<th>Foreignizing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>Omission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of CSIs</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Strategies of translation observed in Variant 4 of "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tendency</th>
<th>Domestication</th>
<th>Foreignizing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>Omission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of CSIs</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 2. Domesticating vs. Foreignizing tendencies in each Albanian variant of AAiW.

The various tables and the illustration of their results into charts clearly show that the tendencies are distributed in almost...
the same percentage in all variants with little variation. For example, in V.I and V.III dominates foreignizing, in V.II and V.IV domestication. The degree of the domesticated item is highest in V.IV, which shows that, through the years, less foreign items are brought into Albanian language and culture. However, it has to be said that within each variant, the tendencies are evenly distributed, without showing contrastive inclination towards one tendency or the other, which sometimes implies that translators have approached the translation of CSIs inconsistently, for example, the same CSI has been translated by using different strategies within the same variant. We did indeed find a lot of examples in which we did not know where to position ourselves as readers: in an Albanian context using foreign money, in a British context using Albanian money or units of measure, etc. This shift from one tendency to the other within the same variant causes confusion among the readers’ general understanding and perception of foreign culture, and, at a larger scale, a lower quality of translation.

6. Conclusions and recommendations

The original texts have been found to be rich in CSIs, however, within the limits of this study, we have only identified and analyzed CSIs consisting of measure units, monetary items and foods and drinks. We have compared STs and TTs and classified all CSIs under specific strategies of domestication versus foreignization. We have found that the dominating tendency in translation of CSIs in *Gulliver’s Travels* is evidently foreignization, whereas in the different variants of *Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland* the tendency of domestication prevails in the second and the fourth variant, while in the first and in the third variant prevails the tendency of foreignization. It has to be stated that the two tendencies are distributed almost evenly in each of the variant, with variant IV exhibiting the largest degree of domesticated items, or the lowest degree of foreignized items, that is to say, less foreign elements are brought into Albanian language with the passing of years. Referring to all corpus analyzed, we may assume that the fact that *Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland* is mainly read by children is one of the reasons why more CSIs are domesticated, especially in the last variant. *Gulliver’s Travels*, on the other hand, being originally written for adults, demonstrates a significant higher number of foreignized CSIs, most probably, with the translator starting from the general assumption that readers are going to understand them. Even though today the book today is read by children as well, they can greatly be aided in the process of understanding by the footnotes and endnotes which are extensively found in the Albanian variant.

We have to mention that in a considerable number of cases we have observed situational decision-making on the behalf of the translator during translation of CSIs not only within the same variant, but also about the translation of the same CSI within the same variant. These inconsistencies would indefinitely be a source of confusion and misunderstanding among readers and their general perception of the ST.

7. Implication of the study for future research

This study has aimed at a qualitative research which would outline the distribution of the tendencies of foreignization and domestication in children’s literature. Parallel reading and careful comparison of STs and TTs has aided us towards determining the predominance of one tendency over the other. We have focused our attention only in the translation of examples food and drinks, monetary and measure units. We can extend the study in the future by identifying and analyzing examples of proper nouns, cultural norms and values, dialects and use of language which would reveal other important insights to support this research in the future. A significant number of inconsistencies found through the analyzed example can also be used as the basis for other research, contemplating on the factors that contribute to the quality of a translation.

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A Look at the Public Sphere in Talk Show Programs in Albania

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to analyse the daytime audience participating TV talk shows that are conceptualized as new public spheres in terms of the Massive Communication Medias. These kinds of shows with a broad variety of guests deal with different topics such as political, social, economic, etc. And these topics concern the broad public opinion. In the study we will focus on this kind of talk show format in Albania. The research aims at tackling this public sphere created by televisions as well as the involvement of various social groups in the public debate. It analyses not only the involvement that this formats give to the public in the studio but also to the viewers at home, who are active in the social networks. This study is based on the theory of the German philosopher Jürgen Habermas on the public sphere, the transformation and the evolvement of this concept nowadays. We will try to give an answer to the concern of this critical theorist of the Frankfurt School about the creation or not of a new bourgeois class, which rules this mediatic public sphere, and how this is reflected on TV Talk Show in Albania. Besides the theoretical approach of daytime talk shows by the contemporary authors of communication like Bernard Timbering, Sonia Livingstone, Horace Newcomb, Pierre Bourdieu, Jürgen Habermas, this study will also analyse certain daytime talk shows with an audience participating in Albania.

Keywords: Talk show, public sphere, participating democracy, moderator, audience, advertisement, television

1. Introduction

By just zapping through the main TV channels in Albania you can ascertain that the four classic genres of talk shows exist (Luku, 2013, p. 185). However, problems are obvious.

What you immediately notice is that there is an abundance of political talk shows (Luku, EJO, 2013) where we can mention talk shows such as Opinion, Top Story, 360°, Tonight, Prizëm, Fakt, Zonë e Ndaluar, Shqip, Bugajski Hour, etc. Discussions are dominated by the same debaters. They go from one studio to another, maintain their attitudes and get involved in the same conflicts (Vehbiu, 2009).

Talk shows in Albania are a “déjà vu”!

As a second element you can notice a lack of involvement of the public in the studio during the discussion (Vehbiu, 2011). This is especially noticed in daytime audience-participating talk shows, like Pasdite në Top Channel, Emisioni i pasdites apo Ora 5 pm, etc. In the best of cases the public is seen as just spectators. It is present just to applaud and this, when it is asked to do so.

There are also, programs of this genre where there is no public at all in the studio. The same problem can be noticed even in the other kinds of talk shows in Albania.

In the last years, with an increase in the number of social network users, a part of the shows have integrated the online community, even though it is bias only from the public in the studio and not vice-versa.

There can be noticed only a small number of satirical shows, among which the most prominent are Fisk Fare are By Pass Show. This kind of format is included in the late-night entertainment talk show. In this category are also included other formats such as A Show, Top Show, Natën me Xhaxhun and Natën Vonë, sporting programs like Dribbling and Skaner Kampionat, even though these programs are more focused on the talk and lack the entertaining element. In this genre are included the Talk show Procesi Sportiv, which has a combination between sport information and humor, and the infotainment program Zonë e Lirë (Luku, 2010, p. 335).

As far as morning talk shows are concerned, we can notice radio-television programs like Wake Up, Klubi i Mëngjesit, Aldo morning show, Koha për t’u zgjuar as well as the morning magazine-format talk show, ZIP.
1.1 Theoretic approach on the talk show as a public sphere

From the above outlook, the problems highlighted can be summarized in the so-called relation between quality and audience. This debate has its roots in the ideological separation between the Left and the Right Wing. There is a difference between an elite democracy where communication between established power and the laity takes the form of dissemination from the powerful and the representation of ordinary beliefs as mass opinion, and a participatory democracy where established power is engaged in some kind of dialogue with the public.

Both the left and right of the political spectrum are concerned with the individual as citizen, and with undermining the authority of the expert or elite. The right attacks experts for their abstract, biased or ungrounded authority over the laity. They argue for reductions in restrictions on broadcasting to encourage competition according to market forces and audience demand, thereby putting pressure on the existing broadcast channels to become more accessible and populist. The left has also been concerned with the rights of individuals and the validity of everyday experience (Livingstone & Lunt, 1994, p. 9).

Talk show programs, especially those with an audience follow this debate and try to pay attention to the public as well as to the expert. The Media as a great power of the society, aims at getting involved in political events and to play an important role in the political decision-making.

Presently, the contemporary media debate is focused on the concept of “public sphere” and on the space that televisions or newspapers dedicate to the “citizen” as the main actor inside this sphere. Researchers emphasize that if the citizen is going to play a role in the democracy, then he has to participate in these institutionally guaranteed forums where he can express his opinions and his concerns about the political power.

The question that rises is, do these talk shows in Albania guarantee these free public forums?

Before we answer this question, we must first clarify the term “public sphere”. The author who has elaborated this concept is Jürgen Habermas, a thinker of the Frankfurt school, who says that:

By “the public sphere” we mean first of all a realm of our social life in which something approaching public opinion can be formed. Access is guaranteed to all citizens. A portion of the public sphere comes into being in every conversation in which private individuals assemble to form a public body. They then behave neither like business or professional people transacting private affairs, nor like members of a constitutional order subject to the legal constrains of a state bureaucracy. Citizens behave as a public body when they confer in an unrestricted fashion – that is, with the guarantee of freedom of assembly and in association and the freedom to express and publish their opinions – about matters of general interest. In a large public body this kind of communication requires specific means for transmitting information and influencing those who receive it. Today newspaper and magazines, radio and television are the media of the public sphere (Habermas, Lennox, S & Lennox, F., 1964, p. 2).

Habermas continues his idea by underlining the fact that the dimension of the public sphere won't be complete if the public organ that is formed, doesn't work as whole thanks to the consensus and if a rational and critical discussion isn't developed on the points at issue.

Presently, the authors of the feminist movement, among which the most prominent Nancy Fraser and Carol Gould, elaborate another concept about the public space. According to them, Habermas is wrong when he calls the public as unified, homogenous and capable of expressing itself beyond its personal interest for the common good. Fraser emphasizes that this idea is problematic because the public is “fragmented into a mass of competing interest groups” who may or may not represent fairly all sections of the general public (Fraser, 1990, p. 14).

On the fact that the public space is dominated by the rational discussion, Carol Gould states that this is a very chauvinistic approach. According to her the emotions, feelings and the passions of the debaters take a great part in public speaking (Fuga, 2013).

At a later time, Habermas accepts the plurality inside the society, but adds that the public can be capable of debating with the established power, only when thanks to the consensus it settles the differences among the social groups.

When speaking of the economic power and the media, which he defines as the “industry of culture”, Habermas points out that their penetration into the institutional public sphere, from where the public can contradict the established power as it used to, in the bourgeoisie public sphere, has damaged the rational and critical debate. According to him, “the capturing” of the public sphere has transformed the public into a mindless mass (Habermas, 1991, p. 120).

On the other hand the authors of the feminist movement contradict Habermas by stating that this crisis comes from the imposition that the established power makes on the public through the elites, which conceive it as homogeneous mass, where the diversity of voices is excluded from the public sphere.
Despite the opposition, Habermas argues that the public sphere exists now only as a promise. Party politics and the manipulation of the mass media have resulted in a “refeudalization” of the public sphere, where representation and appearances outweigh rational debate and where the rational–critical public is transformed into a mass, manipulated by persuasive authority. According to him we have moved from a culture-debating to a culture-consuming public (Livingstone & Lunt, 1994, p. 19).

Thus the initial question on whether the talk show programs in Albania guarantee these free public forums got an answer. Of great interest remains what happens specifically in the Albanian case?

2. The public sphere in talk shows in Albania

2.1 The participation of the public

Today, in the media Albanian reality, most of the daytime audience-participation talk shows, like 5 PM, Pasdite në Top Channel or Emisioni i pasdites but also the late-night entertaining talk shows, conceive the public in the studio only as a complementary part of the scenography and not as an interactive actor in the show. Even the communication through the new media has not been adapted the way it should have in these shows.

The talk show hosts view the involvement of the audience in the show skeptically. This logic comes from a past tradition in thinking according to which the elites do television whereas the spectators follow the show (Sulçe, 2012).

On the April 12 show, the host of the talk show Jamais Vu, Mustafa Nano, in the end of his interview with the director Mevlan Shanaj, said that: “During all the time, Mevlan Shanaj has been facing the audience. I don’t know, I am trying to communicate with the direction, but I am facing the audience too and I am ending the show tonight for the first time with them…” (Jamais Vu, 2013).

Meanwhile, during the interview with the head of the Socialist Party, Edi Rama, the host of the talk show Opinion, Blendi Fevziu was surprised about the quality of the questions and concerns raised by citizens in the social networks: “I have got some very interesting questions on the Facebook page of show Opinion. A part of them are talented journalists. The citizens often make some questions that even we had not thought of” (Opinion, 2013).

Phil Donahue, the first that widely involved the audience in the live debate with the guests, says that the point of the host is to break the barrier between the public in the studio and the VIP guests, experts and politicians. This caused a revolution in the visual media. For the first time in the talk show The Phil Donahue Show, we have the movement of the public from the simple passive spectator stage to an active participant in public speaking. Donahue brought the model of the moving host that pushes the public to the famous people, while him playing the part of the moving mediator (Timberg & Erler, 2002, pp. 6-7). Donahue dedicated all the success of his show to the public. The transmission of this show marks the foundation of the daytime audience-participation talk show genre. The same model was then followed by Oprah Winfrey, Ricky Lake, Jerry Springer or Ellen DeGeneres.

The second element has to do with the fact that in most of the Medias there are not any criteria for the selection of the public that sits in the studio. During an interview in the talk show Klubi i Mëngjesit, Adi Krasta says that the public in Albania is paid: “We find it very difficult to find a public in televisions nowadays. The public is paid. I as many colleagues of mine that are used to talk and the public reacts, find it difficult to act. It is difficult to find a public. The people were tired, they got a little money, they were old, … That is why I have omitted the public. A colleague of mine puts on some applauds, but actually the studio is empty. At one time, the applause was mixed with some whistling. I say: No, no whistling in the studio… Today we live technically…” (The morning club, 2013)

Why is it so important the participation of the audience in a talk show?

As we noticed in the debate between Habermas and the authors of the feminist movement, the public sphere in a talk show indicates the quality of democracy in a country.

The scholar, Ardian Vehbiu (2011) points out that “the democracy first of all requires a continuous participation of the individual, of the community and of the society in the government of the country. Democracy cannot be only free elections or only representation. At the level of public dialogue, the democracy demands a mutual exchange of information from the leader to the citizen, but also from the citizen to the leader…”

By continuing this idea, in the article entitled “How can Television ‘kill’ politics”, the professor Artan Fuga highlights that “in Albania the politician can talk to the citizens from the screen, but it is impossible for the citizens to talk, to oppose, to argue, to support, to criticize the politician that is invited in the studio, or that is shown in the screen in a public rally transmitted in television. In this way the political communication is transformed into a communication that is called asymmetric. The politics speaks to the society, but the society cannot speak to the politics.”
That is why Fuga (2010) concludes, it has become necessary that every time that there is an important politician in the studio, there should also be an enlightened public as an active participant in the studio: When will the public in the studio come as an equal actor with the others?!

2.2 The public sphere and the advertising space

When speaking of the creation of a pseudo public sphere, Habermas emphasizes that there is a tendency that this sphere is transformed into an advertising space. The entire public speech is led by the advertising logic. Not only because Medias are financed by the private world, which cannot create freedom of debate without limitations. But also because according to the spirit of the advertisement, every political actor’s speech tends to praise himself, as every commercial spot speaks highly of its product, whose advertisement has been paid by the financer of the commercial spot (Channel One, 2013).

This is happening more and more in Albania with talk shows, but not only.

In the late-night entertainment talk show Zonë e Lirë, the advertising space takes up a considerable part of the show, as much as it is difficult for a viewer to tell if it is about useful information or about an indirect advertisement. Thus from the monitoring made on 12 episodes for the period of April-June 2009, it was shown that the total television space reserved for topics of a cultural character was of 1288.53 minutes, bigger than the space dedicated to political issues, that was of 1253.20 minutes, even though the period under survey was the eve of the electoral campaign. Meanwhile, the total minutes dedicated to direct marketing with commercial spots, banners, posters, live promo, logos or promotional messages was of 116.46 minutes.

But in the cultural oriented topics, which took up the dominating part of the television time in the talk show Zonë e Lirë, were included the singers who during this three month period have managed to promote 24 music videos, followed by the promotion of 7 books and 5 theatrical shows and movies (Luku, 2010, pp. 40-41).

Marketing experts would call this an “indirect advertising”, efficient especially in these kinds of TV shows. Thus, in total the advertising space in the talk show Zonë e Lirë it is many times bigger in time than it was actually thought and consequently more defining in this show.

If we analyze two sport talk shows, Procesi Sportiv in Top Channel and Dribbling in Vizion Plus, that are two televisions whose owners own also two numerical digital platforms, respectively Digitalb and Tring, we can say that the great economic investments are directly affecting the limitation of the debate in the studio. If we see the championships that are analyzed by the football experts and the other guests in the talk show Procesi Sportiv, are all the football championships and competitions with the exception of the English Premier League and the UEFA Cup, whose television rights are owned by the digital platform Tring (Sport’s Process, 2013).

On the other hand, the talk show Dribbling (2013) in Vision Plus, analyzes only the English championship skipping the matches of other championships in the world, again because of the television rights.

When after a year of transmission, Vision Plus gave up the Formula 1 races, whose television rights were bought by Top Channel, this immediately affected the News programs and the sport talk show, which did not report or discuss any more about the races. The same thing happened with the TV programs in the television Top Channel (Monitor, 2013).

The above examples from some of the talk show in Albania prove the German researcher Habermas’ thesis that the speech in this public sphere is guided by the logic of advertisements. He raises the concern that with creation of this pseudo public space the talk show host look like they are speaking on behalf of public opinion, but in fact they are speaking on behalf of their economic interests or those of the television owners.

It is not an accident that in the book “On Television” (1996), the communication sociologist, Pierre Bourdieu, emphasizes that when you undertake to analyze a TV show, you must necessarily know the power that the owners of this media represent. This, because, according to him, what mostly aggravates the public sphere of the television is precisely the economic censorship.

Under this logic falls also the policy of the guests or the deals made with the pundits in talk shows. Have you ever seen a pundit under a contract jeopardizing the economic interests of the television where he works?

Of course not!

This happens because the pundits are economically hired to be the “independent voice” of the show, for a definite

1 Definition of “indirect advertising” - forms of advertising other than in newspapers and magazines, etc., for example using a product in a television show, giving a product away for free, or sponsoring events or activities. http://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/dictionary/business-english/indirect-advertising
time. And everything, Bourdieu writes, happens during the big show, where the host as well as the pundit perform their roles by selling every debate as spontaneous, meanwhile everything has been prepared beforehand in details.

Such a valuable “good” as a talk show, which generates extraordinary revenues cannot be let “adrift”. Arian Çani puts it beautifully when he says that the television is a great hypocrisy because it sells as spontaneous something that has been prepared in details beforehand. I would even add that the more spontaneous a conversation looks in a studio the more time it has required from the director and the host to sell it as such (Luku, EJO, 2013).

3. Conclusions

1. In the general outlook of Albanian televisions the four classic genres of talk shows are present. We can notice an abundance of the political talk show and absence of the night entertaining show, where the satirical programs are included.
2. The talk shows in Albania can be defined as a pseudo public space guaranteed and controlled by the media. This discussion space is taken over by a chaste of analysts and pundits that Habermas would call “the new feudal lords”. In most of cases the rational debate and the diversity of thought are absent, because they are the same journalists that appear from one screen to the other.
3. In the talk shows is noticed a lack of a participating audience in the public debate. This happens for two reasons: a. First, because the hosts see skeptically the involvement of the audience in the show. This logic comes from past tradition of thinking according to which the elites are the ones who make television, whereas the spectators watch the show; b. The second element has to do with the fact that in most of the media there are not any selective criteria on the public sitting in the studio. Their presence is conceived as décor of the television studios, paid with money.
4. The discussion in talk shows in Albania is oriented first of all by the logic of the advertisement. This means that the hosts, the journalists or the guests do not argue at all about an issue that jeopardizes the economic interests of the television, independently of the great public interest that the issue might have. As scholar Jürgen Habermas says, with the creation of this pseudo public space the hosts look like they speak on behalf of the public opinion, but in fact they are speaking on behalf of their economic interests or of those of the owners of the television.

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The Power of Women in the Armed Forces

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to investigate the various models and the best practices of the participation of women in the armed forces, their influence and integration in a traditionally recognized as a men field. The article examines the main challenges that female military personnel face along the military career and sheds light on the mechanism for the protection and implementation of female rights. Then, it puts forward that the transformation of the armed forces provides a good opportunity to increase the role of women in the armed forces. The paper suggests that based on the experience women have the ability to solve complex, unstable, doubtful and confusing situations related to war. However, this natural endowment should be coupled with operational experience in order to increase their self confidence and their abilities multiplying their power inside the armed forces. Women, with their skills, might offer comparative advantage in the resources needed for the wars of the future. The paper concludes that supporting the gender equality in the armed forces, the involvement of the women in all levels of military decision making and ensuring that they get full and equal rights in the armed forces is key to successful transformation of the armed forces.

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to investigate the various models and the best practices of the participation of women in the armed forces, their influence and integrity, and the challenges they face, highlighting the adequate mechanisms for the protection and implementation of the human rights of women. The overall objective of the paper is the support to the gender equality in the Armed Forces, the full involvement and the true representation of women in all levels of the decision making process.

Eventhough the women had a decisive role in the antiquity the role of women took a sharp curve with the evolution of the history. The character of the woman was seen as very weak, submissive, and biologically constructed to be like that. Her rights were negated leading to conflicts of gender inequality.

2. Methodology

The method of research of this paper is qualitative. I make use, mostly, of secondary sources, such as literature in the field. However, I use some primary sources such as military documents and reports in order to gather data and facts on the women’s status and position inside the Armed Forces of Albania, on their rights and achievements compared to men.

3. The most Successful Women in the World and the Novelties associated with them

Women have fought for their rights for a long time all over the world. However, the first feminist movement, dates at the end of the 18th century. Marie Gouze, lost her life in the struggle to win equal rights for women. She became an example for other women who followed her footprints. Feminist movement, throughout the years, has achieved a broader perception until today. Thanks to this movement the position of women in all aspects of the society has been improved intensely. The sucessful engagement of the women brought novielties in many fields. This I would like to say that the power of women and their influence in the social, political, economic life is very important. We might draw the same conclusion for the women in Armed Forces as well. Although, less known, the women in the armed forces have struggled for their figure, trying hard to bring change and novelty in life and in the military career.

1. Margaret Thatcher. She is one of the most famous characters of the world politics, the first Primier Woman of the Great Britain. Thatcher changed the “face” of England introducing reforms in many fields. She made a reputation in the world as the “Iron Lady” because of her strong and decisive character.
2. Angela Merkel. She is the German Chancellor. Actually she is at the top of world's most successful women list. She is famous for her intensive, full of energy engagement in her political career.

3. Hillary Clinton. She became the first female Senator in the US Senate. Hillary Clinton won more primaries and delegates than any other female candidate in American history. She played a role in advocating the creation of the State Children's Health Insurance Program, the Adoption and Safe Families Act, and the Foster Care Independence Act. Clinton was also the first female senator in the US Senate. She ran the Department of State for 4 years under Obama’s administration.

4. Boadicea, the British monarch, had an overall control over the country’s military forces and demonstrated high military values.

5. Zhan d'Ark was a French woman who led the French armies against the English armies in 15th century.

6. Queen Teuta, was the Illirian queen, who led the Illirian state and the Navy against the much stronger Roman Empire in the 3rd century B.C.

There are a lot of other famous women who have brought important changes in the world.

4. Contribution of Women in Albanian Armed Forces

4.1 Importance

The adequate role of women in the Armed Forces is a continuous and arguable question in many democracies. Being treated differently, women face discrimination in career. However, it is unquestionable that the access of women in the military is an important aspect of the democratization of the armed forces.

4.2 It is a question of Non-discrimination

The participation of women in the military should be a question of non-discrimination, equal chances to have a military career, equal chances to be selected for command duties and negation of any kind of abuse based on gender. This is closely connected with the positive acceptance of the woman in the uniform by the society and her adaption and integration in the military environment creating a new tradition. The participation of women in military might play crucial role in preserving peace which is the most important mission of militaries today. One of the most important factors that have influenced the increasing role of the women in the military is their cultural value. Women, either individually or collectively have fought for equal rights, in private or public domain, and they have sought to be represented and involved in all professions through political and legal actions. The main reason of exclusion of women from combat roles in the military is the gender differences which are tied to limitation in physical force, which are believed to impede female personnel to achieve minimal job standards.

4.3 Level of participation

During the last years, the women have started to play a more important role inside the western Armed Forces. However, the absolute number of women in the military remains small and the women are still under-represented compared to their number in the society. The number of females who serve in military differs from country to country. They are more under-represented in the higher ranks. Women who are already promoted to general or admiral demonstrate that females, too, can have a successful career in the military.

Chart 1. Number of female personnel in the Albanian Armed Forces (AAF)
Participation of females in AAF: Civilian females in the AAF are 762 or 30%

The problem: 95% of females work in the support sectors and only 5% work in the operational sectors.

5. Sexual Harassment and other Forms of Specific Gender Discrimination

Eventhough males and females are formally equal in most countries; often females do not enjoy the same status as their male collegues in military due to cultural and structural forms of inequality in place. The biggest part of the resistance to females’ integration comes from the dominant male culture which views the military in essence as a masculine institution. Discrimination practices includes from prejudiced recruitment and assessment systems, to the absence of separate rooms for females, lack of laws which regulate maternity leaves and denial from combat and operational functions. Differentiated career opportunities explain why females are represented disproportionately in various ranks. Female military personnel should work twice as hard as their male colleagues in order to gain the same respect. In addition, female personnel may be subject of sexual harassment or sexual violence.

6. Identified Actual Obstacles to the Integration of Females in the Military:

- First, Functional duties carried by women,
- Second, education and training through out the military career,
- Third, lack of experience in command of operational units
- Fourth, incomplete policies followed by the Ministri of Defense and the General Staff for female education, qualification and assignments in the units of the AAF,
- Fifth, lack of support in the High Commissions of Career,
- Sixth, limited ambitions of the same female personnel for being promoted in rank and duty,
- Finally, their absence in the highest levels of strategic leadership has weaken their image and role in the decision making process.
7. Integration of Military Female Personnel in the Armed Forces of NATO

The first resolution on women, peace and security, Security Council Resolution 1325 (SCR1325), was unanimously adopted by United Nations Security Council on 31 October 2000. It stressed three main points.

1. Women’s equal and full participation as active agents in peace and security,
2. Women’s equal and full participation in peace keeping and peace building operations,
3. Protection of women from the disproportionate and unique impact of armed conflict on them.

“NATO is more than merely military power. It is necessary to win hearts and minds. It is impossible to increase the confidence in NATO without the women’s contribution.”

8. Establishment of NATO Committee on Women

The NATO Committee on Women was established as a result of cooperation of NATO nations. In year 1961, a group of old female servicemen from 7 NATO nations met in Copenhagen and approved a resolution to organize meeting with intervals, in order to discuss the employment and integration of females in the Armed Forces. The military Committee in NATO acknowledged officially the Committee on Women with Document Number 249 dated 19 July 1976. In March 1997, the Military Committee of NATO approved the establishment of the Office of the Committee on the Women in the International Military Staff.

The Committee on Women must advise the NATO’s leaders and the representatives of nations on critical issues which influence the female military personnel in achieving their mission in NATO.

9. The Committee on Women in AAF

The Committee on Women in AAF was established on January 4th 2011.

The mission of the committee is to support gender equality in AF, to boost her representation and her role in all levels of decision making, as well as to provide support from all political and military spheres.

Among many tasks of the Committee we may distinguish:

- Support to human rights and liberties according to the principles of the UN Charter resolution and the Security Council Resolution 1325 (SCR1325) on women, peace and security,
- Acceptance of the gender perspective and special assessment of gender issues in order to protect from any kind of violence.
- To advice AAF leadership for critical issues and their ramifications in the AAF
- To encourage the women participating in Peace Support Operations
- To contribute in the protection of women rights
- To provide information on gender issues in all phases of missions of peace support operation.
- Granting equal rights to women and men for promotion, education and qualification,
Improvement of Albanian legislation related to ease the procedures of recruitment, education and qualification in the AAF.

10. Assignment of Females in Combat/ Peace keeping Missions

Duties: Physician, nurse, Helicopter or Airplane pilot in combat zones, driver, convoy escort, patrol, military police, etc.

Military Female Personnel in Peace keeping Operations

They meet the risk in every duty.

The regulation approved in 1994 states that “Women may serve in any field of the peace keeping missions, except in combat battalion in front line, such as land troops, tanks, artillery, special forces etc.

However, it is true that although not considered being in the front line, every day female military servicemen are wounded and killed around the world. The reason is that the combat in these kind of mission does not have front, the risk is imminent everywhere.

11. Issues with Female Participation in Peace keeping Missions

Lack of trust is one of the most problematic issues which impede women to achieve the mission. It is thought that females are demoralized, terrorized, stressed and get nervous when exposed to danger.

This biased view has created a wrong opinion that the female soldier is not able to conclude the mission successfully and to help her friends in case of danger. However, facts dismiss this view.

12. Countries which provide Female Military Personnel to Peace keeping Operations

US (80 lost their lives in missions), Canada, Great Britain, Ukraine, Australia. Albania has sent 7 females, 4 Officers, 3 NCO, physicians and nurses in the framework of in Afghanistan.

13. Should female engage in combat roles?

There are three arguments which support the idea that females should not engage in combat roles:

I. Physical limitation
   a. Female military personnel do not have and can’t use the same amount of force that their her male enemy might use in close combat.
   b. The skeleton system of females is thinner and easier to be injured than that of males.

II. Psychological limitation
   a. Lack of confidence in the females’ skills by other soldiers.
   b. Fear that female presence might cause disruption.
   c. Probability of getting pregnant and leaving the mission
   d. Probability that during the mission might be captured, tortured and sexually abused.

III. Tactical limitation
   a. In Islamik countries, Islamik militants never surrender to a female.
   b. The presence of a female in combat mission has led to lost of control by the team mates who have shown over protective instincts to her.

14. Theories which advocate for Female Participation in Combat Missions

a. Advanced technology used nowadays reduces extremely the physical advantages.

b. Less need for use of force.

c. More tactical and intelligent solutions

The appointment of females should be done based on the experience, training, leading skills and the fulfillment of criteria according to specific tasks and missions. Females consist of half of the population. Not including this big portion of the population means failing to ensure the peace. Females are aware of the risk associated with combat mission and are ready to accept it. Use of females in combat mission may have its own comparative advantage like the case of body search of females of the local population. In addition to that, women have very good communication skills which help establish dialogue with local population and pursue them cooperate instead of rebel.
15. Vision for the Future of the Women in the AAF

The modern technology has a great influence in the conduct of battles. This kind of technology requires talented skillful personnel, male or female.

The women in the military will have a bright future if military leaders would appreciate their contribution in the past and in the present and would support them to integrate in all structures based on their talent and skills. The must be supported in order to improve their career by advancing their education and taking charge of command positions. The implementation of the lessons learned in the past would help females to achieve their objective and balance the career with personal life.

Technological advancement in armaments and combat systems has lowered the desire of males to serve in Armed Forces. On the contrary, the social evolution of females makes them more suitable to adapt to these changes.

16. Conclusions and Results of the Study

Based on the review of the literature and the study of the reports it is concluded that female models in the highest military hierarchy are crucial to assist the future leaders. Females in the military should take advantage of all opportunities to take charge of command duties so that they can gain the valuable operational experience likewise their male colleagues. They must follow the educational programs and should be encouraged to take greater responsibility.

For the first time in the Table of Organization of the AAF was added a new column, “gender” which is an organic requirement according to NATO standards. The ongoing military transformation opens new windows of opportunity for women to broaden their role as an integral part of AAF. Females are an advantageous human resource for the future wars. They have leadership skills to solve unstable, complex, uncertain and confusing issues related to battles. The combination of education with operational experience will provide females with the adequate tools to be highly appreciated within the transformed military. The paper concludes that supporting the gender equality in the armed forces, the involvement of the women in all levels of military decision making and ensuring that they get full and equal rights in the armed forces is key to successful transformation of the armed forces.

17. Recommendations

The legislation for equal changes should be implemented in military sector as well. The military personnel should be recruited based on demonstrated skills and competences avoiding prejudice. The military personnel should be trained on cultural, gender issues as well as appeal procedures. Unit commanders should exercise their authority in order to prevent and punish sexual harassment cases. There should be zero tolerance for sexual harassment and sexual abuse in the military. There should be female counsellors in the Armed Forces. At the same time the armed forces should highlight the benefits that female engagement brings to the military. Nonetheless, the state should improve and support the ability of the armed forces to recruit, keep and advance the females in career.

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A Mixed Integer Linear Programming Model Proposal for Network Design of a Multi-Phase, Environmental and Flexible Closed Loop Supply Chain

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Abstract

To provide a competitive edge in today's conditions of globalization businesses are required to go beyond the classical methods. When we take into account the basic structure of the contemporary value chain and its importance, we can describe supply chains as "Outstanding Competitiveness Creator Source" for businesses. In this context this can be said that a supply chain network design decision which has a strategic importance in all processes including procurement of raw materials, manufactured products and services delivered to the customer, even after sales services is a critical decision for businesses. On the other hand because of the awareness of customers, being more searching and questioning and taking into account not only ergonomics but also the environmental impact of products in the information society, businesses are required to make environmentally sensitive activities in all conducting business processes. In this study, a model is proposed for the design of a supply chain distribution network that may be suitable for new business processes which are shaped by globalization and the information society's effect. The model includes raw material supply, production, distribution, recycling activities design as flexible and environmentally sensitive processes for a product with more than one component.

Keywords: A supply chain network design, environmentally sensitivity, flexibility, a mixed integer linear programming

1. The Concepts of Supply Chain Management, Reverse Supply Chain Management and Closed Loop Supply Chain Management

Due to the causes such as environmental concerns, economic reasons, laws, institutional and social responsibility, sustainable development, maintaining the natural resources, and less consumption of material, the activities of recovery has gained importance. Because of all these reasons, the concepts of supply chain management, reverse supply chain, and closed loop supply chain offering a holistic approach, both more profitable and environmental friendly have gained importance.

Supply chain management can be considered as a structure showing development around customer orientated institutional vision; managing the internal and external connections of a business enterprise; and following this, providing the integration and coordination of synergy between in-functionality and in-organization. The successful integration of internal supply chain predominantly depends on the perfect and timely information share between the rings in supply chain (Min and Zhou, 2002 ).

The increasing perception of consumer responsibility has made obligatory the producers of original equipment and other actors of supply chain to collect the products they produced after the use of final consumer; to make them usable; and appropriate removal of the materials and products that will not be able to be recovered, in order to prevent from wasting, and to form the infrastructure of sustainable development. (Krikke et al 2004)

Supply chain management, in parallel with economic, technological, legal, and ecological changes and development, forms a basis for a lot of new concepts and interdisciplinary studies. From this point of view, first
of all, it is necessary to define the concepts of reverse logistic and closed loop. In the scope of management of reverse chain supply, there are the activities carried out for the recovery of product and the product flow of producer that were backwardly used.

The approach of management of reverse supply chain includes the efforts of collecting the products that are not possible to use due to completing their lifetimes or that are returned due to reasons such as lack of quality, product recall, and post-guarantee and sale service from the points of consumption; of examining; and adding value to these products, of recovering them (Erol et al., 2006: 4).

Management and planning of reverse logistic process has some characteristics. These can be considered as follows (Özgün, 2007: 32-33):

- **That material flow is uncertain**: The firms do not know the amount of product to reloop and when it will return.
- **Unclear quality and diversity of the returning products**: The return flow of products presents diversity.
- **Customer loyalty**: The return of products largely depends on the final customer or the final user.
- **That the time is critical**: The routes of material are uncertain. For reusing and rearranging, it is necessary to very rapidly recover the active value of returning product.
- **Uncertain market demand**: The price and demand of secondary markets is not clear. In the place, where the processes of reverse logistic and demand fluctuations occur, for the returning materials, it has to have a structure supporting the flexible capacity.
- **Improving value**: In order to make maximum the capital value forming in the returns, there is a need for new markets.

A well application of reverse supply chain reduces the cost of firm to acquire raw material and material; lowers the purchase power of customer, shortens his/her reaction time; performs social responsibility; and improving the image of environment–firm, provides competitive advantage to the firm (Nakiboglu, 2007: 181).

Reverse logistic makes a relationship between the market presenting the used product to the marketplace and market presenting the new product. If these two markets overlap, it is termed closed loop supply chain. Closed loop not only includes the activities of supply chain and advanced supply chain, but also, additionally includes the activities of reverse supply chain (Özkan, 2010: 23).

![Closed Loop Supply Chain](image)

**Figure 1**: Closed Loop Supply Chain (Beamon, 1999)

According to Paksoy (2012), in the systems, where the structure of closed loop supply chain, the final products emerging in the network of advanced supply chain are collected from the customers and without going out of loop, subjecting to recycling, are again included in the process (Paksoy, 2012: 9).

Management of reverse supply chain, in order to protect the environment and provide the sustainable development, makes it difficult the aim of firms to make profit. These aims are overlapping aims, not conflicting ones. Dowlatshahi (2000) suggests that via remanufacturing, 40-60% of the cost of an original product can be
saved. Adding the new value to the used products or reuse of certain materials brings together very important savings and as a result of this, causes the increases in the profitability rate.

1.1 Design of Supply Chain Network and Modeling

Besides the design in the business enterprise, transporting material, scheduling, production planning and controlling, the relationships with the other business enterprises are also important. In supply chain management, success, rather than an individual phenomenon, is in the meaning of modeling the complex network of business relationship and managing by coordinating it.

Planning the distribution networks is one of the main areas, in which strategic planning is applied. A plan of strategic distribution network is developed to meet a set of certain needs along a given planning horizon. A good plan must supply right goods, in right amounts, in right place, and right time to the customer and define suitable distribution network. Plan of distribution network, beside determining profit, the service presented to the customer, it most include the number of distribution center to be opened, their location, and to which customers they will serve, technical detail such as selection of transporting methods to be used. As the number of storage increase, the delivery costs reduce and cost of storage increases (Paksoy and Altıparmak, 2003:152).

2. The Problem

In this part of the study an effective SCM model that will help to ensure is proposed. In this model, a network design is made with suppliers, factories, distribution centers, retailers, collection centers, recycling centers and customers under the constraint of material requirements. A mixed integer mathematical model which is modelled by taking into account supply chain constraints with linear is given below.

In this model there are more than one products, suppliers, factories, distribution centers, retailers, customers, collection centers, recycling centers and one waste. Because of flexible structure of supply chain, product flow between stages may be directly or hopping. In stages failed / defective products are sent to collection center and then recycling center or waste according to their repair the state. There is a detailed decomposition in recycling center because products occurs two-tier components. The aims of this system is to minimize cost of CO2 emissions released during transport as well as the transportation costs. Firms use different vehicles which have different motors and release different CO2 emissions. We assumed that the vehicles transport capacity is unlimited.

![Figure 2: Our Network Design for Supply Chain](image-url)
2.1 Identification of Model Parameters

2.1.1 Indices:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>Products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>Second Tier Component</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>First Tier Component</td>
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<td>s</td>
<td>Second Tier Suppliers (T2)</td>
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<td>i</td>
<td>First Tier Suppliers (T1)</td>
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<td>j</td>
<td>Factory (F)</td>
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<td>r</td>
<td>Distribution Center (DC)</td>
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<td>u</td>
<td>Perakendeciler (P)</td>
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<td>k</td>
<td>Customer (M)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>Collection Center (CC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>Recycling Center (RC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>Vehicles (T)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.2 Transport Quantity Between Stages

- \( X_{sitvpn} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for second tier component of product v from T2 to T1
- \( Y_{ijtvp} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for first tier component of product v from T1 to F
- \( Z_{jrtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from F to DC
- \( W_{jutv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from F to P
- \( V_{ijtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from F to C
- \( S_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from DC to R
- \( H_{jkvtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from DC to C
- \( A_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from DC to CC
- \( B_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from R to C
- \( R_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from R to CC
- \( E_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from C to CC
- \( F_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from CC to W
- \( G_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for product v from TM to RC
- \( K_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for first tier component of product v from RC to F
- \( L_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for second tier component of product v from RC to T1
- \( N_{jtv} \): Transport quantity with vehicle t for second tier component of product v from RC to W
- \( CO_2t \): CO2 quantity for vehicle t. (gr/km)

2.1.3 Transport By Vehicle t

- \( I_{sitvpn} \): If second tier component of product v transport will happen from T2 to T1 with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
- \( I_{ijtvp} \): If first tier component of product v transport will happen from T1 to F with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
- \( I_{ijtv} \): If product v transport will happen from F to R with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
- \( I_{ijtv} \): If product v transport will happen from F to C with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
- \( I_{ijtv} \): If product v transport will happen from DC to R with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
- \( I_{ijtv} \): If product v transport will happen from DC to C with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
- \( I_{ijtv} \): If product v transport will happen from DC to CC with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
- \( I_{ijtv} \): If product v transport will happen from CC to W with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
- \( I_{ijtv} \): If product v transport will happen from CC to RC with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
- \( I_{ijtv} \): If first tier component of product v transport will happen from RC to F with vehicle t it's value is 1, in other cases it's value is 0
• \( I_{\text{MTVPN}} \): If second tier component of product \( v \) transport will happen from RC to \( T_1 \) with vehicle \( t \) its value is 1, in other cases its value is 0
• \( I_{\text{MTVPN}} \): If second tier component of product \( v \) transport will happen from RC to \( W \) with vehicle \( t \) its value is 1, in other cases its value is 0

2.1.4 Costs:
• \( C_{\text{MTVPN}} \): Unit transportation cost of second tier component of product \( v \) with vehicle \( t \) from \( T_2 \) to \( T_1 \) (TL / Piece)
• \( C_{\text{TPV}} \): Unit transportation cost of second tier component of product \( v \) with vehicle \( t \) from \( T_1 \) to \( F \) (TL / Piece)
• \( C_{\text{FV}} \): Unit transportation cost of product \( v \) with vehicle \( t \) from \( F \) to DC (TL / Piece)
• \( C_{\text{FVT}} \): Unit transportation cost of product \( v \) with vehicle \( t \) from \( F \) to R (TL / Piece)
• \( C_{\text{KT}} \): Unit transportation cost of product \( v \) with vehicle \( t \) from \( T_1 \) to \( W \) (TL / Piece)
• \( C_{\text{KTV}} \): Unit transportation cost of product \( v \) with vehicle \( t \) from \( F \) to \( C \) (TL / Piece)
• \( C_{\text{JVT}} \): Unit transportation cost of product \( v \) with vehicle \( t \) from \( F \) to \( R \) (TL / Piece)
• \( C_{\text{JUT}} \): Unit transportation cost of product \( v \) with vehicle \( t \) from \( F \) to \( C \) (TL / Piece)
• \( C_{\text{JKT}} \): Unit transportation cost of product \( v \) with vehicle \( t \) from \( F \) to \( C \) (TL / Piece)
• \( C_{\text{CO2}} \): Unit transportation cost of \( CO_2 \) (TL / tones)

2.1.5 Component Usage Rates:
• \( W_{\text{PN}} \): Second tier component usage rate in first tier component
• \( W_{\text{VP}} \): First tier component usage rate in product \( v \)

2.1.6 Distances Between Stages:
• \( D_{\text{ST}} \): Distance between \( T_2 \) and \( T_1 \) (km)
• \( D_{\text{T1}} \): Distance between \( T_1 \) and \( F \) (km)
• \( D_{\text{FD}} \): Distance between \( F \) and DC (km)
• \( D_{\text{FR}} \): Distance between \( F \) and R (km)
• \( D_{\text{FC}} \): Distance between \( F \) and C (km)
• \( D_{\text{DC}} \): Distance between DC and R (km)
• \( D_{\text{DC}} \): Distance between DC and C (km)
• \( D_{\text{DC}} \): Distance between DC and CC (km)
• \( D_{\text{RC}} \): Distance between R and C (km)
• \( D_{\text{RC}} \): Distance between R and CC (km)
• \( D_{\text{CC}} \): Distance between C and CC (km)
• \( D_{\text{C}} \): Distance between CC and W (km)
• \( D_{\text{CM}} \): Distance between CC and RC (km)
• \( D_{\text{CF}} \): Distance between RC and F (km)
• \( D_{\text{CM}} \): Distance between RC and \( T_1 \) (km)
• \( D_{\text{CM}} \): Distance between RC and \( W \) (km)
2.1.7 Capacities:
- $e_v$: Capacity of F for product v (piece)
- $e_w$: Capacity of DC for product v (piece)
- $e_w$: Capacity of R for product v (piece)
- $e_v$: Capacity of CC for product v (piece)
- $e_{rmp}$: Capacity of RC for first tier component of product v (piece)
- $e_{tmp}$: Capacity of RC for second tier component of product v (piece)
- $d_v$: Demand of C for product v (piece)
- $a_{mp}$: Capacity of $T_2$ for second tier component of product v (piece)
- $a_{vp}$: Capacity of $T_1$ for second tier component of product v (piece)

2.1.8 Recycling Rates:
- $W_{ck}$: Product v rate collected from C to take CC
- $W_{cm}$: Product v rate collected from CC to take RC
- $W_{mp}$: First tier component of product v rate collected from RC to take F
- $W_{tmp}$: Second tier component of product v rate collected from RC to take $T_1$

2.1.9 Deterioration Rates:
- $q_v$: Deterioration rate being while transportation from F to DC
- $q_w$: Deterioration rate being while transportation from F to R
- $q_v$: Deterioration rate being while transportation from DC to C
- $q_a$: Deterioration rate being while transportation from DC to R
- $q_a$: Deterioration rate being while transportation from R to C

2.2 Objective Function:

2.2.1 Transportation Costs:

\[
\text{Min} \left\{ \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} + \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} + \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} + \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} + \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} \right\}
\]

2.2.2 CO2 Costs:

\[
\text{Min} \left\{ \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} + \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} + \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} + \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} + \sum_j \sum_i \sum_v \sum_p \sum_m \alpha_{i,m,v,p} X_{i,m,v,p} \right\}
\]

2.2.3 Objective Function:

Min [Transportation costs + CO2 costs (b.2)]
2.3 Constraints:

2.3.1 Capacity Constraints:

- \( \sum_i \sum_j x_{sitvp} \leq a_{svp} ; \forall s, v, p, n \)
- \( \sum_j y_{jitvp} \leq a_{vtp} ; \forall v, p \)
- \( \sum_t z_{jrtv} + \sum_j w_{jutv} + \sum_k v_{jktv} \leq e_{jv} ; \forall j,v \)
- \( \sum_u c_{ruutv} + \sum_j a_{ritv} + \sum_k z_{ruktv} \leq e_{rv} ; \forall r, v \)
- \( \sum_k d_{buktv} + \sum_j r_{ultv} \leq e_{uv} ; \forall u, v \)
- \( \sum_m g_{lmtvp} + \sum_t e_{mp} \leq e_{mpv} ; \forall m, v, p \)

2.3.2 Equilibrium Constraints:

- \( \sum_j z_{jrtv} = \sum_j z_{jrtv} ; \forall r, t, v, p \)
- \( \alpha_{jru} \sum_j z_{jrtv} = \sum_j s_{ruutv} + \sum_k h_{ruktv} ; \forall r, u, t, v \)
- \( (1 - \alpha_{jru}) \sum_j s_{ruutv} + (1 - \alpha_{jru}) \sum_j w_{jutv} = \sum_k b_{uktv} ; \forall u, t, v \)
- \( \alpha_{jru} \sum_r s_{ruutv} + \alpha_{jru} \sum_j w_{jutv} = r_{ultv} ; \forall u, l, t, v \)
- \( (1 - \alpha_{jrtv}) \sum u b_{uktv} + (1 - \alpha_{jrtv}) \sum_j v_{jktv} + (1 - \alpha_{jrtv}) \sum_r h_{rktv} \geq e_{kv} ; \forall k, v \)
- \( e_{kv} w_{kltv} = e_{kltv} ; \forall k, l, t, v \)
- \( w_{mp} [\sum r a_{ritv} + \sum u r_{ultv} + \sum k e_{kitv}] = e_{mp} ; \forall m, l, t, v \)
- \( (1 - w_{mp} [\sum r a_{ritv} + \sum u r_{ultv} + \sum k e_{kitv}] = f_{ltv} ; \forall m, l, t, v \)
- \( w_{mp} w_{mp} = \sum l g_{lmtvp} = \sum l k_{lmtvp} ; \forall m, t, v, p \)
- \( (1 - w_{mp} w_{mp} - w_{jvp} w_{jvp}) \sum l g_{lmtvp} = e_{mpv} ; \forall m, t, v, p, n \)

2.3.3 Transportation Constraints:

- \( x_{sitvp} - M_{sitvp} \leq 0 \)
- \( x_{sitvp} - M_{sitvp} \geq 1 - M \)
- \( y_{jitvp} - M_{jitvp} \leq 0 \)
- \( y_{jitvp} - M_{jitvp} \geq 1 - M \)
- \( z_{jrtv} - M_{jrtv} \leq 0 \)
- \( z_{jrtv} - M_{jrtv} \geq 1 - M \)
- \( w_{jutv} - M_{jutv} \leq 0 \)
- \( w_{jutv} - M_{jutv} \geq 1 - M \)
- \( v_{jktv} - M_{jktv} \leq 0 \)
- \( v_{jktv} - M_{jktv} \geq 1 - M \)
- \( s_{ruutv} - M_{ruutv} \leq 0 \)
- \( s_{ruutv} - M_{ruutv} \geq 1 - M \)
- \( h_{rktv} - M_{rktv} \leq 0 \)
- \( h_{rktv} - M_{rktv} \geq 1 - M \)
- \( a_{ritv} - M_{ritv} \leq 0 \)
- \( a_{ritv} - M_{ritv} \geq 1 - M \)
- \( b_{uktv} - M_{uktv} \leq 0 \)
- \( b_{uktv} - M_{uktv} \geq 1 - M \)
2.3.4 Notation Constraints:

- $R_{ultv} - M_{ultv} \leq 0$
- $R_{ultv} - M_{ultv} \geq 1 - M$
- $E_{kitv} - M_{kitv} \leq 0$
- $E_{kitv} - M_{kitv} \geq 1 - M$
- $F_{ltv} - M_{ltv} \leq 0$
- $F_{ltv} - M_{ltv} \geq 1 - M$
- $G_{mtvpn} - M_{mtvpn} \leq 0$
- $G_{mtvpn} - M_{mtvpn} \geq 1 - M$
- $K_{mjtpvn} - M_{mjtpvn} \leq 0$
- $K_{mjtpvn} - M_{mjtpvn} \geq 1 - M$
- $L_{mtvpn} - M_{mtvpn} \leq 0$
- $L_{mtvpn} - M_{mtvpn} \geq 1 - M$
- $N_{mtvpn} - M_{mtvpn} \leq 0$
- $N_{mtvpn} - M_{mtvpn} \geq 1 - M$

3. Conclusion

A supply chain is the network of organizations that are involved, through upstream and downstream linkages, in the different processes and activities that produce value in the form of products and services delivered to the ultimate consumer (Christopher 1992). In other words, a supply chain consists of multiple firms, both upstream (i.e., supply) and downstream (i.e., distribution), and the ultimate consumer. In this study, environmental friendly and flexible closed loop supply chain network is considered. In this scope, first of all, after referring to the concepts of supply chain, closed loop, and reverse supply chain, the subject will be scrutinized in more detail via modeling. Optimality of this proposed model can be tested in future studies and the model can be developed in accordance with the structure of the modern supply chain.

References

Risky and Protective Factors of Bullying’s Acts

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Abstract

In bullying’s acts the students are divided into two main groups: the bullies and the victims. The main focus of this scientific article is to explain why students become authors (bullies) or fall in the role of victim. In order to explain this, in this article are identified some explanatory attempts, which are based on identifying risky factors and protective factors for these roles. The development of the child gets possible through an interplay of risky and protective factors. Besides individual characteristics of a child, which play an important role in understanding the development of aggressive behaviors should also be taken into account the social context, where the child is being developed. Interactions with family and peers, and in a broader context are considered as key determinants of socialization. In this article is also analysed the family and socio-economic background of children, who exhibit bullying problems. The physical and psychological factors that affect their social behavior, are also analysed.

Keywords: bullying’s acts, risky and protective factors, family background, socio - economic, physical and psychological factors.

1. Introduction

To explain why children become authors or fall in the role of victim, there have been some attempts disclosures, which are based on the identification of risky factors and protective factors for these roles. Developing is formed through an interplay of risky and protective factors. Besides individual characteristics of a child, which play an important role in understanding the development of aggressive behavior should be taken into account also the social context, where the child develops. Interactions with family and peers, and in a broader context are considered as determinants keys of socialization. In the following sections will be dealt with family background and socio-economic development of the children, who exhibit bullying problems, and also with the physical and psychological factors that affect their social behavior.

2. Family and social-economic background

Results found about family background are similar to authors and authors - victims (victims aggressive), as both groups exhibit aggressive behaviors.

In the development of aggressive behavior, the family plays a very significant role. In families children learn certain behaviors for example from the models. During behavioral modeling there are important elements, first, the experience of domestic violence, but also educational paths of parents (especially unstable and not well-defined borders, inappropriate and severe punishments). In addition, positive and negative reinforcement of aggressive behavior is achieved through unstable and unpredictable behavior of parents, through which the child learns that his way of behavior is valuable.

The parent - child relationships provide a basis for all social interactions and further relationships. From the research, there is evidence that children who have had an insecure attachment in the first years of life have a greater probability of having behavioral problems later. Insecure attachment parent-child seems to affect more particularly to

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girls, which in such cases are more likely to exhibit aggressive behavior. Children who experience violence from their parents, are more at risk of experiencing violence and victimization experiences in further social relationships - a phenomenon, which is defined with the term “transmission of violence from generation to generation”.

Shields & Cicchetti concluded from the study of 267 children who participated in a summer camp, that 76% of perpetrators that bullied other children (in this study they are included only a group of authors - the victim) had had abuse experience from their parents, while only 24% of them had no such experience. This means that children who have been abused, are most likely to exhibit aggressive behavior toward peers (consequence of the model of parental violence).

Unlike boys, girls who are exposed to domestic violence, exhibit mostly psychological problems such as depression and anxiety, and rarely exhibit behavioral problems. Girls are often more dependent and therefore they are seen as the most likely subjects to school bullying.

Especially to the group of authors - victims of bullying, is noticed a deficient system of emotions. Rejection and violent treatment by parents, can cause the fact that children do not learn to regulate their emotions and consequently also develop hostile attribution of causes (attributions). This means that the actions of others are more likely to be interpreted as hostile and therefore the child reacts automatic aggressively to defend himself against a perceived bullying act. While this may be an appropriate response in a violent family environment, such a reaction is a sign of misadaption in other social contexts. Children with such uncontrolled rage reactions are also risked to be excluded from the circle of peers and they get systematically harassed and tormented by other children.

In summary, many studies found that aggressive children (authors and authors - victims), are faced with aggressive models and have experienced domestic violence experience, in a greater extent than other children.

Children who are part of the group of authors of bullying, especially those of the authors – victims group are often faced with different periods of crisis such as parental divorce and difficult economic conditions of the family, lack of general interest of parents for their children's lives and lack of information about their children's activities during free time, single parents, who often leave small children alone or neglected themselves, poor relationships between parents and children (poor emotional connection between family members), inadequate supervision, malpractice or overprotection from parents.

Aggressive children have felt few love and affection in their families. For this reason the relationship with their parents is of low quality and more tense than that of other children. This is especially true for the group of authors - victims.

All events that can lead to a child’s psychological problems and can cause periods of crisis to child, are seen and considered as risky factor for the emergence of bullying phenomenon. Olweus (1973, 1978) could certainly ascertain from his investigations, that guys in the role of victim (he studied only boys) compared to males in general (boys unaffected by the phenomenon of bullying), had a more narrow and more positive relationship with their mothers. However in this case it is unclear whether this relationship is a cause or a result of victimization. Simultaneously Olweus found that fathers of boys mentioned were critical and distancing to them, which can make it difficult the identifications of these boys with fathers.

Bowers noted good relations of children, (whose role was victims of bullying) to the parents, as well as to their siblings. He suspects that these families tend to confuse or "trapped" family model, they may have such a close relationship with each other, that as cause they may limit or restrict each other in developing their autonomy. From such an overprotection, children do not learn to solve their problems independently and to compete against other peers and especially to protect themselfes appropriately from possible harassment.

3. Physical factors

In connection with the physical strength, the results of various studies indicate that the perpetrators are superior in

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strength than their victims. These results are based on subjective assessments of the children and/or external evaluations of teachers. When was made a objective measurement of physical strength and skill, there were not found any distinction between victims and perpetrators. This result shows clearly that aggressive children (the authors) are often considered stronger than they really are, and this explains among other factors, why victims often do not even attempt to attack against bullying’s acts of authors, since those early perceive themselves as loser.

The same applies for disability, disorder or other physical abnormalities. When the teachers and the victims were asked about the reasons for victimization, they reported as cause of bullying the physical characteristics of children tormented by bullying, however, did not find any connection between physical anomalies and victimization. Alsaker often found invidius who had language deficits and concerns at birth only in the group of authors - victims. Also in this group were found most individuals who suffer from attention deficit disorder and hyperactivity. Such deficits can hamper the child's integration in the peer group and the "unusual" behavior, may favor victimizing behavior from his peers.

4. Social behavior and peer relationships

Children differ in terms of their social behavior and in terms of their integration into their social environment. Special features found primarily in children affected by the phenomenon of bullying, especially in authors, authors - victims and victims clearly differ in their behavior towards peers, in their relations with them as well if one compares them with each other.

5. Social competence and prosocial behavior

Authors and authors - victims exhibit aggressive behavior, but they differ from each other in terms of their integration into the peer group. The group of authors - victims is similar to the group of victims cause they both experience victimization experiences, but differ with each other in terms of their behavior towards others.

Children who enjoy popularity in relationships with peers have the ability to behave properly in the processes of interaction, they possess social competencies, which are essential elements for a successful friendships and relationships between peers. Social competence has many aspects. Thus, the people who own social competence are expected to communicate effectively, understand themselves and others better, to respect the norms and moral rules of their society, to control their emotions, can be expressed in the behave properly and in accordance with their age.

According to Elliot and Gresham, modes of social behavior can be addressed and analyzed in five areas: collaboration, persistence, responsibility, empathy and self-control. Children with poor social competence have deficits in these areas and thus are more likely to experience negative relationships with peers and adults.

Children involved in bullying have deficits in some areas of social competence, but not in others, and therefore can not be said in general that the perpetrators and victims of bullying have a total lack of social competence.

In the field of cooperation with peers Alsaker (2003), found that victims were significantly less cooperative than children included in bullying. Limited cooperation of victims may be conditioned by negative experiences with their peers and can either be a prove of skill deficits and social achievements of these children. In this regard, however, in this aspect the group of author – victims is more deficient that the group of victims.

In terms of social contacts and connections (socialization) of the children, the study found that victims are less sociable than other children. It is believed that this happens for the same reasons as for the limited cooperation with their

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peers. The authors of bullying’s acts do not have difficulties in socialization, while the group of authors - victims appeared uncertainty, but there is less difficulty than the group of victims in socialization.

In terms of prosocial behavior (show of readiness, kindness, compassion, giving assistance, etc.), authors and authors - victims of bullying reach lower values. This effect becomes stronger with increasing of the age of the children. Victims, however, exhibit the same social competence as children uninvolved.

Another interesting finding from the study of Alsaker is associated with peer support. Victims face great difficulty in clearly defining their personal boundaries towards others and the protection of these limits. As a result they are generally not able to find support in the peer group. They are often drawn. While the authors of bullying are able to provide support in the group and they gladly take the lead in the group. Authors, and authors - victims of bullying show initiative in the group of children (about contacts, activities suggestion), which Alsaker (2003) sees as a positive use of personal capacity.

References

The Legal and Political System of the Republic of Macedonia between the Rule of Ethnos and Demos

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Abstract

This paper analyzes the functioning of the legal and political system of the Republic of Macedonia since its independence in 1991, regarding inter-ethnic relations and their legal and political solutions which are analyzed from the perspective of the process of democratization of the country as the main precondition for Euro-Atlantic integration. The paper concludes that the legal and political system of this state in transition utterly manifests the ethnocratic features as a permanent line of political governance with the state, which conceptually and practically favors the position and the rule of only one ethnic group to the detriment of democratic conceptual principles because ethnicity in this country is politicized and reflects in the daily lives of the citizens. That is why, the purpose of this paper consists in the elaboration of legal and political aspects of the position of Albanians in this country within the legal and political system drawing appropriate arguments over what is “de lege lata” and what should be “de lege ferenda” in terms of ethnic equality between ethnic Macedonians and ethnic Albanians, as the two greatest communities in this country, because democracy is possible only with equal citizens in all spheres of social and public life.

Keywords: democracy, ethnocracy, diversity, polarization;

1. Introduction

Since its independence in 1991, Republic of Macedonia has been looking for a comprehensive formula for adjusting ethnic and cultural diversity, because of the multiethnic composition of its 2-million population, ethnically structured as follows: 65 percent ethnic Macedonians, 25 per cent ethnic Albanians who live mostly in the north-west of the country, and 10 percent Roma, Turkish, Serbian, Bosnians, Vlachs and others1, which is a result of the few centuries of coexistence, while, on the other hand, with this reality, Macedonia is one of the most ethnically mixed countries of the former Yugoslavia with deeply divided society as highlighted in a study of ethnic relations in Macedonia by Vasiljevic Snjezana (2004): “The segregation in all spheres of life along ethnic lines is profound. The TV and radio stations are controlled and operated either by their Albanian or Macedonian owners and broadcast exclusively in their respective languages from their respective viewpoints. Private clubs, theatres, and restaurants rarely cater for constituencies different in any significant way. The public school system is also heavily segregated. Children of a single ethnicity grow up together, speaking one language in the classroom. Friendships are formed within their respective groups and rarely cross religious and cultural lines. A general lack of communication across ethnic and linguistic barriers inhibits interethnic understanding and hardens ethnic stereotypes”2.

In this regard, it should be noted that neither Albania nor Albanians, with no action neither challenge nor threaten the Macedonian identity in the Balkans, unlike other neighboring countries, as can be seen from the International Crisis Group Balkans Report (2001), indicating that: “Three of Macedonia’s neighbors–Greece, Bulgaria and Serbia–retain long-standing challenges to the Macedonian identity. While Greece vetoes Macedonia’s name, Serbia continues to deny

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the autonomy of Macedonia's Church, and Bulgaria denies the existence of both a Macedonian language and a Macedonian nation. In the case of Bulgaria, Sofia’s stated policy of “one nation, two states” may sound relatively reassuring, but is not, for it subverts the essential Macedonian claim to statehood: that they, as Macedonians, are a different and unique nation. Most Macedonians chafe at the remark of a former Bulgarian President (Petar Stojanov) that: “Macedonia is the most romantic part of the Bulgarian history”.

On the other hand, for an explanation of the relationship between the former Yugoslavia and the new state of Macedonia in terms of ethnic identity and inter-ethnic relations, it is important to note the International Crisis Group Country’s Report (1997) for that period, stating that: “Since Macedonia's independence in 1991, the virtually complete politicization of life-in terms of ethnic identity, loyalty to the new state, real or perceived irredentist aspirations and national security–has brought the country to a number of political crises. Like former Yugoslavia, Macedonia tends to equate its pluralism with tolerance. But also as in Yugoslavia, Macedonia's pluralism has been bought at the price of segregation rather than integration. Macedonian children go to school with their Macedonian peers, Albanians with Albanians, Turks with Turks. Macedonians read the Macedonian language press, Albanians the Albanian press, Turks the Turkish press, and so forth. In former Yugoslavia this system of 'separate but equal' tracks was meant to satisfy the social and cultural needs and even political ambitions of the country's divergent nationalities. In Macedonia, however, it has left a system of parallel, non-intersecting communities”.

2. Independence of the Republic of Macedonia between ethnos and demos

After the breakdown of former Yugoslavia, the state-building process of the Republic of Macedonia, from the legal aspect, began with its Constitution of 1991, which was expected to reflect positively in terms of ethnic relations, but, this did not happen, because the state was defined under historical fact that Macedonia is established as a national state of the Macedonian people, in which full equality as citizens and permanent co-existence with the Macedonian people is provided for Albanians, Turks, Vlachs, Romanians and other nationalities, which was not supported by political representatives of the ethnic Albanians, which considered that this Constitution began to build a specific type of ethno-centric character as a historical injustice to the Albanian people which was unacceptable for a multiethnic society. According to Oren Yiftachel (1999): “An ethnocracy is a non-democratic regime which attempts to extend or preserve disproportional ethnic control over a contested multi-ethnic territory and develops chiefly when control over territory is challenged, and when a dominant group is powerful enough to determine unilaterally the nature of the state”.

The International Crisis Group Country’s Report (1997) for that period notes that: “Macedonia's Albanians are keenly dissatisfied with conditions in the Republic and consider themselves disadvantaged in most every domain: employment, education, political representation. As the second-largest community in the country, and as a nationality instrumental with the Macedonians in forming the Socialist Republic of Macedonia after World War II, Albanians demand equal status with Macedonians: these demands include free use of Albanian national symbols; recognition and use of Albanian as an official language; recognition of Albanians as a constitutive (state-forming) nation in the Constitution; proportional representation in government; and greater participation in organs of local government, public institutions, and the armed forces (police and military). What began as a conflict between the national political parties has been turned into a conflict between the two major ethnic groups. The battle for political power could very easily be replaced by a battle for territorial redistribution. What has developed is a potentially volatile situation of intolerance between ethnic Macedonians and ethnic Albanians, characterized by a very high level of tensions. The fear of conflict escalation is becoming a part of everyday life”. In this regard, it should be noted that this situation led to the armed conflict of 2001 between the state security forces and the Albanian armed groups led by the National Liberation Army.

3. The Ohrid-state model: situation, challenges and prospects

The armed conflict which lasted from January to August 2001 was interrupted with the signing of the Ohrid Framework Agreement (OFA) in Skopje on 13 August 2001, by the four political parties (two Macedonian and two Albanian) and the President of the Republic, with the presence of facilitators from the United States and the European Union. The main objective of OFA was the survival of the Republic of Macedonia through the respect of ethnic identity and equality of ethnic communities in the country. OFA regulates the following issues: basic principles, cessation of hostilities, the development of decentralized governance, non-discrimination and equitable representation, special parliamentary procedures, education and the use of language, expression of identity, implementation, Annex A-constitutional amendments, Annex B-legislation changes and Annex C-confidence building. OFA in the period from 2001 to 2006 was the basis for reducing the contradictions between ethnic Macedonians and ethnic Albanians, but with stronger mediation of the International Community, but after the 2006 parliamentary elections, for the first time, the weakness of this document became apparent, when the government was formed not with the first Albanian political party (DUI-Democratic Union for Integration), but with the second Albanian political party (Democratic Party of Albanians) according to the number of votes because this issue is not regulated by law. Warnings about this type of weaknesses of this document, previously came from the former President of the Republic of Macedonia, Kiro Gligorov (2006), who emphasized, in an International conference dedicated to the Macedonian issue held in March 2006 in United States, that: "OFA does not meet the expectations of the majority population, and at the same time, ethnic Albanians have expressed dissatisfaction with the agreement and presented new requirements for cantonization and bi-national state, which will strengthen opposites and will create the basis for new crises and divisions".

In addition, we are presenting the findings of International Crisis Group (2011) regarding ten years of armed conflict in Macedonia, which underlines that: "There have been significant improvements in inter-ethnic relations since the Ohrid Framework Agreement was signed in 2001, but the government’s focus on ethnic Macedonian projects such as Skopje 2014 has rekindled feelings of discrimination among ethnic Albanians. The latter accept that much of the OFA has been implemented but say the process has been too slow and has not translated into a real commitment to create a multi-ethnic state in which they have equal decision-making power. Pursuant to Ohrid, key passages of the constitution, including its preamble, were changed; use of the Albanian language was regulated and expanded, especially in communities that are at least 20 per cent Albanian; the principle of equitable representation was introduced, as well as a voting mechanism to prevent a Macedonian majority from ignoring minority concerns. But three areas still require attention: equitable representation, especially inclusion of more ethnic Albanians in senior posts, decentralization and full implementation of the law on languages".

In this regard, nevertheless, the conclusions of the International Crisis Group (2011) dealing with the process of Euro-Atlantic integration of the country are important, stating that: "The lack of progress since 2008 in the process of Euro-Atlantic integration, due mainly to Greek obstacles, has contributed to a slowdown in inter-ethnic reconciliation. Extreme ideas about breakup and a Greater Albania are, for now, marginal. But as their common vision for the national future fades, ethnic Macedonians and Albanians are replacing it with their own concepts of what Macedonia should be: a unitary state for the Macedonians, a decentralized bilingual federation for the Albanians. Macedonia is also gradually backsliding on democratization and basic freedoms. In this troubled environment, inter-party and inter-ethnic tensions are increasing, and traditional forums for debate and protest are closing. The previous government, Prime Minister Gruevski in particular, spent much political and financial capital on the grandiose Skopje 2014 project. If it were only a misguided urban renewal project with nationalist overtones, this would be excusable, but it is more than that. It represents for many a nationalist vision of the state that leaves little room for minorities, especially Albanians—and alienates those many Macedonians who do not share it either. The project has nothing to do with an EU future and, by gratuitously provoking Greece, is actively postponing it. The new government has a chance to re-focus and concentrate instead on what could be called Macedonia 2014, a genuine multi-ethnic civic state. Ethnic Albanian politicians would have to make their own special contribution, strengthening their loyalty to the state by promoting not only the interests of their ethnic kin but also..."

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policies and practices that will make their country stronger, more efficient and less prone to clientelism and patronage. Decisions made now will have substantial effect on inter-ethnic and inter-party relations and be decisive in determining if by 2014 the country is moving towards the EU or gradual breakup\textsuperscript{11}.

It should be added that, one of the domestic architects of the OFA, Ljubomir Frckoski (2011), when talking about the fate of this document declares that: “In the meantime, changes had appeared for the Albanians as well. Their status did not change significantly as expected and were found surprised and uncomfortable with the rush of delayed Macedonian nationalism. Not all things were achieved, as it seemed at the beginning, in the early years after the conflict. Something was missing. Although the Albanians were part of the government (through the party that came out of the rebel movement-DUI), this DUI was placed in a position of weaker partner in the government, which only approves and has no real influence in politics. Systematic processes of reconciliation were missing and there was no basis for pressure on the Macedonian side for such policies that would be substantially different and would lead to such things as, for instance: sharing history, balanced historical narratives of all ethnic communities; official history of the conflict and of other historical events”\textsuperscript{12}.

According to a more thorough analysis of interethnic relations, especially the issue of Albanian language and its state and public use, we can see that things have not moved much during these 12 years after the OFA. In this regard, as we specified our findings on this issue in an International conference held at the South East European University in Tetovo (2011) dedicated to the tenth anniversary of the OFA, whereby we highlighted three paradoxes\textsuperscript{13}, namely: first, the historical paradox that has to do with the socialist system (with the rights of Albanians in this system), where, for example, the right to conduct court procedures in the Albanian language has been defined by the legal provision (Article 17) of the Law on Courts of the former Socialist Republic of Macedonia (1976), which stipulated that: “In the territory of the municipalities inhabited by members of nationalities, if the statute of the municipality provides for the use of a language of a certain nationality, (then) the proceedings before the municipal court established for that territory will be conducted as well in the language of that nationality” (the paradox has to do with the fact that the Albanians enjoyed more rights about the use of language in socialism than today in democracy, because today such a right has not been legally recognized). The second paradox has to do with practice, for example, during the legal clinical teaching we do with our students we often take part in the proceedings of the Tetovo Principal Court, where we are witnessing a tragicomic situation, where all participants in the proceedings, as the judge, lawyer, prosecutor, forensic expert, the defendant, clerk, witness are Albanians, but all of them conduct the judicial procedure in Macedonian language, and the third paradox has to do with the rights coming from the minority status, such as the European Convention on regional and minority languages (the Council of Europe, Strasbourg, 1992) whose Article 9–judicial powers–obliges member countries of the EC (Republic of Macedonia as well) to ensure that at the request of a party the court procedures–criminal, civil and administrative–be conducted in regional or minority language. Here the paradox lies in the fact that Albanians do not enjoy even the language rights that the Convention guarantees to minorities. Despite the adoption of the law on languages in 2008, this law did not make the Albanian language as an official language since for instance, plenary sessions of the Parliament cannot be conducted in the Albanian language even more when one of its vice Presidents is Albanian, Albanian ministers in the Government cannot speak or write in the Albanian language, Albanian language is not used at all at the state Presidency; the Albanian language cannot be used in the army and the police, because the commands are only available in Macedonian language; civil and criminal court proceedings and administrative proceedings cannot be conducted in the Albanian language and its script (not even in the courts which operate in the local government units where Albanian language is an official language at the local level, such as: Skopje, Tetovo, Gostivar, Debar, Kumanovo, Kicevo, Struga, etc.; tax procedures cannot be conducted in the Albanian language, proceedings before various state and public institutions and bodies cannot be conducted in the Albanian language, etc., and therefore, according to these findings above we can estimate that the Albanian language is not equal with Macedonian language in the state or public life of the country.

\textsuperscript{11} ICG Europe Report, Skopje, Istanbul, Brussels, No. 212: Macedonia: Ten Years after the Conflict, 11 August 2011, p. 23; <http://www.crisisgroup.org/~/media/Files/europe/balkans/macedonia/212%20Macedonia%20%20Ten%20Years%20after%20the%20Conflict.pdf>.


The fact that Ohrid model fails to sufficiently prevent violent inter-ethnic tensions in the Republic of Macedonia, is noted in the ICG Country’s Report (2011) indicating that: “Inter-ethnic tensions sometimes still do turn violent. Most notably on 13 February 2011, at least 100 ethnic Macedonians and ethnic Albanians clashed at the medieval Skopje fortress (Kale), over the building of a museum church meant to host historical artifacts from the archaeological excavation, resulting in eight injuries, including two police. Ethnic Albanians strongly opposed the project, claiming it was actually to be a church. Work was initially halted, but when it became apparent it was being resumed at night, Albanians, including several DUI politicians, went to the site to stop it. Hatred speeches were exchanged at the site and in the blogosphere, where some Facebook pages called for ethnic cleansing. Also, when the Macedonian Academy for Arts and Sciences (MANU) published the first national encyclopedia in September 2009, protests erupted over its provocative content, including the derogative term “Shiptari” to describe the Albanians. This encyclopedia portrays Albanians in Macedonia as newcomers from mountainous northern Albania. After strong opposition by many subjects, including the national academies in Albania and Kosovo, MANU withdrew the text and formed a working group to redraft it”14.

On the other hand, a problem in itself is the process of Antiquation of the country as is noted in the ICG Country’s Report (2011), stating that:15 “Moreover, the prime minister Gruevski has invested extensive political capital since 2006 in promoting Macedonia’s ancient heritage, through sponsoring archaeological excavations and renaming roads, sports arenas and the main airport after Alexander the Great and his father Philip of Macedon. This “antiquation” project has done much to reduce sympathy among Macedonia’s European friends. Even locally, only 30.9 per cent support renaming public institutions and places after ancient Macedonians, while 57.8 per cent are opposed. More than any part of the nationalist project, the massive Skopje 2014 urban development scheme is undermining EU accession and inter-ethnic reconciliation. It includes construction of neo-classical buildings, statues, bridges and arches worth €250 million to €300 million. Gruevski explained its rationale: “The main driving power of each success [is the] national spirit. The love for one’s past [and] inherited values has raised many nations from the ashes. Skopje 2014 puts an end to the chapter of Macedonia without monuments … accompanied by constant denials of our nation, language, identity, history”. The project is almost purely devoted to ethnic Macedonian history and heroes, thus alienating the other communities and goes against the spirit of the Ohrid Framework Agreement. For the Albanians, “this is an example of VMRO’s political philosophy and the kind of state they want to build” and a project to exclude them from the capital of the country. Skopje 2014 is contributing to the capital’s worrying division into ethnic Macedonian and Albanian districts. Gruevski’s Albanian coalition partner, DUI, went along with it in exchange for a much smaller project for ethnic Albanians in Cair, the capital’s main Albanian majority municipality. Named after the Albanian national hero Gjergj Kastrioti Scënderbeu (Scanderbeg), it is to cover a large area in the city center close to the old Skopje Bazaar. A DUI official explained: “We are trying to calm down Albanian emotions and feel part of this Skopje, too” but accused Gruevski of “ruining the real square in Skopje”. He also complained that DUI “couldn’t have reversed Skopje 2014 because a large part of it was already underway”. The party has been able to insert only statues of three Albanian figures (representative of Islam, Christian Orthodoxy and Catholicism) into the actual Skopje 2014 project. Skopje 2014 has faced civil opposition, including accusations of illegal urban planning and lack of transparency. The Constitutional Court has ruled parts of it illegal. Gruevski had it approved in the Centar-Skopje municipal assembly under a shortened procedure that excluded wider public debate. The national monuments, which under normal procedures would be voted in parliament and require a special double majority, instead, were approved at the municipal assembly as “monuments of local significance. Negotiations for a renewed coalition were meanwhile progressing in the growing shadow of the “Warrior on a Horse”, a large bronze statue apparently depicting Alexander the Great being erected in the center of Skopje16. Greece calls this a further “usurpation of Greek history” and threatens “unavoidable repercussions” for the country’s Euro-Atlantic perspective.


4. Concluding remarks

Republic of Macedonia with its model of inter-ethnic relations has not shown any significant progress since its independence in 1991, and in particular, since the armed conflict of 2001, because its model is limited, for as much as lack of democratic traditions, distrust of government, corruption, everlasting process of transition, poverty and enormous segregation and discord between ethnic Macedonians and ethnic Albanians.

On the other hand, analysis of the role of the mechanisms and institutions of the Ohrid state model showed that it does not possess a real effect in order to contribute to the facilitation of inter-ethnic dialogue, to the creation of a system of problem-solving and to prevent the violent inter-ethnic incidents and tensions.

The issue itself is the name dispute with Greece, which especially after the NATO Summit in Bucharest in 2008, consistently creates inter-ethnic and intra-ethnic polarization and division between ethnic Macedonians and ethnic Albanians, notably, among Macedonians themselves being divided into "ancient Macedonians" and "Slav-Macedonians" or "patriots" and "traitors", because, for the Albanians, the most important issue is the integration of the state into NATO and EU than the name of the state, while, on the other hand, for the Macedonians, the most important issue is the name of the state than the Euro-Atlantic integrations. This issue is vital for the future of the country and the region, since by 2008 if Macedonians agreed on something with Albanians it was integration into NATO and the EU, where there was a complete inter-ethnic consensus and cohesion because after all, only at this point, the country was acting like demos, which slowly began to split along ethnic lines after the fiasco in Bucharest in 2008, where Albania and Croatia became part of the NATO, and Republic of Macedonia did not. Since coming to power in 2006, Prime Minister Gruevski has been playing on the nationalist card and turned the NATO rejection into a major political victory in the June 2008 elections on a platform of ethnic pride of glorious ancient past of the ethnic Macedonians.

We believe that the issue of trust in inter-ethnic relations in Republic of Macedonia, is mainly related to the issue of ethnic identity, therefore, a new process of inter-ethnic and intra-ethnic dialogue is needed to change the existing Ohrid state model which did not give the expected effects, and in this aspect, the final solution of the 20-year dispute with Greece over the state name will have a very powerful effect, since the reestablishment of the Republic of Macedonia as a Demos or an Ethnos respectively as a state with one common national identity or a state with two or more ethnic and state identities in the future depends exactly on these issues.

References


Urban Planning Challenges in the Peripheral Areas of Durres City (Porto Romano)

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Abstract

In this paper will analyze the problems of urban development and challenges of territorial planning, mainly in the peripheral areas which provide comfortable conditions for strong investment in building large economic facilities, such as industrial parks, major shopping centers, other manufacturing activities, etc., which are part of the new spatial development on the northern edge of Durres. Object of study will be peripheral area of Porto Romano in Durres city, one of the most important urban centers in the country. Porto Romano lies to the north of the city of Durres, about 7 km from its center. Before 1990, about 50 ha develop Chemical Enterprise activity, consisting of pesticide, sulfur and sodium factory. After 1991, Porto Romano and abandoned industrial areas were assessed as environmental disaster, with risk in human health and in environment in general, especially after strengthening residential function during transition developed in informal forms. These spontaneous and uncontrolled developments of territory have made necessary the construction of territorial planning projects of this space and orientation of this territory towards sustainable development through the restoration of a better balance between public and private goods, natural and human environment, economy and natural resources. All these issues will be carefully analyzed in terms of giving directions for an urban planning in the service of the community, the environment and regional economy.

Keywords: Urban Planning, Peripheral areas, environmental issues, human risks etc.

1. Introduction

Territory planning studies evaluated as a necessary development instrument and emergency need primarily in urban centers affected by the spontaneous and informal development of transition, characterized by sudden demographic growth and unplanned use of territory.

Previous studies in this area are presented in the form of development strategies at regional and local level as:

1. Strategic regional program funded by UNDP, Regional Development Strategy of Durres City (2005), contains the objectives of the Millennium Development
2. INTERREG IIIA Programme, ANCONAPACO focused throughout the coastal area of Durres to compare the dynamics of Albanian coastal settlements with Italian coastal settlements (Marche region) and to suggest common policies in the rehabilitation of these areas, including Porto Romano;
3. Important publications in terms of geographical and economic analysis of the Durres as: Towards sustainable development of Tirana-Durres region, Ecological and Regional Development Institute of Dresden (IOER), etc.

This study focuses on:

1. non-integrated spaces where there is a distinct lack of basic services and infrastructure that dictate the growth of social exclusion.
2. ex industrial and manufacturing space, abandoned and partially degraded carrying inherited environmental pollution;

This paper intended to provide a strategic base built on some conclusions and suggestions for sustainable use of space and regulation of urban territory in the area of Porto Romano, in support of:

1. preparation of a local planning program in service of sustainable use of the territory on the basis of good management of natural and human resources (land, air, water, coastline, forests, landscapes);
2. development of a strategy for recovery and urban regeneration of area;
urban planning process in general for the city which is still unfinished and is facing a number of legal and territorial conflicts.

Analysis of economic typology of territory and inter-linking analysis of environmental and infrastructure of the area of Porto Romano is important in service of realizing a regional unified and consolidate economic system.

2. Geographic Position

City of Durres is a coastal town and lies to the west of the country. This city is one of the most important urban and economic centers of the country. Urban area based on the multiple use of territory, has won important functions and intensive use of territory, becoming one of the most developed region in the country.

Durrësi is one of the most important nodes of transport in the country. Through this city cross and develop the most important national and international road axes and maritime links as: East-West Corridor (262 km), part of the pan-European Corridor VIII, North-South Corridor, 405 km (Hani i Hoti-Tirana-Durres, Vlora, Saranda- Greece / Durres-Gjirokastra-Kakavija / Durres-Greece), and Durres-Kukes-Morine (180 km), connecting the country with Kosovo.¹

Map 1: Geographical Position of Durres City

In the city of Durres is situated the Port of Durres, the most important node of maritime transport in the country. The port of Durres is also the main line of Corridor VIII and one of the most important of gas and oil lines of Adriatic-Black Sea itineraries.

The area outside the city or suburbs includes 8 and 15 quarters (in the north), 13 and 14 quarters (part of region 6). In this area live about 59293 inhabitants² or 29.1% of the population of the city of Durres. It is often labeled as informal city. Part of it, is industrial city and Porto Romano (with Energy Park in the north) and the coastal part (court 13). Porto Romano area lies:

- in north of Durres and 7 km from its center and port.
- 9 km from the highway linking Tirana with Durres.
- Porto Romano bordered to the north by Bisht Palla, to the south by Durres city, to the east by Shen Vlash and Rrashbull hills and to west by the Adriatic Sea.

Porto Romano is about 2.2 km coastline³. Coastal and marine space constitutes an important natural offer, with significant impact on the development of tourism and maritime transport. Attractive and recreation landscape created by capes and rocky peninsulas, hilly forest systems valued as important assets for natural and cultural tourism. One important natural and ecological resource is the Adriatic Sea which is an interesting ecosystem. Rich marine fauna and gastronomy is important in favoring opportunities for tourism development in the region, offering different types of

¹ Abazi A., Sfidat e transportitrugor shqiptar (Monografi), Tiranë 2004.
² Municipality of Durres
³ Directory of Statistic, Durres Prefecture.
products.

Residential function of the area was developed with the free movement of population after 1992, under favorable conditions that had Durres Region in terms of human development.

3. The history of urbanization and industrialization

Since the establishment of a thousand-year-old city, Porto Romano area represented a significant part of Durres, with were consolidated commercial and transit functions. For this probe a number of historic and archaeological objects in the area, such as: The wall of Porto Romanes (IV century BC), Venetian Canal near the port area, Emporioni area, the prehistorik location of Bisht Palla etc.

Photo 1: The coast of Porto Romano, Wall archaeological and Chemical Enterprise

City of Durres, but also the residence of Porto Romano was at the intersection of important trade routes and was the center of the first commercial center in the eastern Adriatic coast. Since ancient times, the coast of Durres has been a major factor for the population in the region. In the northern part of Durresi Hills found archaeological remains of Porto Romano, which functioned as a port at the time of the Roman Empire.

In addition, during the communist regime Porto Romano area took consolidated industrial functions. In this space has developed its industrial activity undertaken by Durresi chemical Enterprise with sectors of productin of pesticides, sulfur and sodium bicarbonate. Another part of the enterprise used for the production of aluminum sulphate. This activity produced 20000 tonnes of toxic waste in the territory of the enterprise, mainly lindane and chromium 6 valent.

After 1990, with the closure of chemical activity, Porto Romano lost its economic functions. It was developed in typical conditions of an environmental hot spot, since for a long time pesticides and chemical residues were able to free and very close to the new residential center, created after 1995 by migrants mainly from northern areas Albania.

Free movement of population, supported the population of the area in informal conditions and the inclusion of this space into a stage against urbanization given the serious environmental problems that it inherited from the development of industrial activity, and the lack of physical and social infrastructure, which was so necessary to serve this new community.

About 300-400 m from the chemical enterprise lies areas inhabited mainly by migrants. In this area until hilly area are about 2300 informal housing, which occupy an area of 266 ha4.

Currently the residential function of the area has increased, in parallel with the new infrastructure investment in the area.

4. Environmental issues in the hot spot of Porto Romano

After 1991, Porto Romano and abandoned industrial areas were assessed as environmental disaster, with risk to human health and in the environment in general.

Realities that produce pollution in Porto Romano are:

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4 ALUZNI
4.1 Ex Chemical Enterprise

With the closure of the Chemical Enterprise was left unable to free many toxic substances, mainly lindane and chromate and sodium residues. All buildings and physical infrastructure that was related to industrial activity was left unable to fleeing and in the absence of full rehabilitation. Warehouses of chemical activity until 1990, deposited about 370 tons of chemicals. During the first decade of transition in these environments were able to free around 500 tonnes of lindane.

Results that pollution has gone beyond Erzeni estuary. In the east of bichromat and lindane area, a water drainage system leads to a main channel in which they join Durres wastewater. From here the waters go to a pumping station in Porto Romano and then flow into the Adriatic Sea.

Photo 2: Ex Chemical Enterprise, Lindan Deposits and Coastal Area

Based on measurements made on the assessment of pollution, previous studies classify the area of Porto Romano in four categories that distinguish the following characteristics.

Table 2: Polluted area classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pollution areas</th>
<th>Pollution indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sulfur areas near chemical enterprise</td>
<td>Observed higher concentrations in the mass 20 times higher than the critical value of HCH and 270 times higher than the critical value of lindane prescribed for rehabilitation activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lindane Area / Bichromat and pesticides</td>
<td>Observed values with the highest contamination with HCH / Lindane and Chrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Network channels drainage</td>
<td>Observed values with the highest contamination with HCH / Lindane and Chrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste storage warehouses of Bisht Palla</td>
<td>to a diameter of about 100 square meters of warehouse-center, pollution enters 100 m depth.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pollution in Porto Romano is distributed in all its vital areas. Land, water and air resulting loaded with toxic pollutants.

Contamination of soil:
- has spread beyond Rinia and Bisht Kamez village

Risks:
- Contamination of vegetation, because not fed with fertilizer of different organic material, but with lindane, bichromat and sodium residues.
- Households owning livestock like cows, goats, sheep, etc., which feed on contaminated land of enterprise.
- Health problems in children who play in contaminated soil.
## Contamination of groundwater:
- Groundwater have higher levels of HCH (2.47 μg / L) and chromium (50 to 28.300 μg / L) in the upper aquifer.
- Water wells are contaminated with visible presence of lindane. Analysis of well water, show that it contains 4,000 times more chlorobenzene from the acceptable level for drinking water in some EU countries.

### Risks:
- Use of water to these wells for livestock and irrigation, reduces the quality of agricultural and livestock products.
- Health problems in the community. Continuous exposure to large amounts of chlorinated benzene, causes problems in the nervous system, liver, kidneys, blood and reproductive organs.

## Contamination of surface waters:
- Surface water have high levels of chromium in the amount of 41-484 μg / L.

### Risks:
- Damage to biodiversity
- Loss of the values of the coast and sea as tourist assets. Studies of World Bank concludes that the area Porto Romano-Bisht Palle can not be used for purposes of tourism. At a minimum area of 500 m in the north and 500 m south of the point of discharge to drainage canal that flows into the Adriatic should not allow the development of tourism.

## Air pollution:
- In the air feels the strong smell of chemicals

## Contamination of housing:
- The number of families living in houses built with bricks contaminated, taken from buildings where previously produced lindane, is significant.

### 4.2 Landfill of Porto Romano

Since 1994, Porto Romano Landfill, is the only place for waste disposal in Durres city. It localizes about 4-5 km in north of Durres and covers an area of 200000 m2.

### Photo 3: Porto Romano Landfill and Wetland Area

Risk factors and reasons why it should be closed this landfill are:

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5 Department of Public Health. Durres
Located in an environmentally sensitive area, a wetland that often flooded during the rainy season.

Situated close to 20 m north of the pumping station and the point of discharge of the main channel in the Adriatic.

Its capacity is valid for 5 years. 2 of 3 parcels are filled with deposits. As a result, the total capacity of the three parcels is estimated to be 1.1 - 1.3 m³. Already, nearly half of the airspace is filled and about 600000 m³ are still available.

Underground area is made up of clay and mud that have a low penetrability.

4.3 Environmental Rehabilitation of Porto Romano

Rehabilitation of the "hot-spot" environmental constitutes a priority that demands quick solution.

The current measures for rehabilitation of the area are:

Table 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Institution and agency</th>
<th>Project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Italian Government</td>
<td>Repackaging of chemicals stored in warehouses of Bisht - Palla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-2005</td>
<td>Ministry of Environment, Forestry and Water Administration, World Bank</td>
<td>feasibility project for cleaning and rehabilitation of the area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
<td>Coastal Zone Management: Bisht Palla-Durres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Netherlands Government</td>
<td>Waste Management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to the initiative of the Ministry of Environment, it was possible to realize:

- Technological waste, mainly containing lindane and sodium bikromat, was deposited at large in a 1.5 km radius of the enterprise.
- 320 tonnes of chemical waste, of which 200 tons of solid waste, 100 tons of liquid waste and 20 tons of sludge held in these stores (and in Porto Romano), was pulled out of the country and were sent to be processed in a waste treatment plant.
- Storage of pesticides and waste generated by the process of lindane production, has become close Bisht-Palla, exactly in three stores. About 400 tons of chemicals are still stored in an area of 750 hectares.
- Construction of a capsule with an area of 20 thousand sqm for isolation of the remains of the ex chemical enterprise.
- Excavation of contaminated soil in the area of the chemical enterprise;
- Destruction of the remaining parts of the chemical enterprise, isolation of 28 thousand square meters of industrial waste from sodium and bichromate factories.

According to the Municipality of Durres, the final rehabilitation of the area will be carried out consistently with the support of the Netherland Embassy and the World Bank.

5. New territorial developments and challenges of sustainable urbanization

Peripheral spaces provide comfortable conditions for large investments. The low price of land and spatial access to design physical and public infrastructure increased investment in building large economic facilities, such as industrial parks, major shopping centers, other manufacturing activities, etc., which are part of new spatial developments in the northern part of Durres. Northern Suburbs offers attractive and recreation landscapes, which can be invested also for the construction of ecological and integrated parks.
Fig. 1. Advantages provided by the periphery for economic investment.

In the area where it is intended to build Energy Park (northwest of Durres) lives around 6.5% of the population of the city of Durres. The park is expected to create a strong base for economic development of the city and the region, including the activation and operation of heavy industry, light industry, manufacturing and processing, construction activities, education and health services, etc. Energetic and Industrial Park is designed to be extended to 1720 hectares. Energy Park will extend about 10 km from the city and will occupy 810 hectares, in the space between Romano Port and Bisht Palla. This park will be built and managed by private investors, in partnership with the public sector.

5.1 Industrial Park

Economic Zone with the status "Industrial Park", surrounded by oil products terminal, deposits of oil and gas, will occupy about 850 ha and will work with the status of an economic space with industrial production and agro-processing character.

Petroleum products Terminal (diesel, gasoline, kerosene, fuel) and liquid gas Terminal in Porto Romano is projected to be built in an area of 2 hectares, with length about 1100 m. Its annual capacity is expected to be 140000 m$^3$ of petroleum products and 14000 m$^3$ of liquefied gas. Deposits of oil and liquefied gas stretching around 26 hectares and have a total capacity of 140000 m$^3$ of petroleum products and 18400 m$^3$ of liquefied gas.

Photo 4: Deposits of oil products

It is planned that the space for industrial utilization occupy about 50% of the total planned area and the rest be used for:

a. internal support infrastructure:
   - electricity network,

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7 Author
8 Approved by DCM. 703, dated 23.04.2008
9 Approved by DCM. 391, dated 21.02.2008
10 Chamber of commerce and industry. Durres Prefecture. Durres, a good business choice. May 2009
11 Chamber of commerce and industry. Durres Prefecture. Durres, a good business choice. May 2009
drinking water network,
• Industrial water system,
• sewage and wastewater,
• sewage water from rain,
• network of telephone lines and Internet connections;
b. external supporting infrastructure:
• the main road network and internal network (road connecting with highway, road Spitallë-Durres, railway Durres-North Sukthi-)
• supporting infrastructure for services and trade,
• infrastructure for recreation and green.

In order to better use and management of industrial economic space, required to be categorized this space according to its function and typology, respectively:
• industrial space
• promotion space
• logistical and infrastructure space

Also, to increase productivity and to close with each other the center of agricultural production and the industrial processing center, it is necessary to plan an intermediate space around the industrial area, for agricultural use, being classified as areas of urban agriculture.

5.2 Romano Port

Romano Port has built 6.5 km north of the city of Durres. This port is planned for Imports of oil and LPG and for completion of term deposits of oil at the port of Durres. The the expansion of the existing of Romano port will continue in the northern part of the Container Terminal

![Photo 5: Romano Port](image)

5.3 Territorial Park

This park is planned to be built in the area of Kallmi, since it possesses recreational landscapes. Territorial Park will support industrial activity in terms of minimizing the pollution and will connect the coast with hilly area and northwest.

It is designed to be built as a free natural park overlooking the sea and integrated with public facilities in terms of service and entertainment, such as bars and restaurants, free markets, parking spaces etc.

According to data in Durres municipality, this project:
- provides standards for green and contributes to improving the quality of life of residents.
- contains strict limits regarding new constructions.

According to estimates of social, economic and environmental issues associated with building of Energy-Territorial Park results that:
- Its construction will generate opportunities employment, economic growth, increased living standards etc. It is expected to employ about 42000 people, that is converted to 5250 more flats in the following 10 years. Thus, the area will have a new breath in demographic terms.

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12 Chamber of commerce and industry. Durres Prefecture. Durres, a good business choice. May 2009
• construction of the park will encourage further investment to cover the area with full physical and social infrastructure, enabling rapid integration of local community with the city center;
• ndërtimi i parkut do të gjenerojë përfitme ekonomike rajonale dhe kombëtare;
• it is conceived and designed as an eco-park, where economic activity reports with environment will be friendly.

6. Conclusions:

Periphery of the city will continue to be affected by spatial transformations, dictated by rapid rate of the economic development in the future. Despite informal developments, periphery is one of the potential areas of economic development. It should be appreciated as an important production area in support of urban development.

6.1 Alternatives to urban regeneration and regulation of territory

Objective 1: Categorization of Porto Romano as reclamation and environmental restoration space (Hot Spot) and as strategic planning space to support new developments eco-industrial (Port of Porto Romano).
Objective 2: Evaluation of the area as a potential development space primarily in terms of its full coverage with all physical infrastructure necessary for its integration with the city center.
A. Taking remedial interventions in the road axis connecting Porto Romano (new industrial city) port and the central city area.
B. Integrated Connection of new planned infrastructure facilities with existing facilities in order to develop this park within a key point communication that connects and integrates two ports, railways and major road corridors.
C. Physical, functional and infrastructure Integrating between existing residential informal settlements and new industrial park

Objective 3: Integrating Energy Park plan with general urban plan of the city, setting exatly: plot ownership (municipal, state, private, ambiguous), roads and service networks, informal space, current space for industrial production, potential spaces designed for industrial purposes, green spaces, intermediate spaces (buffer zone) etc.

Objective 4: Classification of the area as a space of continuous monitoring and environmental conservation with special attention to the effective management of waste by modern recycling technologies.

Objective 5: Forecasting the needs of social and physical infrastructure development in the future on the basis of demographic growth forecasts.

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Cyber Security and National Security Awareness Initiatives in Albania: A Synergy Approach

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Abstract

Technological advances have changed the manner in which ordinary citizens conduct their daily activities. Many of these activities are carried out over the Internet. These include filling tax returns, online banking, job searching and general socializing. Increased bandwidth and proliferation of mobile phones with access to Internet in Albania imply increased access to Internet by the Albanian population. Such massive increased in access to Internet increases vulnerabilities to cyber crime and attacks and threatens the national security. As a result, Albania remains one of the countries that are targeted by phishing attacks. As a response, various entities engage in cyber security awareness initiatives and trainings with the aim to create cyber security awareness (CSA) among the citizens and the state institutions that operate in Albania. In the absence of a worthy national cyber security policy, however, these awareness initiatives and programmes are delivered through a variety of independent mechanisms. Various entities engage in cyber security awareness training each with its specific objectives and focus areas. It is argued in this paper that cyber security is complex and multi-faceted. No single solution can effectively address it and none of the participant actors can fight it by it's own. While the current means to create cyber security awareness does make impact, the fragmented and uncoordinated nature thereof have a potential to create its own dynamics. The focus of organizations and different institutional actors is, to deliver on their own objectives translates to some extent into the optimization of the behavior of individual entities as opposed to the optimization of the national cyber security awareness as a whole. This paper evaluates the extent to which the current cyber security awareness initiatives address the cyber security threats and risks. The assessment is based on the initiatives objectives, alignment of the program to the cyber threats, and the target audience.


1. Albania before and after 1990

Before 1990’s, Albania had remained in an questionable era, comparing with the last technology epochs that had evolved the other countries. If we would compare these periods we wouldn’t really be able to place properly within such an era, but we would very well express that we have known and used the phone. A meaningless expression for a world running so quickly towards the ongoing evolution, and in 1940 was introduced in the electronic age. In the 1990s computer was not known in Albanian offices as there were still being used typewriters and in the coming years, it would be exactly understood the backwardness in this area.

But let’s take a historical overview of the development of telecommunications post in Albania, from its beginnings until now, where we’ll definitely understand the stages passed by this important sector of the country. We will also see the time periods in which the evolution of technology began, that made possible the computer and internet spread, which are the basics that make up the virtual world and computer crimes.

2. Post-telecommunications, and their development:

Investigations made and PTT veterans’ statements, show that some post offices existed in the Ottoman administration since 1878. In the late 19th and early 20th century, in Albania, operated even two cruise company offices, the Austrian “Llojd” and the Italian “Puglia”, which performed task postal services. But only after the declaration of independence on
28 November 1912, Post-telecommunications service in Albania, marked its beginnings. Below are listed the most important historical events related to the performance and development of this important sector:

5 December 1912, The Provisional Government led by Ismail Qemali establishes the Ministry of Post Telegraph Telephones, Minister Lef Nosi.

5 May 1913, The first Albanian Post stamp is issued.

7 July 1913, The Provisional Government led by Ismail Qemali submits the request for membership to UPU and ITU, the process lasts 8 for years.

Year 1921, The first manual telephone central office with 200 numbers is installed.

Year 1922, The Albanian PTT administration is established at the Ministry of World Affairs. During that same year it accedes as member of UPU and ITU.

Year 1924, The Radio Station of the brand Marconi with a power of 3 kW is installed, providing telegraphic connection of Tirana with Belgrade, Zagreb and Vienna.

22 July 1924, The society “League of Albanian Post-Telegraphists” is founded. In its extraordinary congress held on 27 July–4 August 1924 it passed the relevant regulations which ensured the safety and protection of the rights of PTT employers.

Year 1930, A new automatic departmental telephone central with 150 numbers and cable network restricted only for the connection of ministries and other central institutions is added to Tirana.

During these years, Structure of services was 94.5% postal, with the postal correspondence with abroad dominating, 4.5% telegraphic and only 1% national telephone service. In PTT offices in cities, each Prefecture had a manual telephone central with 20-50 numbers, while some other cities had only one directory with 10 numbers connecting local authorities, and one Mors telegraph device each.

Year 1938, 68 offices & postal agencies altogether. A period during which the Italian capital in our country increases, and the need for telephone calls especially towards Italy becomes indispensable. A short wave radio station providing telephony and telegraphy connections between Tirana and Rome is installed in Tirana.

Year 1942, These connections are interrupted as a result of bombings which completely destroy the repeater in Catalonia, Italy.

Occupation from Italy, Some lines, a few telephone centrals and other connection devices start to be built and installed serving the military machinery. Thus, the maritime cables Durres-Brindisi and Vlora-Bari were laid in Tirana, Durres, Elbasan, Shkodra and Vlora an telegraph devices of the brand Hughes are imposed which later get replaced by teletypes, other telephone lines are laid between prefectures, etc.

Year 1946, The telephone line Tirana-Peshkopia is constructed supporting a 3 telephone ditch for communications with other countries through Belgrade and Skopje, while the postal deliveries with abroad started to be made through Struga and Podgorica.

Year 1947, The first public telephone central is mounted in Tirana with 800 numbers; teletype devices are mounted in several districts of the country and the first course is opened with the best technicians of the time.

August 1947, The General Directorate of Post Telecommunications is established with a dependency on the Ministry of World Affairs and later on under the dependency of the Ministry of Communications.

Years 1949-1950, District lines continue to be built, “single” threads are replaced by copies thus significantly improving the telephone and telegraph services. The radio connection with Sofia is imposed through the 3 kW transmitter of Lapraka and the available receivers of the brand IMCA.

Year 1953, Automatic decadic telephone centrals are installed in Durres and Elbasan containing 150 and 100 numbers respectively.

Year 1954, A new service is added to the PTT, the newspaper subscription and distribution throughout the country with an average of 150 thousand copies per day. During the same year was built a small unit for repairing the telephone devices and centrals.

(check the PTT plant is established which supports the PTT development during those years until 1994, the year when its premises pass on to AMC.

Year 1955, Telephone networks’ capacity increases by 2.8 times as compared with the year 1950, and about 4 times in the year 1960.

Years 1955-1960, 4000 numbers are added to the Tirana central and new automatic centrals are mounted in the main cities of the country like Shkoder, Gjirokaster, Korce, etc. a process which finishes in all cities and districts of the country in 1983. All these centrals were of the decadic system, electro mechanic technology.
Year 1964, The first interurban cable interconnection Tirana-Durres is put into use, and was succeeded by other cable connections during the years 1970-1972 with Vlora, Lushnja, Fier, Berat, Elbasan and the residential areas between them.

Year 1965, The number of PTT offices reached 220 as compared to 68 that were before the liberation. Years 1965-1966, The radio receiver centre in Kamez and the radio transmitter centre in Cerrrik are put at the disposal of the international interconnection, providing telephone and telegraph interconnection with all the countries around the world.

Year 1970, The direct connection of Tirana with all the district centers is realized by passing to the 12 Z12 telephone channels systems in the directions Tirana-Shkorder and Tirana-Korce. These equipments were of RFT production from Eastern Germany.

Year 1973, The direct phone calls of Tirana with other districts improve by means of the cable interconnection system (the 12-channel telephone equipment and the 16 and 18-channel telegraph equipment of this system were Chinese production whereas the interurban cable was symmetric).

Year 1973, Marks the start of the publication of the quarterly PTT Bulletin, which very clearly and accurately displays the achievements in staff trainings and qualifications in the country and abroad, the technical developments and technological improvements, extension and increase of the range of postal, telephone and telegraph services.

March 1973, General Directorate of Posts and Telecommunications passes under the dependency of the Council of Ministers, bringing about structural improvements in the whole pyramid, faster technical, technological and economic development of the system and most importantly a remarkable improvement of post and telegraph services to end users.

July 1973, Telephone and telegraph interconnection between Tirana and Rome is restored through the Durres-Brindisi maritime coaxial cable, now repaired and partially replaced, and the new line with Greece (Tirana-Gjirokaster-Ioannina) with 3 telephone channels is put into operation. The maritime radio connection passes under the authority of the General Directorate of Posts and Telecommunications which studies, designs and constructs in Durres powerful radio transmission and receiver centers, thus covering with telegraph services all the waters of the world and with phony up to the Red Sea and Baltic Sea.

September 1973, The first vocational full time courses are opened at the communications school in Durres.

September 1975, The central course of PTT opens in Tirana in all technical and services specialties.

December 3, 1973, The telephone connection of all the villages in the country is completed, a system mainly based on air lines and in some areas on cable network.

Year 1978, The first automatic telegraph central is set into operation, containing 200 numbers, crossbar technology, produced by Ericsson and ensured entrance of telegraph offices into Gentex automatic transmission, later to be upgraded by the telex electronic central of the French production Sagem.

Year 1979, The Law on PTT is approved for the first time.

Year 1981, The Centre for PTT Studies is established.

Year 1983
✓ For the first time is realized the digital transmission in cable directions Tirana-Durres and Tirana-Elbasan (PCM cable systems 2x300 telephone channels + 49 telegraph channels)
✓ Interconnection with digital radio between Rinas, Kukes, B.Curri and Puka with Tirana is realized.

Year 1985, The National and International Transit Centre (DNT) is founded, including all telecommunications systems for national and international connections, thus enabling for the first time the division of the national and international network from the regional and urban network and the establishment of hierarchical network.

Year 1987
✓ Starts the express postal service EMS.
✓ The connection towards Italy is realized with radio Dajt-Correliano, a distance about 190 km with no repeater in between because of the sea, an achievement exceeding the limits determined in the different literatures for these kinds of connections over the sea.

April 10, 1989, The first interurban automatic telephone connection is realized between two cities Peshkopi and Bulqiza.

March 20, 1990, The first national and international transit central with 2000 gates is inaugurated, which was of digital technology, by the Italian company “Italtel”, which connected Tirana, Durres, Elbasani and Korca to the automatic network, as well as through two radio systems with 120 channels each, one toward Greece and the other towards Italy, with all the countries worldwide.
Year 1990, The first two digital local centrals, produced by “Italtel”, are set into operation in Tirana (3000 numbers) and in Durres (2000 numbers).

Year 1990, Telecommunications network capacity reaches 37 thousand automatic numbers and 12 thousand manual numbers. The air and cable connections with symmetric co-axial lines are predominant.

Year 1992

- Telecommunications services separate from postal ones in accordance with international recommendations.
- “Albanian Telecom” is established, as a state enterprise providing telecommunications services to fixed network.
- “Albanian Post” is established, as a state enterprise providing postal services in 522 offices, as well as the General Directorate of Post-Telcommunications which functioned as the regulator of posts and telecommunications market.
- The General Directorate of Post-Telegraph-Telephones is established, later to be called the General Directorate of Post-Telcommunications, in line with the technological trends of telecommunications service which as a result of automation had substantially reduced the demand for telegraph service.

Autumn 1992, The Albanian Government approves the Master Plan for the development of telecommunications in Albania, funded by Albanian Telecom, Albanian Government, European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) and the Italian, Swiss and Norwegian governments and under the leadership of the Finnish consulting company TELECON LTD, with the support of the Albanian Institute of Post Telecommunication, the Ministry of Transport and Communications and the Albanian Telecom. The Plan focused on the development of a hierarchical digital network which was to serve the most important inhabited centers and commercial areas in Albania and was based on the use of digital centrals in areas where the potential of demand for service exceeded the number of 10 thousand subscribers.

Year 1994

- In the framework of the Master Plan, the national and international transit central with 8000 gates, of the digital technology Siemens, a Grand of the Swiss Government is installed in Tirana.
- Albanian Telecom signs contracts with the company Alcatel for installing 66 thousand telephone numbers, and with the company Sirti for the construction of the interurban transmission network, based on the SDH technology with optical fibers and radio relay.

Year 1995, Marks the start of Internet in our country. The office of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in Tirana initiates the Internet project (free Internet for universities and academic institutions).

November 1995, The Assembly of Albania approves the law “On telecommunications in the Republic of Albania”, with the assistance of the program PHARE. The Department of Post Telecommunications is established under the Council of Ministers.

Year 1996, The mobile service of the GSM standard starts for the first time in our country provided by AMC. Until the year 1999 this service was available only in Tirana, Durres and the Western Lowland and numbered about 15 thousand users.

Year 1996, Albanian Post starts for the first time the provisions of financial services.

Year 1996 and ongoing, The local digital centrals gradually start to be operated and the old electromagnetic centrals are removed. At the same time with new subscriptions the existing subscribers pass to the new urban networks. These processes are accompanied by the increase in the number of cities connected to the automatic system. Moreover, 4-channel radio systems are mounted with a view to improving the telephone and telegraph service in rural areas of the country, provided by the postal offices in about 200 communes.

Years 1996-1997, Mark a significant progress towards the improvement of the quality of service in international telephony, where apart from the transit central installed in 1994, a considerable assistance was provided by the increase in international lines, resulting from the engagement in two projects for the implementation of two national and international tracks, ADRIA 1, ADRIA 2 and TBL (Trans-Balkan-Line).

Year 1996, The Albanian segment is finished and set into operation, consisting of 520 km of maritime optical fibers of ADRIA 1 and ADRIA 2, a transmission system connecting Germany, Austria, Croatia, Albania and Greece.

Year 1997, The Albanian segment is finished and set into operation, a combination of optical fibers with radio systems of TBL, a transmission system connecting Italy, Albania, Macedonia, Bulgaria and Turkey.

Year 1997, The Internet initiative is supported by Soros Foundation which builds its own Internet network with the aim of providing this service free of charge for state institutions and non-governmental bodies. Because of legal barriers, the service is not provided in commercial terms until 1998.
Year 1998, The law on telecommunications is amended, therefore finalizing the need for market development and the fulfillment of demands for services. This way, all the telecommunications services, apart from the telephone service (only Telephony in rural areas), are liberalized.

Year 1998, Telecommunications Regulatory Entity (TRE) starts functioning as a regulatory authority of the telecommunications market, a non-budgetary state body.

Year 1999
✓ Albanian Post (Posta Shqiptare sh.a) and Albanian Telecom (Albtelecom sh.a) become joint stock companies.

September, Assembly of Albania approves the Law No.8530, dated 23/09/1999 “On postal services in the Republic of Albania”, the first law regulating the postal service.

Year 2000
✓ Doubles the capacity of the national and international transit central.
✓ The contract signed with the German company Siemens enables the installment of local digital telephone centrals in other cities that were not part of the contract signed in 1994 with Alcatel and the installment of a new national and international transit central in Durrës.
✓ The Law No.8618, dated 14/06/2000 “On telecommunications in the Republic of Albania” is approved.

Year 2001
✓ The connection Tirana-Mide-Pristina is set into operation through a radio relay system 34 Mbit/s.
✓ All the undertakings performing postal activities are equipped with license or professional permission, thus enabling the market recognition, its regulation and the premises for development.

April-May
✓ TRE drafts and implements the new Numbering Plan.
✓ “National Radiofrequency Plan” is approved with Decision of the Council of Ministers no. 379, dated 31/05/2001.

August – The second GSM operator, Vodafone Albania gains the license.
✓ International Internet access capacity is 4 Mbit/s.

Year 2002
July, Postal operator ACS Albania starts operation with a network of 12 offices throughout the country, whereas other private postal operators provide their services only in the main cities.
September, The number of mobile users reaches 700 000 and the area covered with service reaches 63% of the territory of the country and 85% of the population.

Year 2003
January, Urban, national and international telephony is liberalized.
November 25, TRE receives the Certificate of Observer at the Institution of European Standards of Telecommunications ETSI.

Year 2004
March, Albtelecom is granted the license for the third GSM operator: “Eagle Mobile”
✓ International Internet access capacity reaches 12 Mbit/s.

Year 2006
✓ “The National Plan for the Implementation of the Stabilisation-Association Agreement” is approved with Decision of Council of Ministers.

May, International Internet access capacity reaches 68 Mbit/s.
November, International Internet access capacity reaches 150 Mbit/s.

Year 2007
✓ The contract for the purchasing the shares of the company “Albtelecom” is ratified, thus passing 76% of Albtelecom shares to the ownership of CETEL “Çalik Enerji Telekomünikasyon Hizmetleri A.S”.
✓ Undertaking possessing a license for the provision of Internet are 32 altogether. Until the end of 2007, 8 new undertaking are granted the license.
✓ The process of radiofrequency allocation is coordinated with international administrations for all applications such as:
i. **International coordination**, with the administration of Macedonia, for the frequency band (380-390) and (390-400) MHz for emergency services.

ii. **International radiofrequency coordination** for fixed radio relay connections, complying with the requirements of AMC sh.a (5 connections) and Vodafone Albania sh.a (1 connection).

iii. **Addressing the requirements for coordinating the frequencies allocated for satellite connections by the French and Italian administration.**

   ✓ The Mobile Monitoring Centre for performing measurements, determining the direction and detecting the location of transmitting stations operating in the 20 MHz-3000 MHz band is equipped.

   **October**, International Internet access capacity reaches 300 Mbit/s.

**Year 2008**

March, The third mobile telephony operator Eagle Mobile starts operation.

June, The Law no. 9918, dated 19/05/2008 “On Electronic Communications in the Republic of Albania” enters into force. This law brings Albania in line with the EU practice with regard to the telecommunications sector regulation.

October, The “main server” is transferred in Albania and the ccTLD.al domain starts functioning, enabling the full liberalization of the “.al” domain registration.

December, The number of mobile users by the end of 2008 is estimated to be approximately 2.7 million, meaning 85 mobile users per 100 inhabitants.

June, International Internet access capacity is 300 Mbit/s.

**Year 2009**

June 26, Mobile 4 AL is granted the individual authorization becoming the fourth GSM operator.

May, National Frequency Plan is drafted and approved with DCM no. 479, dated 06/05/2009, which takes into consideration the developments trends following the year 2008 for the CEPT member countries, which also implements the latest recommendations and decisions of ITU, ETSI and the World Radio communications Conference.

By the end of 2009, there are 129 mobile phones per 100 inhabitants and an increase by 13% in telephone lines during the last 12 month. Charges of communication through mobile phones suffered considerable decrease as a result of a more intensive competition and the imposed regulation of tariffs. International Internet access in January of this year was 1200 Mbit/s and in December it reaches 6 Gbit/s.

**Year 2010**

 ✓ **Regulation on .AL domain names regulation** undergoes two essential changes consisting in granting the right to register a domain, apart from public and private persons, also to commercial physical person and to natural persons, as well as the reduction of the tariff to 2000 ALL per two years.


   **April**, Approval of the “Regulation on number portability”

   **April**, Approval of the “Radiofrequency Use Plan”

   **November**, The fourth GSM operator “Plus Communications”, enters the market commercially, a premise for the imposition of an efficient competition into the market.

   December, Vodafone Albania is granted the individual authorization for the use of frequencies, for the provision for the first time of 3G services, as one of the most important objectives AKEP had for 2010, thus opening the way to the broadband wireless services market, towards accomplishing the Governments objectives for “Internet for all” and “Albania in the age of Internet”.

   December, International Internet access capacity reaches 14 Gbit/s.

   **Year 2011**

   Continues the growing trend of the average use of telephone calls.

   January, Vodafone Albania launches for the first time 3G services in Albania, and by the end of 2011 the number of subscribers using 3G services is about 280 thousand.

   **March**, Approval of the regulation “On the General license for the provision of postal services”, pursuant to which was realized the approach of undertakings’ demands to transpose and gain general licenses for the provision of postal services.

   **May 2**, The Centralized Reference Database for the Number Portability is inaugurated.

   May, The first number is ported from one operator to another. By the end of 2011, 41000 numbers are ported.

   June, Approval of the Regulation and Ordinance on the implementation of Carrier (Pre)Selection, enabling the end users of a telephone communications network to choose, by using the telephone line of the operator which they have a
contract with, the provider of phone calls they consider as best for their needs, especially as regards the price and quality of phone calls.

September, AMC is granted the individual authorization for the provision of 3G standard services.

AKEP enables:
- The on-line application system for the general authorization, based on the Web technology with a high level of information security, and ensures the increase of transparency and decrease of time limit for processing applications.
- Storage system for operators’ data on infrastructure in the on-line format WebGIS (ATLAS), which serves to keep accurate cartographic data in digital format for: the Optical Fiber Network installed throughout the territory of Albania; Radio Connection Network; GSM/3G system Network (location of BTS towers).

December, International Internet access capacity reaches 30 Gbit/s.

Year 2012

September 5, The first number in fixed telephony is ported.

December 17, “Eagle Mobile” is granted the third individual authorization for the provision of 3G services.

December, International Internet access capacity reaches 34 Gbit/s.

But, for what reason we would need to see the post-telecommunications history? Are historical facts set forth above related to computer technology development in Albania? Do historical developments further influenced in post-telecommunications or are they just facts associated with this sector?. Let’s take the questions in a row to give an explanation about them.

Post-telecommunication history in Albania makes the right connection between epochs passed by the world societies. This historic enables us to understand exactly over Albanian society through the pre-mechanical, mechanical, Electromechanical and Electronic epochs, despite of the slow technological development before 1990 and their gradual acceleration after 1990 and especially after 2000.

These historical facts have a direct connection with computer development in Albania, because Internet strands are indicated in our country, United Nations Development Program (UNDP), the office of Tirana, launches Internet project (Internet free of charge to universities and academic institutions). The Start of Internet is the first and basic step for the further development of computer systems and we can definitely say that we have the beginnings of computer crimes. Computer Crimes although unknown in these strands, we can’t say they were missing, while in other countries of the world, they had begun to concretize in the virtual world aspects.

So, we can be convinced that post-telecommunication historical developments are facts that indicate directly with the further computer developments. Above historical facts constitute only one part of technological developments picture, also of those measures taken to prevent, documenting and combating cybercrime and cyber security.

Definitely, to complete this picture, it is necessary to see the history of legislation developments, concerning with computer works which showed that Albania was facing a real risk that increased every day. This risk can be well understood if we see that the main reasons for the adoption of laws dealing with computer crimes prevention and punishment of their perpetrators is due to an increased risk and the necessity to respond in time. Let's see legislative changes to determine the computer crime offenses and situation of Albania while these laws were adopted and followed.

3. Cybercrime awareness and measures taken

Given the ongoing technology developments and the increasing oncoming of our country towards developed countries, it was unavoidable to be concepted the cyber crime fact or “smart” crime termed. The first recorded case of cyber crime in our country was in 2008. In this case, the Albanian law enforcement institutions occurred in a difficult challenge that had to do with an unidentified crime as well as the fact that in our country there was no proper legal framework for the fight against these crimes. Although specific steps were made towards the area they were inadequate and shallow in terms of the legal framework.

Following the legal regulation that became necessary, due to new computer progress that was sweeping our country, it became necessary even issuing new laws contained in cyber field. Currently in our country, Convention "In cyber crime" was ratified by the Albanian Parliament with law No.8888, dated 25.04.2002 "On ratification of the Convention on Cyber crime".

During 2008 and subsequently, there are taken series of legislative initiatives and created institutions such as: the Ministry for Innovation in Information and Communication Technology (MITIK), e-Albania (government portal), National Agency for Information Society (AKSHI), the Authority of Electronic and Postal Communications (AKEP), National
Electronic Certification Authority (AKCE), Protik (ICT resource center), Computer crime Division at the General Directorate of State Police, etc., which are fully committed to completing the legal framework and regulation of direct and indirect relationships between state institutions with each other and between them and private institutions and citizens. In January 2013, USAID organized a closing ceremony for Cyber Security Programme in Albania, a two-year initiative that helped to increase the capacity of the Albanian government to prevent and respond to cyber incidents. As a result of this support, Albania has already raised Cyber Incident Response Agency, "ALCIRT", a new structure that will work to protect cyber systems from natural disasters and cyberattacks. Also strategies of these institutions are focused on creating new spaces for technological development and the prevention and combating of cyber crimes that are increasingly more frequent.

But besides creating new institutions and other institutions, have generally realized the importance of being a participating factor in this broad national initiative and this for the fact that the development in this field is in its fastest paces.

If we notice the amendments, laws or decisions that are recently adopted, we'll notice that their flux is multiplied after 2008 showing a very large predisposition in this direction. Some of these are as follows:

- The new law "On electronic communications" was approved on May 19, 2008 by the Parliament. This law is designed in accordance with European Union directives (package of 2002).
- Law No.10054, dated 29.12.2008 "On some amendments to the code of criminal procedure."
- Law on the Protection of Personal Data compiled in accordance with Directive Dir.95/46/EC. (Law No.9887, dated 10.03.2008 "On protection of personal data").
- Law No.10273, dated 29.04.2010 "On electronic document".
- Decision of the Council of Ministers No.945, dated 02.11.2012 "On approval of the Regulation" System Administration of database state".
- Direction No.1, dated 31.12.2012, of the Minister for ITIK For the certification of the copy paper electronic documents from public institutions.
- Law No.9918, dated 19.5.2008 "On electronic communications in the Republic of Albania".
- Document for Electronic Communications Policies in the Republic of Albania, approved by the Council of Ministers No.322, dated 05.05.2010 "On approval of the Document of Electronic Communications Policy of the Republic of Albania".
- Decision of the Council of Ministers No.303, dated 31.03.2011"On establishment of Information and Communication Technology Units in the line ministries and their subordinate".
- Decision of the Council of Ministers No.525, dated 13.05.2009, "Rules for electronic signature".
- Law No.9887, dated 10.03.2008, "On Personal Data Protection".
- Law No.10128, dated 11.05.2009, "On electronic commerce".
- Law No.10273, dated 29.04.2010 "On Electronic Document".
- Decision of the Council of Ministers No.723, dated 01.09.2010 "On the design, implementation and operation of information systems".
- Law No.10325, dated 23.09.2010, "On the Database State".
- Decision of the Council of Ministers No.961, dated 24.11.2010, "On the determination of the authority of the regulatory coordinating state databases".
- Decision of the Council of Ministers No.1041, dated 14.10.2009, "On the passage of the National Electronic Certification (AKCE) to the Minister of State dependence".
- Prime Minister Order No.86, dated 11.07.2008 "On approval of the organizational and structure of AKCE."

Prime Minister Order, No.119, dated 02.06.2010, "On the establishment of the cross-institutional working group, for the coordinating work and development of the National Network Broadband (National Broadband Backbone).

Prime Minister Order, No.124, dated 09.06.2010 "On establishment of the advisory group" National Forum for Digital Albania".

Decision of the Commissioner for Personal Data Protection No.1, dated 04.03.2010 on "Determination of the detailed rules for the provision of personal data".

Instruction of the Commissioner for Personal Data Protection No.4, dated 16.03.2010 for "Taking security measures of personal data security in the field of education".

Document of the Establishment of National Infrastructure of Geospatial Data (NSDI) policies, adopted by the Council of Ministers No.144, dated 22.02.2012 "On approval of the Policy Document" For the creation of the National Infrastructure of Geospatial Data".

Law No.72/2012 "On the organization and functioning of the national infrastructure of geospatial information in the Republic of Albania", promulgated by Decree No.7721, dated 20.07.2012 of the President of the Republic of Albania".

Directive 1999/93/EC, "For Electronic signatures".


As above, they’re only a part of the normative acts which support the development of computer technology and create a proper legal framework for the prevention and striking structures of cybercrime. Despite the changes and amendments of laws and regulations that function in terms of the legal framework, still we cannot say that our country is immune from the tendency of cyber crimes dramatically increased recently. This increase is due to the introduction of the Internet and electronic devices as a primary need in every field of social activity.

In Albania, the first Berisha’s Government meeting, after the impeachment in September 2010, was opened with “E-KABINET” project. Through its, draft-decisions of the Council of Ministers does not come with paper from ministries to further prime minister, but they are provided in electronic form via a secure communication system.

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Modalities of Western Enlightenment Text Translation in the 18th Century Romanian Culture

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Abstract

Western European Enlightenment had a considerable influence upon the Romanian Provinces. Despite unfavourable political, historical and geographical conditions, the Romanian scholars were attracted and influenced by Enlightenment ideas. In this context, books, that held a very important part, had to be translated in order to be put at the disposal of potential beneficiaries. In the 18th century, translation fidelity principles with respect to the original text were not rigorously established and translators used to intervene to comply with the needs of the recipients of their work. At the beginning, the contact with western books was intermediated by other languages, as the Romanian translators could not have access to original writings but only to their translations into Greek, German, Polish or Russian, translations already unfaithful by themselves. Towards the end of the 18th century, a political easing period allowed intellectuals to directly obtain the original writings. According to the faithfulness to the original, we observed and comment several types of intervention by the translator: compressions, omissions, alternation of prose and verse, selective translations, adaptations, elaborations, summarization etc. The paper also presents the way they mixed in some translations used as examples (Cornaro, Delaporte, Fontenelle, Botero, Halima). Though some faithful translations existed the modern concept of respect for the original text has been implemented by the Romanian scholars starting with the 19th century.

1. Modalità di traduzione dei testi dell’Illuminismo occidentale nella cultura romena del XVIII secolo

L’Illuminismo dell’Europa Occidentale ebbe un influsso significativo anche nelle province romene. Anche se nel Settecento le condizioni politiche, storiche e geografiche non erano affatto favorevoli agli studiosi romeni, questi furono attratti dalle idee illuministiche che ebbero un impatto sempre più considerevole. L’interculturalità si manifestava allora attraverso la circolazione dei libri, che esercitavano un influsso mediato in quanto dovevano essere tradotti per poter essere messi a disposizione dei beneficiari. Il contatto con i libri occidentali si produsse inizialmente tramite intermediari – nel senso che gli studiosi spesso non avevano accesso diretto agli scritti nella lingua originale dell’autore, poiché la lingua veicolare era quella dell’intermediario (greco, tedesco, polacco, russo), nel quale venivano operati alcuni interventi. Il fatto che gli studiosi romeni praticassero il bilinguismo greco–romeno, tedesco–romeno e, dagli inizi dell’Ottocento, francese–romeno, rappresentò una facilità nel senso della creazione di opportunità di informazione.

A parte la letteratura, prevalentemente opera di autori illuministi, nella società romena si sentiva il bisogno di aprire verso nuovi orizzonti e di informazione sulla storia, sulla geografia, sulla cultura materiale di altri popoli. Cominciò anche la traduzione di libri scientifici destinati a essere utilizzati nelle scuole, ma che ebbero un ruolo fondamentale anche nella creazione di una TERMINOLOGIA SCIENTIFICA nei vari settori. Soltanto verso la fine del Settecento, quando si registrò un certo rilassamento politico, gli intellettuali poterono procurarsi gli originali degli scritti occidentali.

Nella cultura romena del Settecento, i testi di cui ci occuperemo occupano un posto a parte, che li differenziano da altre culture. Le tipografie appartenevano alla chiesa, che stampava esclusivamente libri religiosi, e perciò le traduzioni laiche furono destinate a restare manoscritte. Molte non furono firmate per ragioni politiche, per la modestia dei loro autori oppure, depositate in pessime condizioni, non conservarono le pagine iniziali o finali. Conseguenza di queste situazioni e l’anonimato di molti di questi testi, gli studiosi di oggi si confrontano con il difficile compito di stabilirne la paternità. Sono perciò necessari studi linguistici, raffronti con gli originali tradotti, analisi delle informazioni contenute nelle note dei copisti o nelle note in margine, studi storici sull’epoca, studi di genealogia. Di grande aiuto sono anche le imprecisioni delle traduzioni, le interpolazioni ecc.

1 Il presente lavoro è realizzato nell’ambito del progetto di ricerca PN-II-CT-ERC-2012-1 - 5 ERC, The Impulse of the Enlightenment in some Romanian Translations in the 18th Century, finanziato dal CNCS, per il periodo giugno 2012- giugno 2014.
Investigheremo dunque nel presente lavoro vari casi di rapporto tra il testo dell’originale e quello della traduzione. La fedeltà rispetto all’originale in questo periodo non era particolarmente rigorosa neanche in altre culture europee e le traduzioni erano spesso modificate a seconda delle conoscenze del traduttore e della sua intenzione di comunicare nuovi dati sul proprio paese o di eliminare alcune informazioni ritenute sconvenienti. Abbiamo tentato una classificazione delle traduzioni, ma la complessità dei testi non ne permette una distinzione netta. Presenteremo però vari tipi di interventi rispetto al testo originale, senza la pretesa di averne individuata una tipologia, dato che uno stesso testo può contenere vari tipi di interventi e non può essere limitato a un solo tipo.

Un buon esempio per illustrare questa complessità è la traduzione valacca del poema cavalleresco Erotocrito (Ερωτόκριτος) di Vincenzo Comaro. Il lavoro di Comaro ebbe come fonte d’ispirazione il romanzo provenzale Paris et Vienne (Cartojan, 1936; Lavagni, 1969, p. 88), essendone una sofisticata elaborazione con la trasposizione dell’azione dal mondo occidentale all’ambiente ellenico. La bellezza dei versi fece si che il lavoro di Comaro rappresentasse una delle letture preferite del mondo greco e non soltanto. Fu appunto questo fatto a indurre Dionisie Fotino agli inizi dell’Ottocento a riprendere il testo di Comaro e trasporlo dal dialetto cretese in cui era stato scritto al greco, ammodernando la struttura dei versi e interpolando altre poesie che appartenevano ai poeti dell’ambiente fanarioria e che si trovavano nelle province romene o boiardi romeni di talento, che praticavano il bilinguismo greco–romeno.

In lingua romena invece, ci furono due traduzioni rimaste manoscritte, dalle quali il testo si diffuse attraverso innumerevoli copie che portarono a contaminazioni, elaborazioni, localizzazioni (Grecu, 1920-1921).

La più antica delle traduzioni fu realizzata in Moldavia da un letterato rimasto sconosciuto ed è stato conservato in varie copie manoscritte. Il traduttore segue il filone narrativo del testo che però traspone in prosa. Non perfetto conoscitore del greco, o forse privo di talento poetico, il traduttore non seppe sempre interpretare il testo. Non si se ne conosce il nome, poiché della sua traduzione non rimane traccia documentale, poiché la traduzione appare essere una sofisticata elaborazione con la trasposizione dell’azione del mondo greco e non soltanto. Fu appunto questo fatto a indurre Dionisie Fotino agli inizi dell’Ottocento a riprendere il testo di Comaro e trasporlo dal dialetto cretese in cui era stato scritto al greco, ammodernando la struttura dei versi e interpolando altre poesie che appartenevano ai poeti dell’ambiente fanarioria e che si trovavano nelle province romene o boiardi romeni di talento, che praticavano il bilinguismo greco–romeno.

La seconda traduzione si fece nella Valacchia e le copie più note si conservano nel ms. 3514 BAR del 1787, miniato, e nel ms. 1319 BAR del 1789. La traduzione è stata attribuita al poeta valacco Alecu Văcărescu sulla base di una complessa analisi filologica, storica e culturale (Dima, 1984). Nell’introduzione verseggiata del ms. 3514 BAR si afferma che la storia fu scritta in versi lunghi e stampata in greco. Ciò significa che il traduttore romeno utilizzò una delle edizioni di Venezia dell’Erotocrito, e non un intermediario con la versificazione modificata, secondo il modello della lirica fanarioria.

Il poeta romeno traspose l’Erotocrito in gran parte in prosa, ma vi incluse anche frammenti verseggiati, soprattutto quando l’argomento si riferiva alle sofferenze d’amore dei due protagonisti, Erotocrito e Aretusa, o nel caso delle lettere che si trovavano nelle province romene o boiardi romeni di talento, che praticavano il bilinguismo greco–romeno.

Come accennavamo prima, questa traduzione illustra la maggior parte delle modalità di avvicinamento o di allontanamento dal testo originale dei traduttori dell’epoca.

2. La traduzione fedele

Nel caso dei testi letterari, la traduzione fedele è abbastanza rara, anche a causa della difficoltà di trasporre immagini poetiche complesse in una lingua ancora insufficientemente sviluppata. Gli esempi non mancano però della traduzione dell’Erotocrito:

| Τρεις μήνες μ’ ἔτοια δούλεψη, μ’ ἔτοια αρχοντιάν και τάξη, ποιὰ να ’χε στέκει δυνατή, μά νη μὴν την-ε πιατόξει; (I, 867-868) | Trei luni cu aceste cântece să să tot jăluiască Oarecare inimă, mă rog, cum să nu să biruiască! (f. 43v) |

3. La resa in prosa di un testo originale verseggiato

Tale soluzione di traduzione è adottata sia per evitare le difficoltà di un’elaborazione in versi sia per produrre un testo il...
più vicino possibile all’originale di quanto permetta il linguaggio poetico di un’altra lingua. Nel caso dell’Erotocrieto, inoltre, il traduttore romeno usa piuttosto spesso questa soluzione, soprattutto nella parte epica, in quanto il romeno non disponeva all’epoca di modelli di tipo epeopeico da poter utilizzare.

4. La trasformazione del discorso diretto in narrazione:

In numerosi episodi, soprattutto dalla struttura narrativa, il traduttore romeno preferisce sostituire la narrazione al discorso diretto. Il dialogo è invece mantenuto generalmente nei dialoghi passionali in cui sono coinvolti i due protagonisti: Aretusa con la balia o con Erotocrito, Erotocrieto con Polidoro o con i genitori. Allo stesso tempo, l’importanza dei personaggi secondari sembra essere volutamente sminuita con l’eliminazione delle battute dirette presenti nel testo di Cornaro:

5. La compressione del testo:

Il poema greco è, come da tradizione, di una lunghezza notevole. Il traduttore romeno, probabilmente in considerazione del fatto che il suo pubblico, poco avezzo a simili testi, si sarebbe annoiato a leggere la versione integrale, riassume spesso vari passi dell’originale:

6. La traduzione selettiva attraverso l’omissione di frammenti:

Le omissioni sono frequenti nella traduzione dell’Erotocrieto, da semplici parole fino a frammenti interi di lunghezza considerevole. Manca, per esempio, un noto episodio in cui compare un paragone fra lo stato d’animo di Aretusa e la nave che sta per naufragare in alta mara.

O Ρήγας, μιά απ’ τοις πολλές, ηθέλον αναζήτησή τούν εχει, κ’ εξιλάθησε κατ’ ενοίκατ’ ενημερωμένη ρίζαν, τότες μία Αγάπη μητεφική στον Κόσμο εφανερώθη, κ’ εγράφθη μέσα στην καρδιά, για που στην ελιώθηση, Εις την Αθήνη, τότες μία Μάθησης η βρώση, κατ’ έναν τον Απόλλωνα, η Αθηναία για την Γνώση. Ρήγας μεγάλος ὁρίζει την όχρα Χώραν ακείμενος, μ’ ἄλλες πολλές και θαυμαστές, εξερευνημένης έγινε. Ηδράλκη τον ελέγχα, εξερευνήθη απ’ άλλους. από πολλούς, και φρονούμενος, κατ’ άλλους τους μεγάλους· εξερευνημένους Βασιλικούς, κατ’ άλλους εν καθ’ ἥλιον, ο λόγος του ήταν σκαλιζόμενος κατά μόρος των ανθρώπων. (I, 19-32)
7. L’adattamento:

In alcuni casi, il traduttore romeno ritiene più adeguato addattare il testo all’idea dell’originale, senza realizzare una vera e propria traduzione. Nell’esempio che segue, sia nell’originale, sia nel testo romeno, la balia rimprovera ad Aretusa di aver ceduto alla passione. Le parole attraverso le quali si realizza questo rimprovero sono però completamente diverse:

"Γρι'κ ανοστια, γρι'κ ανοστια! Γρι'κα δαιμονων αδινι! Και δε λογιάζω και ποτε στον Κόσμο να'τον άλλη, να μπήκε σ' έτοιμα παιδιμην φαινη και μεγάλη-κi ουδε να βρεθεία καιμιαν, άνηρυπνο ν' αγαπησε, 955 δήγις και να τον-ε δε ποτε και να τον-γενωρίτε. Πολλες, αν το κατέχασαν, ήθελαν το λέγεi
για παραμυθι, και κιανες να μην τω τις πιστευγι.\" (I, 952-958)

Auţii vorbe de sultană şi făr de ruşine
De vreme ce ai ajuns aşa, încă pune-ţi alt nume
Să rîză, toată lumea de tine, după cum poateşti
 Şi să nu mai minjască numele împărătesc. (f. 45v)

8. L’elaborazione

Autore di versi, il traduttore romeno „arricchisce” le idee che gli sembrano insufficientemente sviluppate nell’originale, attraverso un’ulteriore elaborazione:

| An-e μπορείς, για Φίλος μου, βοηθά και γιάτρεμε με.  
| κι ο λογισμός σπούδαλα, θωρώ εθανάτωσε με.  
| (I, 1207-1208)  |
|  |
| De nu poţi altfel, încă fă-m moarte!  
| Să nu mai trăiesc cu necaz şi cu acest fel de stare  
| Să scap şi dintr-a dunitate silaşi mustre.  
| (f. 51v)  |

9. L’interpolazione

Un fenomeno particolarmente interessante in questo periodo è quello delle interpolazioni, cioè dell’introduzione nel testo di parole, espressioni, parafraesi, chiarimenti oppure idee, usi e costumi dall’esperienza personale del traduttore. Le interpolazioni possono essere di piccole dimensioni – che hanno come scopo quello di spiegare o di precisare – oppure di ampie dimensioni, in cui il traduttore si propone di completare le informazioni che ritiene lacunose nell’originale. Nel caso qui citato, il poeta romeno inserisce, all’interno di un testo altrimenti coerente, alcuni versi che rappresentano il suo punto di vista sul comportamento femminile:

| Εξάλθθην η λυγερή, σα φρόνιμη, να χώσεi  
| τα' αγάπες της, κι έτοιμα εύκολα να μην τες φανερίςει.  
| Να μην μπορεί ο Ρωτόκριτος ποτε να τη γνωρίσει,  
| πως έχει βάσανα Ερωτίας, πως έχει Πλόου κρίση-κι αγάλη-αγάλη, με Καιρό, να του το φανερίςει,  
| ζάλο και ξάλο να κινά, κι ο Πλόου να ξαπλώσει.  
| (I, 1771-1776)  |
|  |
| S-au pus Aretusa cu tot dinadinsul ca să nu ascundă dragostea  
| să nu o pricepă Erotocrit, nici să nu-i arate nemic semn.  
| Poeticul  
| Ah, inimă, tare şi mindre firi, fără de milostivire  
| La toată partea fâmeiească este nădăvire.  
| Îl vede arzînd ca vai de el şi nu să indestulează,  
| Ci măcar de arde şi ea, dar tot îl depărtează.  
| Priimeşte să că chiniuască şi face haţîr mindrii, iar nu al dragostii, să găteşte, să împodobeşte şi merge de şade lingă  
| lâcă-său cu sol/coteală ca să vie el să o vază, şi ea să-i caute cu frunte posomorită, ca tot să mai arză decît să mai arde. (ff. 65r-65v)  |

L’attribuzione della versione valacca ad Alecu Văcărescu, uno dei primi poeti romeni moderni, apre una nuova prospettiva circa gli inizi della lirica romena. È probabile che la maggior parte dei versi interpolati nel testo della traduzione dell’Erotocrit siano sue creazioni, spesso ispirate a motivi poetici esistenti nel testo di Cornaro.

Le caratteristiche sopraelencate si ritrovano parzialmente nelle traduzioni del periodo in questione e ne presenteremo alcuni esempi:

Traduzioni fedeli furono realizzate sia in Valacchia, sia in Moldavia. Ioan Cantacuzino tradusse l’opera di Montesquieu, Arsace et Ismenie, con il titolo Arsachie și Ismenia⁶, e il Numa Pompilius, romanzo di Florian⁷. In Moldavia,

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⁶ Ms. 3099 BAR del 1803, ff. 50-87v.
⁷ Ms. 1550 BAR, traduzione del 1796.
il monaco Gherasim del Metropolitanato di Iași, tradusse nel 1792 *Histoire de Charles XII* di Voltaire e pubblicò nel 1787 a Iași la traduzione del libro dell’abate Gabriel Perau, *L’ordre des Franc-Maçons*, dalla terza edizione rivista e completata dall’autore uscita ad Amsterdam nel 1745 (ristampata senza modifiche nel 1788). Sempre presso il Metropolitanato di Iași, il boiardo „Jogofăț” Toma Dimitriu ha cominciato e ha lasciato manoscritta la traduzione del libro di Gian Francesco Loredano, *Gli scherzi geniali*, per il tramite di una versione greca appartenente a lakumis Malakis Kastrisis, stampata a Venezia nel 1711. In questo caso, la fedeltà menzionata precedentemente si riferisce all’intermediario e non al testo italiano originale.

Ms. 1383 BAR comprende una traduzione romena dello scritto dell’illuminista Fontenelle, *Entretiens sur la pluralité des mondes*. Il manoscritto contiene numerosi interventi nel testo e una chiave secondo la quale si è potuto individuare il nome del traduttore. In base al paragone con il testo francese, si sono osservate numerose modifiche, nonché la presenza infrapaginale di note inesistenti nel lavoro di Fontenelle. Nel testo romeno vi sono numerose parole di origine greca, glose e calchi da questa lingua, il che ha spinto a ipotizzare l’esistenza di un intermediario greco. Panaiotis Kodricas ha pubblicato una versione greca di Fontenelle nel 1794 a Vienna, con il titolo *Ωμαλιά περὶ πληθούς κόσμου του κυρίου Φοντενέλ*. Il testo francese è fedelmente tradotto dallo studio greco, che però aggiunge un grande numero di note, che comprendono spiegazioni scientifiche astronomiche, geografiche, mitologiche, con l’intento di dare ulteriori informazioni ai suoi contemporanei. Il traduttore romeno intervenne nel testo di Fontenelle e nelle note di Kodricas con la riduzione di alcune delle battute umoristiche della versione francese, soprattutto quelle di carattere cortigiano rivolte all’interlocutrice dell’autore, e con modifiche delle note di Kodricas a seconda delle proprie letture. Sulla base di una nota in prima pagina, dove si dice che il testo sarebbe stato rivisto dal grande boiardo del Consiglio della Valachia, Răducanu Greceanu, e dall’osservazione dei tratti linguistici, tipici della Valachia, si ritiene che Răducanu Greceanu ne sia in realtà il traduttore. La traduzione fu realizzata intorno all’anno 1800 e la revisione tra il 1819 e il 1820, probabilmente per scopi didattici a uso della prima scuola romena superiore, fondata da Gheorghe Lazăr a Bucarest (Pâmuță, 1973). Il fatto che il grande boiardo non si fosse presentato esplicitamente come il traduttore dello scritto di Fontenelle si deve alla sua discrezione e al desiderio di contribuire in qualche modo all’evoluzione dell’insegnamento romeno (Dima, 2003-2004).


Le interpolazioni sono un fenomeno interessantissimo dal punto di vista filologico. Il libro dello scrittore francese Joseph Delaporte, *Le voyageur français*, ebbe una traduzione in romeno, rimasta manoscritta, dei volumi 1-4 negli anni 1785-1788, con il titolo *A toată lumea călătore*, da un intermediario russo. Gli interventi e le spiegazioni del traduttore romeno rappresentano un adeguamento di alcune realtà di paesi lontani dalle realtà corrispondenti del paese d’origine o dei termini utilizzati in romeno per certi oggetti. Per esempio: „cînd vor să scoată vin, fac o gaură prin care îl trag cu o duca“ (metodi per estrarre il vino), „piepturile che erza peruze iar rumânește le zicem turcheză“ (pierre chiamate peruze ma che in romeno si dicon turchesi)11. Alcune interpolazioni sono formulate come da parte di qualcuno che si trova lontano dalle realtà del proprio paese: „Unii dintre aceștia privgehează asupra neguțătorilor, alții asupra oșților și alții asupra orașului (cum la București agă)“ [Alcuni di costoro vegliano sui commercianti, altri sugli eserciti e altri ancora sulla città (come a Bucarest il capo della polizia)]12 o ancora „rămurile le scutură sau le bat prăjini (cum bat la Valahia nucile)“ [percuotono i rami o li scuotono con delle pertiche (come si fa in
Valacchia con i noci)\textsuperscript{13}. Se ne può dedurre che la persona ad aver fatto la traduzione fosse valacco, che fa riferimento a costumi del paese nato e che non vi si trovava al momento della traduzione. Visto l’intermediario russo, la traduzione è stata inizialmente attribuita a un ottimo conoscitore di questa lingua, il vescovo Amfilohie Hotiniul\textsuperscript{14}. Nello stesso periodo si trovava però in Russia il grande politico e studioso Mihai Cantacuzino, rifugiatosi in seguito alla guerra russo-turca del 1768-1774 e trovando la protezione di Caterina II. Una ricerca più recente ha confermato, attraverso paragoni linguistici e testologici, la paternità di Mihai Cantacuzino (Dima, 2006) della traduzione che inviò in Valacchia dove fu copiata ma che, per prudenza, scelse di non firmare.

Presso la BAR si trovano 3 manoscritti romeni, ms 1556 BAR, copiato nel 1766 da Antim del monastero di Cozia, ms. 1267 BAR copiato nel 1774 da Anatolie del vescovato di Rîmnic e ms. 3515 BAR, acelato e senza fine, della prima metà del Settecento (Chivu, 1980). I manoscritti contengono una geografia universale che rappresenta una traduzione del libro polacco Theatrum świata wszytkiego, uscito a Cracovia nel 1659, e che è, a sua volta, una traduzione in italiano dello scritto di Giovanni Botero, Le relazioni universali. L’opera italiana ebbe più edizioni alla fine del Cinquecento e nel Seicento e fu tradotta nella maggior parte delle lingue europee. La traduzione romena fu fatta dalla 3a edizione della versione polacca. In questa vi sono alcuni interventi del traduttore polacco, mentre il traduttore romeno fece, a sua volta, varie interpolazioni. Così, nella traduzione romena del testo di Botero del manoscritto più antico si ritrovano varie pagine quasi identiche al Letopiseț Țării Moldovei de la zidirea lumii pînă la 1601al lui Nicolae Costin o sono raccontati eventi della storia della Moldavia e di alcuni stati vicini alla fine del Settecento e inizio Ottocento riferitolali alla cronaca citata e all’altra cronaca del letterato su menzionato che riguarda gli avvenimenti tra il 1709 e il 1711. Si notano anche i dettagli del testo sull’arrivo in Moldavia dello tzar Pietro I e la battaglia di Stâniște tra i russi e i turchi. La presenza di queste interpolazioni, nonché un accurato studio linguistico, ha permesso di identificare in Nicolae Costin il traduttore e la datazione della traduzione romena intorno al 1711 (Ursu, 2002). Per quanto riguarda le copie valacche, si è potuto osservare che nel ms. 1556 BAR, Antim di Cozia ha ampliato il capitolo dedicato alla Valacchia, con più informazioni su alcuni monasteri ed eremi, mentre il copista del ms. 1267 BAR ha interpolato il testo integrale della Istoriei Țării Românești, attribuita al boiardo lo „stolnic” Constantin Cantacuzino.


Oltre a servire come fonti d’informazioni, le traduzioni acquisivano vita propria grazie ai numerosi interventi che venivano a completare informazioni lacunose e a offrire persino una nuova visione sugli eventi attraverso considerazioni proprie, informazioni supplementari ecc, diventando così utili per gli studenti e per tutti coloro che desideravano informarsi. Nel Settecento, l’analisi delle traduzioni non può essere separata dalla filologia, in quanto numerosi testi laici manoscritti presentano particolarità diverse a seconda del rapporto traduzione—originale, dato che il rispetto di una certa fonte non era stabilito in base a standard unanime accettati.

References


\textsuperscript{13} Ms. 3771 BAR del 1778, IV, f. 241.
\textsuperscript{14} Iorga (1940, p. 12) riteneva la traduzione da attribuire al vescovo moldavo Amfilohie Hotiniul.
A Relationship Expressed in a Stamp

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Abstract

Albania in a historic journey has left numerous evidences in support of our national history writing. Those are in content and most variable forms. All together constitute a large reservoir of resources that enables today’s articles that we read history today. The long and beautiful way of the stamp is a valuable asset for all the peoples in the world, in general and particular for the Albanians. As an adequate view of the history of the Albanian population, she always had her unrepeatable face. The road that this stamp has followed is similar to the path followed by the Albanian people in history. In this article to explain history I would try to follow somewhat a different path. I will to try to speak through the language of stamps, even for the relations that were created between the two strands of the Adriatic coast. It is in this path, i will try to infer the remaining tracks in the relations that Albania has had with the neighbouring country during the XIX century and onwards.

Nel corso del suo viaggio storico, l’Albania ha lasciato tante testimonianze a sostegno della scrittura della storia nazionale. Esse sono varie per quanto riguarda il contenuto e la forma. Tutte insieme costituiscono una fonte ricca di risorse, le quali permettono la scrittura della storia che leggiamo ai giorni d’oggi. Per quanto riguarda la relazione tra Albania e Italia, cercherò di descrivere una parte della storia di oggi, attraverso un documento differente per quanto riguarda il contenuto e la forma; attraverso quell mezzo che noi siamo abituati a vedere sulle cartoline di auguri o sulle buste di carta, che trasmettono messaggi di una diversa importanza per la storia. Cercherò di seguire un modo più originale per spiegare la storia. Sarà proprio la lingua dei francobolli che parlerà riguardo i rapporti che sono state stabilite negli inizi dello stato Albanese attraverso le due coste dell’Adriatico.

Il percorso stesso lungo e bello del francobollo è un bene prezioso per tutti i popoli del mondo in generale, ed in particolare modo per gli Albanesi. Come un quadro adeguato della storia del popolo albanese, essa ha sempre avuto la propria identità irripetibile. Il percorso seguito da questo francobollo, è molto simile al percorso seguito dalla storia del nostro popolo. Ed è proprio in questo percorso che cercherò di dedurre i restanti brani nelle relazioni che l’Albania ha avuto con il paese vicino, l’Italia, nel corso del XIX secolo.

Si riconosce che il francobollo è nato nel 1840, in Inghilterra. Da quel momento il francobollo ha ridimensionato la propria funzione, in quanto serve non solo come mezzo postale, ma spesso anche come strumento memoriale e come tale può essere connesso ad importanti eventi storici, per ricordare personalità distinte, ecc., ed in questo ridimensionamento si trasforma in un documento importante storico, culturale ed artistico, suscitando così l’interesse anche da studiosi provenienti da ambiti diversi di ricerca.

1 Il primo francobollo è nato in Inghilterra ed è stato lanciato il 6 maggio 1840. Originariamente venne chiamato il "Penny Black" (Penny Black). In poco tempo il "Penny Black" si e’ nominato francobollo postale. I primi "Penny Black" riflettevano il ritratto della regina Vittoria, su uno sfondo nero. Successivamente, erano gli Stati Uniti d’America, che hanno iniziato le riprese ad usare i francobolli postali nel 1847, le quali avevano sigillato il ritratto di Benjamin Franklin.
Nel XIX secolo in Albania operavano gli uffici postali (turchi), ancor prima dell'emissione del primo francobollo postale turco. Nel 1840 a Scutari si trovava un ufficio postale (ufficio che usava un sigillo con il n. 1269 (numero romano). Tali uffici sono stati aperti in seguito ad Argirocastro (1866) e Korça (1890). Oltre agli uffici postali turchi che nel 1890-1900 contavano 19 strutture, c'erano uffici postali operanti di origine austriaca, serba, montenegrina, greca e italiana. Sarebbe quest'ultimo l'ufficio che nel 1902 ha emesso tre francobolli con l'iscrizione “Albania”

Inizia così una relazione nel campo di produzione di francobolli albanesi, che seguirà in avanti con francobolli contenenti diverse forme e diversi conenuti, a secondo del contesto politico dell'era.

Anche durante gli anni seguenti, saranno rilasciati francobolli messi in circolazione principalmente nelle città di Durazzo, Valona e Scutari. Essi saranno in circolazione insieme ai francobolli dell'Impero Ottomano durante gli anni 1902-1910. Come lo stesso francobollo del 1902, anche gli altri francobolli avranno sigillato il ritratto di Vittorio Emanuele III. Essi differivano solo per quanto riguarda la posizione dei ritratti e dai colori. Secondo il commento che fa “Times” del 3 ottobre 1914, si credeva che la circolazione di questi francobolli nei territori appartenenti all'Impero Ottomano, non era solo per ragioni politiche e di concorrenza, ma proveniente anche dal desiderio di guadagnare prestigio di fronte alla popolazione locale.

Il ritratto dell’Albania sul francobollo ha iniziato a timbrarsi solo dopo la Dichiarazione dell’Indipendenza il 28 Novembre 1912. Appena il 5 dicembre 1912, attraverso un decreto speciale, è stato stabilito il Servizio Postale e Lef Nosi, un intellettuale noto del tempo, è stato denominato Ministro delle Poste. Sarà colui che presterà particolare attenzione all’attività postale in generale ed in particolar modo a quella dell’emissione di francobolli.

Durante il Governo di Valona si intraprende il primo impegno per il rilascio del francobollo Albanese. Il risultato è stato l'emissione di quattro francobolli ufficiali dello Stato Indipendente Albanese. Essi sono stati stampati dalla ditta di S. Modiano a Trieste, Italia. La figura centrale del modello è un’aquila nera sigillata sopra uno sfondo rosso con una cornice a circolo con l’iscrizione in Francese “Indipendance Albanaise”. Nella parte superiore si trova inscritto in bianco su sfondo nero “Posta e Shqypërisë” (La Posta dell’Albania). I francobolli erano recanti l’anno 1912. I timbri sono stati

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2 K. Mark, Mirdita nella visione filatelica, “Mirdita” Tirana 2004. p.9
4 Si deduce che questo francobollo sia stato stampato nel mese di febbraio 1913
5 Si deduce che questa iscrizione in francese rappresenta il desiderio degli Albanesi a declamare l'indipendenza
portati a Valona, ma non sono mai stati usati, a causa dell’aquila avente stampato una testa sola, al contrario dell’ordine Albanese contenente l’aquila con due teste. I francobolli si persero senza traccia nella città di Valona.

A causa delle circostanze create al tempo il Governo di Ismail Qemal, ha continuato a mantenere in circolazione francobolli postali del periodo Ottomano. Tale situazione si protrasse per sei mesi, fino a Maggio del 1913, periodo in cui si rilasciò e si mette in circolazione il primo francobollo nazionale Albanese (circa 2232 pezzi). La sua realizzazione ha anche una sua storia.

Il Governo provvisorio, nel tentativo di esprimere la sua identità anche nel servizio postale, vide Lef Nosi, dopo aver fallito con il francobollo di Trieste, a provare di realizzare un altro francobollo – una marca da bollo – sigillo che poteva essere utilizzata nel servizio postale per quanto riguarda i territori sotto la copertura del Governo di Valona. Era un francobollo – sigillo primitivo, realizzato da un pezzo di gomma, ottenuta da una ruota dove era stata intagliata un’aquila a due teste con la scritta Albania, la quale era stata rimossa da un semplice francobollo di business. Con questo modello si sono realizzate diverse prove dove l’aquila era di colore nero e Albania di colore rosso. Il ministro raccolse questi campioni per mostrargli ai suoi colleghi.

In principio, il Governo approvò la proposta, scegliendo il colore nero per di aquila, ma non ha autorizzato l’emissione di francobolli con questa sovrascrizione, a causa del nome mancante del Paese sopra di esso. Questo francobollo - sigillo fatto a mano (primitivo) non è mai stato emesso.

Il primo francobollo - sigillo a mano utilizzato dal governo di Valona, il quale avrebbe dovuto mostrare il pagamento anticipato della spesa di spedizione, è stato ordinato successivamente a Roma. Si costituiva da due cerchi concentrici (di diametro 38 mm) con l’iscrizione “Ministria e Post Telegraf Telefonevet” ed in centro uno scudo con l’aquila a due teste. Anche questa marca da bollo era fatta di gomma, solo di colore nero, utilizzata solo su buste contenenti lettere ufficiali, per essere usata in seguito anche su buste private al prezzo di una piastra. Il 5 Maggio si riconosce come il primo giorno di uso pubblico di questo francobollo, che durò fino il 30 Giugno. Ha avuto utilizzo a Berat, Durazzo, Elbasan, Fier, Kavaja, Kruija, Lezha,lushnje, Pqin, Qukës, Shijak, Skrapar, Tirana e Valona. Tale ordine può servire anche a determinare le aree in cui il Governo di Valona esercitava la propria influenza.

Dopo l’utilizzo del primo francobollo – sigillo a mano, si introduce il secondo francobollo, simile al primo (35 mm), con l’iscrizione “Postat e Qeverries se Perkohshme” (Le Poste del Governo Provvisorio) ed in centro “te Shqipenies” (dell’Albania). Sono stati realizzati circa 2442 pezzi. Si deduce che le città emittenti di questo francobollo sono simili alla prima, aggiungendo la città di Scutari. Tutte le buste con tale francobollo provenivano da Valona e si distribuivano nei distretti citati sopra.

Un altro francobollo che doveva sovramettersi al francobollo circolante nel territorio Albanese, è stata commissionata dal Ministro delle Poste Lef Nosi a Napoli, per mezzo di Ekrem Vlora, l’Albanese Onnipotente accreditato a Roma. Essa

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6 Il primo sigillo a mano utilizzato dal governo di Valona maggio 1913.
8 Questo sigillo è stato utilizzato anche per “Albanizzare” timbro i francobolli postali ottomani in circolazione. Accadeva spesso al tempo di trovare sulle buste il francobollo ottomano “Albanizzato” ed il secondo francobollo - sigillo.
rappresentava un aquila a due teste, contenente nella parte di basso l'iscrizione Albania. Quest francobollo è stata utilizzato dal Giugno 1913 fino alla fine dello stesso anno.

L'anniversario dell'indipendenza portò agli impegni di sviluppare un altro tipo di francobollo, collegato a questo evento. Ciò era stato reso necessario dalla mancanza di francobolli a sovrascrizione contenenti l'aquila. Era giunto il momento per l'Albania di avere il proprio francobollo realizzato con la macchina da cucire.

Nonostante gli impegni durante il primo anniversario della dichiarazione dell'indipendenza il 28 novembre 1913, e' stato emesso una serie di 5 francobolli, anche questi realizzati da un sigillo a mano come quello di Ottobre, contenente i tre elementi: l'iscrizione, l'aquila ed il valore nominale. Simultaneamente, e' stato emesso un altro francobollo con guarnizione manuale in metallo, fatto con la dentellatura dalla macchina da cucire. Il processo della dentellatura si descrive in modi diversi. Testimonianze del tempo dimostrano che anche per la realizzazione di questo francobollo si cita l'Italia. Secondo Georges Brunel, colui che ha studiato dal 1926 i francobolli albanesi, la macchina da stampa (della dentellatura) è stata ordinata a Trieste.

Questi francobolli si utilizzavano solo a Valona, non essendo distribuiti in altri territori albanesi.

I primi francobolli stampati in modo professionale e ufficialmente rilasciati dal governo albanese sono messi in circolazione il 1 Dicembre 1914. Questi francobolli portano il ritratto del nostro eroe nazionale Skanderbeg. Si tratta del primo francobollo Albanese emesso fino a quel tempo, fatto di dentellatura regolare e dotato di gomma in tutto il foglio.

Il ritratto che è stato utilizzato per questo francobollo era stato progettato per una medaglia commemorativa, medaglia che non fu mai realizzata. Proprio per questo motivo il Governo Albanese ha ritenuto opportuno utilizzare tale modello per francobolli. Il modello è stato realizzato da un noto pittore Ceco (di Praga), Heinz Kautsch, ma venne stampata in una tipografia a Torino, a spese dello Stato Italiano, visto come un dono di un governo ad un altro. Ogni francobollo è stato stampato in due colori: uno sbiancato che serve come sfondo per le inscrizioni del francobollo.

Si sono emessi sei valori postali in "qindar" e "franchi", (monete del tempo), e la quantità di francobolli stampati era abbastanza elevata per il periodo e per lo standard dell'Albania.

I sei francobolli di questa serie hanno la stessa immagine: il ritratto del nostro eroe nazionale Giorgio Castriota Skanderbeg, ma con colori diversi, secondo l'orientamento della Universal Postal Union (UPU) riguardo l'unificazione dei colori del servizio postale.


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10 Parsons, F. P. N. Albania philatelic magazine, tek - J. S. Philips, cit, p. 121
11 500.000 per i francobolli in valore 100, 100.000 per i francobolli in valore di franchi, 150.000 e 100.000 per i francobolli per cartoline semplici del valore 5cento e 10cento, 50.000 per cartoline con il pagamento anticipato
12 http://collectionist.tanmarket.com/modules
Successivamente a questo periodo ci troviamo di fronte ad una quiete nelle relazioni tra i due paesi per quanto riguarda l'emissione di francobolli. Diversi francobolli albanesi con immagini e varie forme continuaronoad essere stampati, non in Italia ma in altri paesi vicini, secondo le congiunture e situazioni politiche.

Nonostante la richiesta per diventare un membro dell'UPU era stata presentata durante il periodo del Governo Di Valona, solo nell'Ottobre del 1922 è stata condotta l'adesione dell'Albania alla UPU.

In solo pochi mesi della sua esistenza, il 7 luglio 1913 il governo provvisorio di Valona ha presentato la richiesta di adesione all'Unione Postale Internazionale, la cui finalizzazione è durata più di otto anni. L'Albania è diventata un membro della UPU solo nel 1922. L'adesione alla UPU fu seguita da vari contratti tra Paesi membri, tra i quali anche l'Italia.

Il contratto tra l'Albania e l'Italia è stato firmato il 6 dicembre 1922, seguito da un periodico dell'UPU del 26 Dicembre 1922, il quale informava gli stati membri di avere un regolare servizio postale tra i due paesi, partendo dal 1 Gennaio 1923 e le poste per e dall'Albania avrebbero circolato attraverso l'Italia.

Dal 1 Settembre 1930 tutti i francobolli postali Albanesi furono sostituiti da nuove serie di francobolli stampati a Roma. Proprio in questo periodo si emettono nuovi francobolli appartenenti al Governo di Zog. Essi rappresentano il nuovo Re Zog, con un'immagine abbastanza affascinante.

Seguendo la serie di questa emissione si trova il francobollo che mostra il ponte sul fiume Mat, un opera connessa con il Re Zog, il quale iniziò la sua costruzione. Un altro francobollo rappresenta le rovine della fortezza dei suoi predecessori, mentre la terza immagine riflette il lago di Butrint.

Un grande lavoro ebbe luogo anche per l'emissione dei francobolli contenenti viste aeree. L'intensità di questa emissione conobbe una crescita con un flusso elevato di voli fra Tirana e Roma (luglio 1931).

All'occasione del 25-imo anniversario della Proclamazione dell'Indipendenza nel 1937 un emissionedi francobolli stampati a Roma fu intrapreso. I francobolli furono messi in circolazione il 26 novembre e rimasero validi fino al 28 novembre.

I francobolli rispecchiavano il cavallo di Scanderbeg, l'immagine dell'acquila che viene proposta di nuovo con una testa solo e con l'iscrizione "Shqipni".

Nel 1938, il re Zog sposò la Principessa... e in questa occasione, simile al anniversario dell'Indipendenza, l'evento storico verra fissato sul francobollo. Si emettono 9 serie di francobolli con le due figure principali, quella del Re e quella della sua coniuge, con l'iscrizione Il Matrimonio del Re, Avenimento Nazionale. I francobolli furono emessi il 25 Aprile e rimasero validi fino al 27 Giugno del 1938.

In occasione del decimo anniversario della denominazione di Re Zog, il 1 settembre del 1939, si emettono sette francobolli che promuoverebbero la monarchia. 4 francobolli riflettono l'immagine del Re, francobolli simili a quelli

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dell’inizio del regno di Zog, altri 3 rappresentano un gruppo di emblemi nazionali tra i quali anche l’aquila, questa volta con due teste al centro.

L’emissione dei francobolli varia negli anni 1939-1943. Tutti i francobolli vengono stampati in Italia e il loro aspetto ha una nuova dimensione. Lasciando l’elaborazione di questo periodo ad un altro lavoro di ricerca, vorrei sottolineare che su questi francobolli per la prima volta, oltre ai ritratti che dominavano la situazione politica attuale, si riflettono emissioni fatti di paesaggi Albanesi e monumenti che oggi giorno sono annunciati monumenti di cultura, inoltre, francobolli contenenti immagini di abbigliamenti caratteristici Albanesi del tempo, le quali rappresentano oggi un valore aggiunto al nostro patrimonio culturale.

All’interno di questo breve lavoro, abbiamo cercato di fare un percorso storico, che seguirà con il periodo dopo gli anni 1939. Sono proprio i francobolli che hanno fatto possibile viaggiare negli anni e ci hanno dato l’opportunità di visualizzare immagini una dopo l’altra nella storia Albanese riguardanti le relazioni con il paese vicino, l’Italia, paese dove si è stampato in carta una parte della nostra storia.

Forse questo può servire come un esempio perché nella professione del storicista, qualsiasi documento anche semplice, rappresenta fatti importanti e si può leggere ed interpretare in maniera diversa.
Strategic Culture of the Western Balkans States

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Abstract
For the purposes of the paper, the Strategic Culture is defined as “that set of shared beliefs, assumptions, and modes of behavior derived from common experiences and accepted narratives that shape collective identity and relationships to other groups and which determine appropriate ends and means for achieving security objectives”. The present study focuses on the Strategic Culture of the Western Balkans States through the study of their security documents and consists of three major parts. The first part analyses Regional Security Cooperation as it is stated in the National Security Strategies of Western Balkans countries. The second part compares the perception of the Relations with International Security Organizations and Approaches to the International Order. Finally, the third part, analyses Interests and Values reflected in these official strategic documents as a fundamental input to the perceptions that shape the Strategic Culture of these countries.

Keywords: Western Balkan States, Strategic Culture, National Security Strategies

1. Brief Overview of the Paper’s Analysis

Over the past half decade, the Western Balkan countries have elaborated and developed an impressive number of security strategy documents. Albania’s National Security Strategy was adopted in November 2004 by Parliament. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, a Security Policy was approved in February 2006. In Croatia, Parliament adopted a National Security Strategy in March 2002. Macedonia’s National Security and Defence Concept was adopted by Parliament in February 2003. Government of Montenegro adopted a Strategy of National Security in June 2006. In 2007, two drafts of NSS had already been prepared separately in summer 2006 in Serbia, one by advisers to the Prime Minister and the other by advisers to the President Tadic. Security Strategy of Kosovo was adopted in 2010.

Western Balkans is a dynamic unfinished transatlantic security agenda and while Croatia became the 28th EU country on 1 July 2013, we still define in this study, Croatia along with Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Macedonia, Kosovo and Montenegro as “Western Balkans”. The analysis will reveal attitudes within the country towards Western Balkan neighbors, as reflected by their national security policies. In examining the above issues, the paper will also consider the key national approaches of these countries with regard to regional security cooperation.

2. Strategic Culture of Interests and Values

Generally, the documents define national interests and values in a very wide sense, not limiting them to the security context. They include the following: the protection of sovereignty, territorial integrity, the development or protection of the rule of law, democratic institutions, human rights and freedoms, prosperity and economic development. Below the level of abstract and declarative national interest there are a number of issues that are elaborated on in most of the documents upon which there are generally commonly held views. The first among them is the question of regional stability as a national interest. On this issue the main message all documents convey is that the countries of the region are committed to contribute actively to preserving and enhancing peace and stability in their neighbourhood and in South Eastern Europe. This is reflected in various pronouncements contained in the relevant security documents of the respective countries, such as “to be a factor of stability” (Albania), “to be seen as a recognised contributor to peace and stability in South-Eastern Europe” (Macedonia) or to make an “active contribution to the preservation of peace and the development of a favourable security environment” (Serbia). (Gyarmati I. and Stančić D.2007:24)

The issue of national identity occupies an important place among the values that are dealt with in the security documents, as illustrated by wordings such as the “development of national identity” (Albania and Croatia), the “free expression of national belonging and the maintenance and upgrading of national and ethnic identity” (Macedonia), and...
A peaceful, prosperous, and multi-ethnic state. Furthermore, the Albanian and Croatian documents provide for the preservation of national identity and well-being of their nationals living in other countries. With the exception of Albania, all other countries in the region refer in their strategic documents to the importance of protecting the environment in terms of national security, thus showing a modern and comprehensive approach to security.

Naturally, there are a number of issues on which common views are not held, reflecting an expression of specific national approaches. Two documents refer to the issue of the change of borders, with Albania rejecting “border change by use of force”, while the Serbian document cites OSCE documents referring to “maintaining the current state borders”. The Macedonian security document takes up specific issues such as internal integration, equal representation of national communities, local self-government and the building of a multi-ethnic society based on tolerance.

When comparing two Croatian documents – the National Security Strategy of 2002 and the Strategic Defence Review of 2005 – it seems to be markedly different wording related to the use of force by the army: the first document is very explicit in stating that “Croatia is determined to use all available resources, including the armed forces, if necessary, to protect her vital national interests”, while such statements are completely lacking in the latter document. In the Serbian Strategic Defence Review particular emphasis is placed – at the level of interests and values – on the principle that foreign troops may only be deployed on national territory if they are mandated by the UN for peacekeeping purposes. The Montenegrin document includes another element as a priority national interest, namely that the country is willing to contribute “to stability and peace beyond Montenegro’s borders by… allowing the possibility to use Montenegro’s territory, air and sea to support relevant missions undertaken by the UN, EU, OSCE or NATO”.

The NSS emphasizes that the vital interests of Albania that are linked to security are: exercise of sovereignty, protection of independence and territorial integrity, protection of constitutional order, protection of life and property, democratic development and economic prosperity. (Gyarmati I. and Stančič D. 2007:25)

Kosovo Security Strategy (KSS) states in its preface that “The people of Kosovo is determined to live in a peaceful, prosperous and multi-ethnic state, ensure the well-being of citizens and guarantee the freedoms provided by the Constitution. Since the declaration of independence on 17 February 2008, the Government of the Republic of Kosovo has the responsibility to provide security for all citizens. The government is determined to serve its citizens based on democratic values, respect for human rights and support the rule of law. Given the conflicts of the past, the past of Kosovo is committed to develop a multi-ethnic society based on mutual trust and reconciliation.” The Strategy considers state security as “the primary responsibility of any democratic country. This includes not only the security and safety of citizens, but also deals with economic and social development of the country. Preserving the rule of law, protection of individual freedoms and individual support of human rights are essential elements for maintaining the security of the state”.

In the Section of “Strategic Goals” KSS (2010) refers to the protection of citizens as the responsibility of the Government, need for ministries and agencies to integrate the newly established Government and to involve them in the process of interagency cooperation. “Poverty, unemployment and low education levels pose challenges for social cohesion. The high rate of unemployment in Kosovo and the large number of people living in poverty, development of favorable conditions for employment and investment directly conditioned by effectively combating corruption and organized crime, and to ensure the rule of law, constitute the “strategic goals” and pose a major challenge for the state.

3. Strategic Culture of Regional Security Cooperation

The security strategy documents of Western Balkan countries devote varying levels of attention to the issue of regional security cooperation. In Albania, the so-called “Albanian national issue” is a high priority on the list of security strategy objectives, and the relevant Albanian document suggests that “the Albanian national issue will be achieved through European and Euro-Atlantic integration of the countries of the region”. Other than this, Albania’s national security strategy papers do not deal with regional security cooperation.

Bosnia does not elaborate specifically on regional cooperation in its strategic documents. Only one paragraph and minor references shed some light on its regional cooperation approach. In the section of the document dealing with defence policy, it is stated that the country is “committed to promote its role and importance in regional cooperation”, especially regarding implementation of the Agreement on Regional Arms Control. In another section dealing with the principles of defence policy, one finds reference to the “balance of forces and capabilities in... South East Europe”.

By contrast, Croatia’s national security strategy devotes appropriate attention to and explains the goals of security policy at regional level. The regional level is first mentioned among its national security principles in the context of
security threats originating from that level. In the sub-chapter dealing with neighborly and regional relations, Croatia’s relevant strategic document then states that regional cooperation “is an important component of Croatian foreign policy”. Here, once again, emphasis is placed on Croatia’s self-perceived “multiregional identity”.

After enumerating the ongoing regional initiatives, the document expresses interest in “deepening all forms of cooperation” in the region. With regard to international peacekeeping missions, it should be noted that Croatia’s readiness to “participate in common military units” is referred to exclusively with regard to the “Northern tier” of its self-proclaimed multiregional identity, namely the Central European states, thus apparently excluding the potential for a joint Balkan effort.

The Macedonian National Security and Defence Concept is rather vague on regional cooperation (on other issues as well). It refers to this issue in a declarative manner, expressing interest in “deepening and finding new forms of cooperation”. One section is more specific, and stresses the need to “care for the protection and the permanent improvement of the freedoms and rights of the Macedonian minority living in the neighboring countries”.

The Montenegrin Strategy of National Security gives the impression that this country is more directly a part of the world than of its immediate neighborhood. In this short document, the regional level is mentioned twice in the context of possible threats generated by transition processes. Other than this, it makes no attempt whatsoever to elaborate on regional cooperation. (Gyarmati I. and Stančić D.2007:37) The Serbian Strategic Defence Review devotes two paragraphs to the issue, stating that the “country takes (an) active part in regional initiatives and programmes”. The document also expresses the view that “joint crisis management and the establishment of regional mechanisms for the risks and threat prevention are significant prerequisites for security consolidation”.

In Serbian NSS, regional security cooperation in President’s draft NSS prioritises regional stability as one of the three goals of its national security policy. Seeing Serbia as a key factor for regional stability, the President’s draft prioritises further enhancement of security stabilisation in the region and democratisation processes, as well as the creation of a climate of mutual trust and confidence. Greater involvement in regional cooperation is emphasized in the third priority of this draft document, in particular the necessity for Serbian armed forces to ‘shift from being an importer of security to become an exporter of security’ (p.6). The President’s draft recognises the possibility of improving its foreign policy position through the use of Serbian forces in peace missions abroad and participation in regional security fora.

The Prime Minister's draft lists regional security cooperation as one of its foreign policy priorities. This section does not include further explanation/motivation for participation in regional security initiatives, but through an examination of the detailed list of areas of possible cooperation, we can conclude that it primarily involves burden-sharing. However, this draft clearly lists the priorities for bilateral cooperation and coordination dealing primarily with the resolution of lingering conflict-related problems such as the status of refugees and borders.

Kosovo Security Strategy (2010) ensures that the Government is committed to contribute to the functioning of regional and global security tools and capabilities available. In international terms, the integration of Kosovo in future political institutions and regional and global security, such as the European Union, the United Nations and the Organization of the North Atlantic Treaty, the main objective of the state is directly related to the country’s progress. Kosovo is committed to be in line with good neighborly relations and to develop relationships with regional and international partners, based on mutual understanding and cooperation. Violent extremism and terrorism show that not necessarily serious threats emanating from state actors. Moreover, recent events such as the global financial crisis and the spread of cybercrime and electronic interference, demonstrate that innovative approaches are necessary to protect national security. (KSS 2010:6)

4. Relations with International Security Organizations and Approaches to the International Order

All documents advocate the preservation of international order, but special emphasis is given to the equality of states (Croatia, Macedonia, Serbia), and to adopting a multilateral approach in resolving security issues (Montenegro). Similarly important is the common view that violent disputes have to be prevented. Although the security documents depict the UN, the OSCE, NATO, and the EU as the most important actors of international security for the Western Balkans region, and describe the basic characteristic features and changes of the post-bipolar world order, they do not elaborate on the ongoing changes in the aforementioned security institutions. Furthermore, they do not identify their specific attitude towards them, or specify the desired evolution of the international order in comparison to the way these issues are dealt with in the security strategies of the Central European countries or the European Security Strategy. None of the documents mention a key notion of the EU’s security concept, namely “effective multilateralism”.

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The EU is generally perceived as a security organisation closer to the Organization for Security and Cooperation (OSCE) in Europe than to NATO, and the European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP) is dealt with only marginally. As to the NATO–ESDP link, most documents limit themselves to stating the complementary nature of the EU’s efforts in the defence field, thus avoiding discussion of problems related to NATO–EU relations.

The Serbian and Croatian strategic documents are exceptions in this general picture, since they elaborate more specifically on international security institutions and their vision of the desired international order. Although all their documents mention international law, the Serbian documents place particular emphasis on this issue, and refer in detail to basic principles, standards and documents of international law. Further, according to the Serbian documents, the respective roles of the UN, OSCE and EU organizations should be reinforced. The Serbian documents even recommend “revitalization” of the UN, indicating Serbia’s acknowledgement of the importance of that institution. The relevant Croatian documents describe the world order as unipolar, but foresee the possibility that “future international relations develop from a unipolar to (a) multipolar world.” When deciding on participation in international peacekeeping missions, three aspects are taken into consideration, including the “valid ground for the mandate in terms of international law.” (Gyarmati I. and Staneić D.2007:38)

KSS 2010 states that Kosovo is engaged and continues to develop successful cooperation with international presences in Kosovo as NATO / KFOR, International Civilian Office / European Union Special Representative (ICO / EUSR) and the mission of the European Union Rule of Law Mission (EULEX). In international terms, the integration of Kosovo in future political institutions and regional and global security, such as the European Union, the United Nations and the Organization of the North Atlantic Treaty, are the main objective of the state is directly related to the country’s progress. (KSS: 4)

5. Concluding Remarks

The paper studies the emergence of the strategic culture of the Western Balkans through the study of National Security Strategies of the states of this region. It argues that Strategic Culture can be judged in terms of the depiction of Interests and Values stated by these states in these overarching security documents as well as in terms of the approaches declared regarding Regional Security Cooperation and Relations with International Security Organizations and Approaches to the International Order.

Ideas on security issues are developed by historic events which enrich the experiences of a particular collective which deals with issues of security while these ideas are also shaped by the development of National Security Documents. A comprehensive study of the security issues in the Western Balkans may utilize Strategic Culture as an analytical tool through the study of national Security Strategies in the plethora of variables in the regional security studies.

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Segregation of Municipal Solid Waste and Recycling Potential for Residential Hostel UiTM Sarawak

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Abstract

Effective waste management through municipal solid waste (MSW) composition study is important for numerous reasons, including the need to estimate material recovery potential, to identify sources of component generation, to facilitate design of processing equipment, to estimate physical, chemical, and thermal properties of the waste and to maintain compliance with Malaysian Environmental Quality Act1974. The scope of this study focuses on the segregation of municipal solid waste (MSW) in the residential hostel in Universiti Teknologi Mara Sarawak (UiTMS). The resultant demonstrates that plastics, organic, papers and polystyrene pack constitute the highest component in the hostel MSW. Among these components, plastics come on the first place, whereby it constitutes 35.35% of the total MSW, followed by organic or food waste at 27.8%, papers at 16.13% and polystyrene pack at 11.95%. This paper concludes that integrated solid waste management should be implemented for the effective solid waste management in UiTMS. Proper mix of alternatives and technologies such as waste combustion (incineration), land filling and recycling are being proposed due to main composition to be wastes from plastics, foods and papers.

Keywords: Municipal solid waste, Proximate analysis.;

1. Introduction

Municipal Solid Waste Management is a national critical issue in our country today. One of the issues is regarding the shortening life span of landfills in Malaysia due to intensifying solid waste generation by the rapid growth of human population. Inefficient solid waste management draws the concern on how it would effects the environment as well as the public health. Flies production, bad odours and leachate may cause negative effects such as the occurrence of diseases. The MSW in Malaysia are mainly composed of organics, plastics and papers. The MSW composition varies depending on the waste sources like household, industrial sectors, commercial and institutional. The scope of this study focuses on the segregation of municipal solid waste (MSW) in the residential hostel in Universiti Teknologi Mara Sarawak (UiTMS) as there is no data regarding on the amount of waste being generated daily. An important point for the success of a waste management plan is the need for accurate and up to data on the quality and quantity of the waste that is generated in the area. With this data, proper management strategies can be planned by top management of UiTMS and put into action, notwithstanding the fact that this data could also be used to predict the future trends in the quantity and quality of the MSW of the residential hostel in UiTMS. This study is carried out to have a comprehensive characteristic of the waste that is generated and to determine MSW composition and generation rate. Hand sorting will be used for classifying the collected wastes into the following categories: plastics, paper, metals, aluminium, leather–wood–textiles–rubbers, organic wastes, non-combustibles and miscellaneous according to ASTM D 5231 - 92: Standard Test Method for the Determination of the Composition of Unprocessed Municipal Solid Waste. The sorting procedure of Municipal
Solid Waste (MSW) in this study is carried out according to the spot sampling method. Based on this method used by Kathirvale et al. (2003), about 30 to 50 kg of mixed wastes is to be taken which is then sorted. The MSW are sorted according to their categories such as plastics, polystyrene pack, organic or food waste, papers, glasses, ceramic, textiles, rubbers, metals and others are found in the MSW. Further analysis included proximate analysis for moisture content of combustible materials. The laboratory analysis is carried out on the MSW samples are based on recommendations from the American Society of Testing and Material (ASTM). Result from this study would provide data to categorise the MSW in UiTMS and the current trends is studied and by means of a prediction model for the future trend is predicted and proposed the appropriate method to treat it.

2. Literature Review

Solid wastes are defined, as wastes arising from human and animal activities which are normally solid and unwanted (Agamuthu, 2001). According to Corbitt (1999), solid waste generation can be subdivided into residential and nonresidential, depending on its source. MSW is defined as waste durable goods, nondurable goods, containers and packaging, food scraps, yard trimmings and miscellaneous inorganic waste from residential, commercial and industrial sources (Demirbas, 2004). MSW is mainly the household waste including commercial waste, institutional and some industrial waste (Tchobanoglous et al., 2003). Generally, residential MSW contains more newspaper, yard waste, disposal diapers, textile, rubber and leather. Nonresidential MSW contains more corrugated cardboard, high-grade paper, wood, other plastics and other metal (Liu and Liptak, 2000).

Based on case study by Kathirvale et al. (2003), the main components of Malaysia MSW are found to be food, paper and plastics which make up approximately 80% of the waste by weight. Generally, approximately 76% of the total MSW generated in Malaysia is collected, while the remainder is deposited in illegal dumps, drains and rivers. An effective system for solid waste management must be both of environmentally and economically sustainable (Fauziah et al., 2003).

About 1 - 2% is recycled, and the remainder is taken to disposal sites (Mohamad Said, 2003). Recycling also can help stretch landfill capacity and improved the efficiency and ash quality of incinerators and composting facilities by removing non combustible materials, such as metals and glass (Salvato, 2003). The awareness of recycling must be increased for example the Ministry of Housing and Local Government has launched and declared 11 November as the National Recycling Day. Recycling campaigns launched by certain local governments previously in 1990s failed due to poor public response, lack of collection centres and recycling facilities (Fauziah et al., 2004). About 20% of MSW can be diverted from disposal sites if everyone in the community supports the recycling program (Manaf et al., 2009).

The most important factor affecting the representativeness and validation of the data is sample collection. There are several methods for sample gathering such as using crane to grab the MSW from a pit waste processing plant, discharge from a waste vehicle and pick up from a waste collection station. Normally, one tonne of MSW is sampled which is reduced to 20 – 200 kg by dividing or quartering methods and sorted in one-quartered (Watanabe et al., 2002)

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Sampling

The MSW are collected from the residential hostel, and thereafter being gathered at the on-site MSW storage in the hostel. The collections of samples are done at the on-site MSW storage during working days with moderate weather condition. The sorting procedure of MSW in this study is carried out according to the spot sampling method. Based on this method used by Kathirvale et al. (2003), about 30 to 50 kg of mixed wastes is to be taken which is then sorted. The data recorded in the sampling process are initiated by focusing on the weight of the total MSW samples prior to sorting, and thereafter the weight of the sorted samples according to its category. With the data obtained, the statistical value such as mean, standard deviation and range are calculated and recorded. The laboratory sample consists of four sub-samples: putrescibles (food waste), LWTR (leather, wood, textiles, and rubber), plastics (packaging materials, bottles, etc.) and papers (paper, cardboard except sanitary papers). The time interval between collection and analysis is 1–4 hours. At the laboratory, the determinations of the proximate analysis parameter such as total moisture content, volatile matter, fix carbon and ash will be carried out. These experiments are carried out as prescribed by the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM).
3.2 Density

The bulk density of MSW is determined based on the ASTM E1109-86.

3.3 Proximate Analysis

The proximate analysis determination is done in accordance with the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) 2003. Moisture content, volatile matter, ash and fixed carbon of MSW are determined. Heating the MSW at 107°C for 1 hour and measuring the weight loss, according to the ASTM E790-87, the moisture content of the MSW is then calculated. The volatile matter content is determined according to the ASTM E897-88, by measuring the weight loss of the moisture free MSW sample inserted in an electric furnace at 950°C for 7 minutes. This is followed by tests based on the ASTM 830-87 to determine the ash content. The weight loss of the waste residue is measured after burning at 575°C for 1 hour in an electric furnace. The percentage of fixed carbon is determined by the difference after subtracting moisture content, volatile matter and ash of MSW.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Composition of UiTMS Residential Hostel Municipal Solid Waste.

The compositions of the MSW are summarised in Table 1. Plastics, organics, papers and polystyrene are the major components constituting a total of 93.23% the municipal solid waste, representing about 37.35%, 27.8%, 16.13% and 11.95% respectively. Other minor components included metal (0.94%), glass (1.33%), ceramic (0.31%) and others (4.2%). According to Kathirvale et al. (2003), food, paper and plastics are the main components of the Malaysian MSW, which make up approximately 80% of the waste by weight. This is proven in this case of MSW of residential hostel, whereby plastics, food leftovers and papers are ranking top three among other MSW categories in residential hostel. This result is highly expected. Glasses, ceramics, metals and other constituents such as textiles, rubber and leather remain low in MSW percentage of residential hostel throughout the sampling. Metals like aluminium are recorded low in percentage as aluminium is a very precious recyclable item.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENTS</th>
<th>Average Weight (kg)</th>
<th>(Percentage %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POLYSTYRENE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food packaging</td>
<td>11.98</td>
<td>11.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLASTICS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastic (Film)</td>
<td>23.13</td>
<td>23.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pet</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>6.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastic (Rigid)</td>
<td>7.86</td>
<td>7.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAPERS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed Paper</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>8.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrugated</td>
<td>7.80</td>
<td>7.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLASSES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear &amp; Colored</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CERAMIC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White ware Ceramics</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>METALS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aluminium</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe (Metal/Tin)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORGANICS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>27.85</td>
<td>27.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTHERS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Umbrella/hangers/textile</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber/leather</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>100.18</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Proximate Analysis

Table 2 shows the research data on proximate analysis. The average moisture content for the MSW is about 67% which due to high percentage of organic components, making incineration a challenging task. Nonetheless the high percentages of combustible materials such as organics and paper may offset this concern. The result also shows that the percentage of volatile matter and ashes are 10.93% and 9.04% respectively.

Table 2. Proximate Analysis of Residential Hostel MSW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proximate Analysis</th>
<th>Weight (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moisture content</td>
<td>67.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volatile matter</td>
<td>10.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ash</td>
<td>9.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed carbon</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusions

A comprehensive study on the characterisation of UiTMS Residential Hostel MSW has indicated that it is highly heterogeneous material, which composed of plastics, polystyrene, papers, organic waste, glasses, metals, ceramics and other miscellaneous components. Overall, organics, papers and plastics are the main constituents by weight of MSW in Residential Hostel. The plastics waste composition is the highest which is about 37.35 %. The university has to implement a good waste management program and emphasis on 3R campaign which refers to reduce, recycle and reuse. The moisture content is 63% on average. These results indicated that the MSW is a low-grade fuel. Since the outcome has shown a high amount of non-biodegradable wastes, proper mix of alternatives and technologies such as waste combustion (incineration), land filling and recycling are well preferred for Residential Hostel MSW and the safest way to get rid of all the waste.

References

Climate Changing Impact on Water Resources

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Abstract

Among the Social Consequences of Climate change, those affect and the hydrological cycle and water resources are expected to be serious. The analysis of the likely impacts of the Climate change for the Albanian coast reveals that drought, the e. the prolongation of the low during dry periods - summer precipitation seasons, may be the most important directly consequence which, in turn, may lead to a cascade of secondary potentially harmful impacts, such as adequate quality drinking shortage of water. Decrease in the flow of surface waters, decrease in the recharge of aquifers, salt water intrusion due to sea level rise may cause coastal increased salinity in aquifers. This could create public health risks and increase the costs of water treatment and upset the ecology of the coastal area. In this study the present conditions as well as likely impacts as regards the hydrological and water resources are characteristics presented shortly;

1. Introduction

The global impact of climate change on the hydrological cycle with further consequences on water resources can have serious social and ecological consequences. When it comes to the impact on the hydrological cycle are considered changes in elements that interact within this cycle, the first rainfall, evaporation, infiltration and surface flow of moisture content in the soil. Water resources have an important role in social development, not only for the fact that the water used for drinking, but also for widespread use in Industry and agriculture.

However, it should be noted that it is very difficult to distinguish accurately the effects of climate changes in social - economic effect of contrast, the human impact of climate change.

2. Some hydrological features Hydrographic Network

Water flow in the Albanian hydrographic watershed formed network and represents this potential watershed water discharges into the Mediterranean. The main rivers discharging into the Mediterranea (Adriatic) sea are: Drini, Buna, Mati, Shkumbini and Vjosa. Changes for a period of many years of wide vary within the limits (i.e. from 19.5 109 m3) of dry years (P = 99%) at 73 109 m3 for the wet (P = 1%) 2007.

There are two characteristic periods in terms of water flow, wet period (October-May) and dry (June to September). Accordingly distribution is as follows:

- 39% in the winter,
- 33%, in spring
- 11% in summer
- 17% in autumn

December and January register the highest values of flow, respectively 13.3 and 13.2% of the annual. They are followed by February (12.3%), the month with the lowest water flow in different rivers and many years performance of total flow that flows into the Mediterranean Sea. Extinguished that 1963 is the most wet year (Q = 2.023 m3sec-1) while that of 1954 is most dry (Q = 704 m3s-1),

Is noted a reduction trend for the period 19852 - 1985, which is the lowest (8:15 m3s-1 to 24 years) in comparison with the total flow. Rainfall for the same period shows a similar trend with the flow. The lower is the amount of rainfall, the lower the flow. Thus, the effect of rainfall on water balance is explicit. Temperature also exerts its influence on water flow, but effect is implicit. Higher temperatures during the dry period are followed by a higher evaporation. Given that flow over the same period is lower evaporation or evapotranspiration currently are lower. During the wet period (October to May) the volume of flow is quite large, but given the low temperature of potential evapotranspiration is low.
3. The Expected Climate Change

As for next few years, from the application of general circulation models for Albania (UNEP, 1994) until year 2100 as a result of global climate warming changes are expected, which are expected to affect the hydrological cycle.

3.1 Annual Scenario

Can be expected a change of temperature from 0.7 to 2.5°C, this means that the temperature limit above the annual average ranging between 17.2 and 20°C, growing to be taken into consideration. However, in the annual rate is not expected any significant change in precipitation. According to a variation of the scenario expected average annual value of the amount of rainfall from 1000 to 2000 mm from the south to the north of the study area.

3.2 Winter

Increasing the temperature in winter is expected to attend the annual performance, while rainfall shows a decreasing trend (-28 to +5%). This reduction may not be significant, since in winter rainfall recorded higher values than in other seasons (330 - 730mm). As winter evaporation is low, such a reduction is expected to have a limited influence.

3.3 Spring

Temperature in this season is expected to change almost the same limits and annual temperature. Given that the average temperature in the study area varies between 13.8 and 15.7°C, it is expected increase of 15.2 - 18.5°C, while it is expected a very small increase in rainfall (up 0.18%)

3.4 Summer

According to the model, the average temperature this season is expected to range from 23.2 to 24.7°C for the study area, values that should be taken more into consideration. A serious impact on the hydrology of the area can be expected from the reduction of rainfall in the -22 to -60% margins (currently in summer fall 13-63 mm rainfall).

3.5 Autumn

The temperature change is expected to be somewhat greater than the annual expected a "extended summer". The amount of rainfall in summer varies from 99 to 207 mm, it is expected to grow +53%, an increase that will affect the hydrosphere. According to climate change scenarios for the Albanian coast are expected changes +16 cm and 48cm in the coast levels respectively for the years 2030 and 2100.

4. Expected impacts of climate change

All three elements of climate change (temperature rise, reducing of the rain flows and sea level rise) will affect the local water resources. These changes can be mentioned as follows:

4.1 Flow reduction of the surface water

The analysis of rainfall scenarios show that the flow in the south is expected to decline more than 2% in 2030 and 5% in 2100. In the northern part of the country are not expected to change substantially the same time periods. It is important to note that the southern part of the country contains less than 20% of water resources, thus not expected to be any significant increase in flow.
4.2 Deterioration of water problem in general and drinking water in particular.

Possible reduction in summer rainfall is expected to exacerbate the problem of water in general, and increased precipitation during autumn and brought along its pollution growth is expected to exert a negative impact on vegetation and coastal ecosystems.

4.3 In aquifers due to reduced precipitation, especially in summer.

The latter, along with increased salinity as a result of penetration of sea salt water will lead to deterioration of the drinking water problem. It should be noted that the demand for potable water for social and economic needs are expected to grow. In line with the growth of population is estimated that the demand for potable water will be 280 million m³/year and what social and economic needs will vary from 655 to 850 million m³/year in the entire territory by 2025 (Blue Plan). It is understood that these requirements will be much higher by 2100.

4.4 Increasing evapotranspiration throughout the year.

Rising temperatures around 3°C can affect the growth of evapotranspiration on such a scale would lead to reduction of the total amount of water and save reduction and degradation of aquatic habitats. These problems can be seen especially in the summer, where it is expected a significant reduction of rainfall and less in the fall.

4.5 Change the amount of sediment and coastal profile, as a result of increased intensity and frequency of flooding.

4.6 Increase the level of water in rivers and streams shoreline change.

The penetrations of water into the seas are expected to be more pronounced in 2100. It can be felt especially in post Mfoli (hydrometric station on the River Vjosa) 16 cm rise of sea levels are not expected to have any significant impact on groundwater. While the growth of 48cm and reduction of the quantity of rainfall by 2100 is expected to cause increased water content of saline aquifers in the coastal zone.

As a result of the penetration of salt water of the sea is expected to increase groundwater salinity. This effect is expected to be more sensitive in the Fushe-Kuqe aquifer in the area of Durres, which had previously been expected to slough less felt in the field areas of Vlore & Zadrima, due to greater heights above sea level (i.e. 1.67 and 1.83 m). The same conclusion applies to all parts of the territory where the salty lands lie.
5. Conclusions

Changes in temperature and precipitation and sea level rise by 2030 are not expected to have any considerable impact on water resources.

For year 2100 results an extended drought periods in summer precipitation can be reduced most important direct consequences of the expected impacts. This, in turn, can contribute significantly to a cascade of other influences such as reducing the flow of surface water, deterioration of water problem in general and water in particular, reduction of reserves in aquifers. Sea level rise is the second factor that can influence in a series of negative impacts, among which we can mention the penetration of salt water into coastal aquifers, etc. shoreline erosion

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UNEP, 1994: Expected implications of Climate change on the English Coast UNEP (OCA / MEI) ÈG.98 / 2.
The Right to Privacy of Personal Information and Private Life (Privacy): The Issues Nowadays

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Abstract

The right to privacy of personal information and private life, otherwise known as privacy, is an important right of ours, which despite dating years ago, in the European Convention on Human Rights in 1950, is today faced with difficulties and problems in various legal and social plan. So, first of all, today there are still countries that do not have this right expressly provided in their constitution. Also, despite different national and international acts (especially comunitare acts), are still not very clear instruments for the protection of this right. This has made the role of jurisprudence to be fundamental in this regard, based on discretionary and subjective criterion of judicial authority. Also today, in the era of internet and technology, more and more users want to know which of their data are collected and where they go. Hence the need for new legislation aimed to rescue the users’ confidence in online services. Another problem is the one that has to do with simplification of norms in the area of privacy and standardization of procedures among different states, thus eliminating the differences between national legislations, which are the first cause of uncertainty. The Problematic is even safeguard this right, when dealing with other constitutional values. Delicate in this regard, is its relationship with the right of defense, the publication of the decision, and the right to information. All these will be subject to the treatment of this topic, given the importance and the problems that they present today.

1. Premessa

Si discute molto della privacy ai giorni d’oggi. Ma che cos’è la privacy? Quella che con un termine ormai entrato nell’uso comune viene indicata come privacy è il diritto alla riservatezza delle informazioni personali e della propria vita private. Le problematiche della privacy sono tante e sicuramente non è possibile di studiarle tutte in questo studio, però ci espanderemo notevolmente in alcuni elementi importanti come la legislazione in materia di privacy, quando è iniziato come un concetto giuridico, quali risorse legali e quale ruolo è stato giocato dalla giurisprudenza come fonte, approfondendo di più nella legislazione italiana; la privacy e internet; il diritto della privacy e gli altri diritti costituzionali nella legislazione italiana.

2. La legislazione sulla privacy

Nella società di oggi, sta diventando sempre più possibile la violazione della privacy, a causa dello sviluppo di tecnologie e strumenti che non permettono all’uomo di sviluppare pienamente la sua sfera di vita privata. Quella che con un termine ormai entrato nell’uso comune viene indicata come privacy è il diritto alla riservatezza delle informazioni personali e della propria vita privata, cioè uno strumento posto a salvaguardia e a tutela della sfera privata del singolo individuo, da intendere come la facoltà di impedire che le informazioni riguardanti tale sfera personale siano divulgate in assenza dell’autorizzazione dell’interessato, od anche il diritto alla non intromissione nella sfera privata da parte di terzi. Tale diritto assicura all’individuo il controllo su tutte le informazioni e i dati riguardanti la sua vita privata, fornendogli nel contempo gli strumenti per la tutela di queste informazioni.

L’istituto nasce come diritto a the right to be let alone (“il diritto di essere lasciati in pace”), secondo la formulazione del giurista statunitense Louis Brandeis che fu probabilmente il primo al mondo a formulare una legge sulla riservatezza, insieme a Samuel Warren (The Right to Privacy, “Harvard Law Review”, 1890). A ben vedere l’opera dei

3 https://it.wikipedia.org/wiki/Privacy#Fonti_comunitarie
due giuristi bostoniani non rappresenta tutta via una creazione ex novo, ma semmai una rifondazione di un diritto già noto e tutelato, benché secondo logiche differenti.

Sempre più compresso nella società della comunicazione elettronica, nel tempo si è evoluto ed oggi si parla di privacy non più, e non solo, nel senso di protezione dei dati personali (quindi come diritto negativo volto a impedire la rilevazione di informazioni sul nostro conto), ma in una accezione più ampia anche quale diritto ad esprimere liberamente le proprie aspirazioni più profonde e realizzarle attingendo liberamente alla proprie potenzialità.

I primi riferimenti alla privacy si possono far risalire alla Convenzione Europea dei Diritti dell’Uomo dell’1950, che già stabiliva come non può esservi ingerenza di una autorità pubblica nell’esercizio del diritto alla propria libertà individuale, a meno che tale ingerenza sia prevista dalla legge in quanto misura necessaria per la sicurezza nazionale, per la pubblica sicurezza, per il benessere economico del paese, per la difesa dell’ordine e per la prevenzione dei reati, per la protezione della salute o della morale, o per la protezione dei diritti e delle libertà altrui.

Questo fondamentale concetto è stato poi riportato ed espanso in vari accordi internazionali, come ad esempio quello di Schengen, ed anche nella Carta dei Diritti Fondamentali dell’Unione Europea che all’art. 8 così recita: "1. Ogni individuo ha diritto alla protezione dei dati di carattere personale che lo riguardano. 2. Tali dati devono essere trattati secondo il principio di lealtà, per finalità determinate e in base al consenso della persona interessata o a un altro fondamento legittimo previsto dalla legge. Ogni individuo ha il diritto di accedere ai dati raccolti che lo riguardano e di ottenere la rettifica. 3. Il rispetto di tali regole è soggetto al controllo di un’autorità indipendente." 

Infatti, sull’esistenza di un diritto alla privacy garantito dalla costituzione, ci sono state opinioni diverse nella dottrina giuridica. Questo ha fatto che il diritto di privacy venisse espressamente sanzionato un po’ più tardi nei primi costituzioni, e formulato nelle nuove costituzioni. In alcuni dei primi costituzioni (per esempio nella Costituzione italiana), non c’è un articolo diretto a garantire tale diritto, tuttavia, anche in quelle, tale conclusione si raggiungeva da alcune altre formulazioni. Per esempio, fino al 1997 non esistevano nel ordinamento italiano norme specifiche in materia. A questo riguardo possiamo menzionare anche la Costituzione albanese, la quale non sanciona esplicitamente tale diritto, ma fa riferimento alla privacy tramite altri diritti fondamentali dell’uomo.

Colsi l’articolo 35 della Costituzione albanese prevede: "nessuno non si può obligare, ecetto quando la legge lo chiede, di fare pubbliche i suoi dati personali".

I sistemi di Common Law hanno individuato agevolmente l’esistenza e poi la disciplina del Right to Privacy, data la peculiare funzione esercitata dalla giurisprudenza in tali sistemi.

Per contro, la vicenda del diritto alla riservatezza nell’esperienza italiana costituisce un esempio di “atrofia” dell’apparato legislativo in senso proprio: infatti il Legislatore si è dimenticato di disciplinare la materia, favorendo così il permanere di una situazione di incertezza. A tale anomalia ha dovuto supplire, come e’ ormai consuetudine, la giurisprudenza, la quale, almeno apparentemente, si è costituita fonte di diritto.

Per concretizzare ciò che è stato scritto sopra, questo studio si espanderà un po’ di più nella legislazione italiana, portando due principali difensori del diritto della privacy.

Il primo è il Codice in Materia di Protezione dei Dati Personali (Codice della privacy). Inizialmente, la riservatezza era più che altro un diritto delle persone famose, infatti l’Italia arrivò come penultima in Europa ad approvare una legge di tutela della privacy di applicazione generale, trasfusa prima nella legge 675 del 1996 e poi nel Codice in Materia di Protezione dei Dati Personali (Codice della privacy) cioè il Decreto legislativo 30 giugno 2003, n. 196, dal quale si evince chiaramente che la privacy non è solo il diritto a non vedere trattati i propri dati senza consenso, ma anche l’adozione di cautele tecniche ed organizzative che tutti, compreso le persone giuridiche, devono rispettare per procedere in maniera corretta al trattamento dei dati altrui. Detta normativa, considerata la più completa a livello europeo, dedica la prima parte ai principi generali, dettando le definizioni essenziali per la comprensione della normativa, tra le quali quelle di dato personale e di trattamento.

Mentre l’organo preposto al controllo relativo alla corretta applicazione della normativa in materia di privacy, è il Garante per la Protezione dei Dati Personali, autorità amministrativa collegiale ed indipendente, i cui membri sono nominati dal Parlamento e che opera un controllo preventivo e successivo sulle attività di trattamento di dati personali svolte in Italia. Il Garante, che opera autonomamente dal Governo, ha poteri istruttori, consultivi e sanzionatori, e

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4 Mantelero, A., (2008), Contratto e impresa, Dialoghi con la giurisprudenza civile e commercial, CEDAM, 758- 759
6 Carta dei Diritti Fondamentali dell’Unione Europea
8 La Costituzione Albanese, 1998
9 Cardaci, F. & Olivetti, S., (1997), Diritto Civile, Il diritto alla riservatezza in Italia
costituisce il primo grado per il ricorso amministrativo contro eventuali violazioni della normativa. Eventuali decisioni del Garante, assunte in contraddittorio con le parti in causa, sono impugnabili dinanzi alla magistratura\textsuperscript{10}.

3. Privacy e Internet

E parlando di questo, il problema di garantire la privacy si pone soprattutto in maniera pressante in internet, dove la diffusione dei dati è facile e veloce. Inoltre, tale problema è strettamente legato al tema della sicurezza informatica, visto che spesso si verificano furti di dati attraverso la rete.

Dal punto di vista giuridico si è, infatti, sentita l’esigenza di ampliare il vecchio ordinamento giuridico e, di conseguenza, anche la normativa relativa al concetto di privacy che, fino a non molti anni fa, si occupava esclusivamente della tradizionale corrispondenza e della comunicazione telegrafica e telefonica\textsuperscript{11}.

Nell’Febbraio 2012, il commissario per la Giustizia alla Commissione Europea, Viviane Reding, ha presentato la riforma della normativa europea sulla privacy. Già nel novembre del 2010 l’Europa si era posta il problema della protezione dei dati personali, e in una comunicazione definiva la strategia e gli obiettivi di una riforma radicale della privacy. La direttiva in materia di privacy del 1995, infatti, risale ad un periodo nel quale l’uso della rete non era così diffuso e pervasivo, da cui l’esigenza di affrontare e risolvere le problematiche sorte a seguito della proliferazione di social network e servizi transnazionali che macinano quotidianamente quantità enormi di dati personali, con le correlate difficoltà per gli utenti di comprendere esattamente quali diritti hanno e a quali legislazioni fare riferimento.

L’intenzione è quella di realizzare una normativa che sappia contemperare equamente le esigenze delle parti in causa, quindi da una parte dovrà essere meno dispendiosa per i governi e le imprese, dall’altra dovrà essere in grado di garantire maggiore protezione per gli utenti.

Gli obiettivi che si intendono raggiungere sono vari. Innanzitutto la Commissione europea vuole rafforzare i diritti delle persone, in modo che la raccolta e l’uso dei dati personali sia limitato al minimo necessario. Per raggiungere questo risultato si intende promuovere la trasparenza, cioè gli utenti devono essere correttamente e compiutamente informati sui dati raccolti, sul loro uso e sui tempi di utilizzo, in modo che il consenso sia davvero informato. La proposta di riforma prevede, infatti, la necessità di un consenso esplicito da parte del cittadino, prima che le aziende trattino i loro dati, e in linea di massima i dati dovrebbero essere privati per impostazione predefinita. La riforma, inoltre, si ispira ad un principio di correttezza, nel senso che i cittadini non devono essere costretti a condividere i loro dati, ed infine si intende aumentare il controllo dell’utente sui dati, in modo che egli possa decidere in maniera semplice ed efficace cosa condividere.

L’intenzione è quindi di limitare i modelli di business invadenti, così garantendo un livello di protezione maggiore in modo da consentire a tutti i cittadini europei di cogliere le opportunità offerte dalle nuove tecnologie, spazzando i timori di rischi per la propria privacy.

In tal senso verrebbe regolamentato il diritto all’oblio, inteso come il diritto che ogni utente ha alla cancellazione dei propri dati nel momento in cui non sussistano più ragioni legittime per mantenerli e l’utente ne richieda l’eliminazione.

La riforma ovviamente dovrà essere improntata alla chiarezza, alla semplificazione e alla flessibilità. L’intento è di realizzare norme chiare e semplici, facili da comprendere ed attuare, che non diano adito a differenti interpretazioni, in modo che gli operatori del settore non dovranno realizzare procedure alternative per evitare “minacce” di denunce, ma potranno servirsì delle procedure standard. Ovviamente si rende necessario anche ridurre gli oneri amministrativi e burocratici, eliminando quelli inutili per le imprese, tenendo conto della praticabilità delle soluzioni da implementare, con procedure e sanzioni proporzionate alle circostanze evitando effetti intimidatori.

La standardizzazione delle procedure, requisito essenziale della riforma, eliminando le differenze tra le varie legislazioni potrà finalmente portare ad una armonizzazione delle norme e quindi alla realizzazione del mercato unico digitale che sarà di beneficio per tutti. L’intento è di realizzare norme uguali per tutti gli Stati in modo da eliminare le incertezze applicative da parte delle imprese e i dubbi degli utenti sui loro diritti.

In tale prospettiva si prevede un rafforzamento dei poteri di controllo della autorità deputate alla protezione dei dati, migliorandone la cooperazione e il coordinamento. Con la semplificazione le imprese avranno a che fare solo con le autorità di protezione del loro paese di origine, piuttosto che con le autorità di ogni Stato dove operano.

Le norme dovranno necessariamente essere flessibili, cioè in grado di adattarsi a tutti gli Stati e tutte le legislazioni, e non solo UE.

\textsuperscript{10} http://brunosaetta.it/privacy/privacy-o-diritto-alla-riservatezza-e-protezione-dei-dati-personali.html

\textsuperscript{11} http://brunosaetta.it/privacy/privacy-o-diritto-alla-riservatezza-e-protezione-dei-dati-personali.html
Ovviamente la riforma considera la necessità di conciliare la protezione della privacy con la libertà di espressione nel web, laddove spetterà ai singoli paesi definire le esenzioni alle regole sulla privacy, tramite regole che si applicheranno alla stampa e ai media.

4. Il diritto della privacy e gli altri diritti costituzionali nella legislazione italiana

I diritti costituzionali, associati di più con il diritto della privacy sono: il diritto all’informazione, il diritto di difesa e il diritto della pubblicazione delle sentenze. Di conseguenza, si vorrà solo studiare l’interconnessione tra di loro.

La privacy, intesa nel modo sopra descritto, trova una sua limitazione nel rapporto col diritto di cronaca e il diritto all’informazione costituzionalmente garantito, e si è posto il problema di stabilire il corretto compromesso tra i due interessi. Il diritto all’informazione non deve essere inteso soltanto come diritto ad informare, quindi come diritto di cronaca, ma anche come diritto alla manifestazione del pensiero, tutelato dall’articolo 21 della Costituzione, che riguarda non solo i giornalisti ma anche e soprattutto tutti i cittadini.

Il bilanciamento tra i due interessi, come sancisce il Codice della privacy in materia di protezione dei dati personali, si realizza attraverso la previsione che il soggetto interessato presti il consenso esplicito al trattamento dei dati che lo riguardano, mantenendo così il controllo su tali informazioni. Tale consenso, in particolare, è anche revocabile.

A chi esercita attività giornalistica è, però, permesso il trattamento dei dati personali, la comunicazione e la diffusione anche senza il consenso dell’interessato e, con riferimento ai dati sensibili e giudiziari, senza la preventiva autorizzazione del Garante per la Protezione dei Dati Personal, purché ci si attenga ai limiti dettati dal diritto di cronaca, individuati nell’essenzialità della notizia e nell’interesse pubblico, con l’unica eccezione dei dati relativi a circostanze o fatti resi noti direttamente dall’interessato o attraverso i suoi comportamenti pubblici.

Il diritto di difesa, essendo un diritto di rango costituzionale (art. 24 della Costituzione), prevale sul diritto alla privacy e non può essere soggetto a limitazioni essendo posto nell’interesse pubblico.

L’utilizzo di dati personali è, quindi, sempre ammesso in sede giudiziaria, ovviamente purché il diritto che si intende tutelare sia di rango pari a quello dell’interessato. In tale ottica, il diritto alla privacy risulta sovraristretto al diritto d’autore, essendo quest’ultimo rivolto a tutelare meri interessi economici e non diritti e libertà dell’individuo, per cui una azienda non è mai autorizzata a tracciare dati dei cittadini al fine di verificare una eventuale violazione dalla normativa sul diritto d’autore, tale attività è infatti demandata in via esclusiva allo Stato e in particolare all’autorità giudiziaria.

Con un provvedimento pubblicato il 4 gennaio nella Gazzetta Ufficiale n. 2 del 2011, il Garante per la Protezione dei Dati Personali ha finalmente riscritto le regole sull’informazione giuridica. In particolare si tratta delle linee guida che regolano la pubblicazione di sentenze e provvedimenti giurisdizionali su riviste giuridiche, cd e dvd, nonché siti istituzionali, con una particolare attenzione ai minori coinvolti in vicende processuali.

In sintesi, la magistratura, Cassazione, tribunali e corti d’appello, può rilasciare copie integrali delle sentenze ai giornalisti senza oscurare i nomi degli imputati, in quanto le sentenze sono atti pubblici pronunciati “in nome del Popolo Italiano”, come ha ricordato la Suprema Corte. Ma volendo pubblicare una sentenza su una rivista di informazione giuridica è necessario oscurare i dati personali. Tale obbligo, però, non vale per la cronaca giudiziaria, poiché quest’ultima deve assicurare il diritto d’informazione dei cittadini, essenziale per il concreto esercizio della sovranità popolare.

5. Conclusioni e Raccomandazioni

Nonostante i diversi atti nazionali ed internazionali (in particolare atti comunitari), non sono ancora molto chiarì gli strumenti per la tutela di questo diritto.

Il ruolo della giurisprudenza è stata fondamentale perché, in assenza di norme giuridiche esplicite, si è costituita fonte di diritto della privacy.

Anche se il diritto alla privacy non è sancito in modo diretto dalla Costituzione italiana, vi è un codice speciale, il Codice della privacy, che protegge in modo completo tale diritto, e che, a nostro parere, fa che questo diritto sia molto più sancito e protetto che da un unico articolo.

Nonostante gli sforzi dell’UE avevano cominciato prima, nel 2012 è stato raggiunto, attraverso la riforma della normativa europea sulla privacy, la semplificazione delle norme in materia di privacy e la standardizzazione delle norme.

14 http://brunosaetta.it/privacy/pubblicazione-delle-sentenze-e-privacy.html
procedure tra stati diversi, cercando di eliminare in tal modo le differenze tra le legislazioni delli stati, che sono la prima causa di incertezza.

L`interconnessione fra diritto della privacy e gli altri diritti costituzionali: il diritto all`informazione, il diritto di difesa e il diritto della pubblicazione delle sentenze, a nostro parere, trova una regolamentazione giuridica vera e propria nella legislazione italiana.

Questi sono le conclusioni che abbiamo tratto dallo studio ed in fine, visto la gamma molto ampia dell`argomento, esce come raccomandazione l`eseguire di un altro studio, che studiera le altre problematiche associate con il diritto della privacy.

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The Difference between Albanian and Italian Tax Systems and the Challenges of Albanian Tax System Against the Advantages of Italian Tax System. The Investment Climate in Albania for Italian Businesses

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Abstract
Every entity aims at gaining profit. Problems start when the state with its procedures prevents the realization of this aim. This paper will be based on a comparison between our two different tax systems, between Italy and Albania and for the problems that they face. During the paper will be presented the advantages of Italian tax system and the challenges of Albanian tax system, the problems with the overpaid income tax during the year; with the depreciation methods and rates; and with costs not recognized by the tax system. Also the presentation of financial statements examples for both countries. The paper is based on secondary sources in a recently study conducted by the German Association of Industry and Commerce in Albania, April 2013. In many other studies related with the tax system in Albania and based on the interpretation of IAS 16 and the recognition of depreciation as an expense in the statement of income and expenses. I have not used any econometric model to prove any hypotheses because it is more a paper to present and to compare the two different tax systems. In the results and conclusions we will see also the present situation of the Italian investment and the addition of Italian firms operating in Albania and the problems they face.

Keywords: Financial statements, tax systems, IAS 16, depreciation, income, expenses.

1. Introduction

Sufficient tax revenues are needed to guarantee democracy, public order and the functioning of the legal system. Modern tax should be more than just a source of revenue for government operations, taxation should also ensure that public authorities contribute actively to pursue the goals of economic policy, social and environmental. A proper road network, an efficient public transport system, a modern health service hospital providing a convenient system of education policy, environmental protection and active employment and vocational training require the injection of large doses of public finances.

Also, the tax is an important springboard for a redistribution of income among citizens. Ensuring solidarity and social cohesion in society requires large social transfers and tax needs to play an important role. Further, the tax is a tool to influence people’s behavior, for example in the environmental field or in connection with active aging (reward at work). Tax policy instruments should not be competition for governments to attract investment. Policies of this kind lead to tax competition and harm the basic goals of tax policy.

The purpose of this paper is not to compare the economies of the two countries because we know that Albania and Italy have completely different economic developments. The aim is to present the real situation in these two countries and some specifics of Italian tax system that we can see as advantages of the fiscal system and fiscal policies of Italy, as a good example for our tax system.1

1 Hutsebaut, M. “Tax policy according to Europian point of view”
2. The present situation of economic and politik level of the businesses in Albania and in Italy

German Association of Industry and Commerce in Albania (DIHA) conducted a survey in cooperation with the German Chambers of Foreign Trade (AHK) in the region of Central and Eastern Europe, in the period 01 February to 03 March 2013. The results of this survey assessed the economic situation in Albania negatively! 64% of respondents assess the economic situation in Albania as negative, this assessment in 2012 had only 36%. Forecasting the future for 2013 estimated by 52% of respondents as "bad". The study showed that Albania has a lower than CEE average, as in previous years, the survey results, this year are quite critical in terms of the economic climate in Albania.

The most critical estimates in this survey were for the factors of doing business, which are very important elements of decision making when businesses decide where to invest. The results of the evaluation on personal business situation in the respective companies continue to become worse. In 2011, 67% of respondents assess their business situation as "good", in 2012 this figure dropped to 42%, and in 2013 only 24% still had this assessment. Economic situation and especially the political situation in Albania are evaluated negatively. 55% of respondents say how much disappointed they are with the fight against corruption and criminality. Dissatisfied with public administration in Albania are 52% of respondents, while 48% are dissatisfied with the predictability of economic policies.2

3. The main changes in the Italian tax area are listed below:

It was brought forward to 2012 the possibility for regions to ordinary statute to increase or decrease the rate of personal income tax base (0.9%), however, limits are the additional amount which must be contained within the limits of 0.5% for 2012 - 2013, at 1.1% for 2014 and 2.1% from 2015. It has been also suspended the powers of the regions and local authorities to resolve to increase the taxes, surtaxes, the rates and surcharges (except for the municipal surtax starting in 2012) to the definition of the new Stability Pact of procedure. Establishment of a solidarity contribution. It was introduced a solidarity contribution for the years 2011 - 2012 - 2013 of 5% on total income exceeding € 90,000 per year and 10% higher than € 150,000, this contribution is deductible from the total income;3

- Reduction of exemption schemes, exclusion and favorable tax of 5% for 2012 and 20% by 2013;
- Standards on combating money laundering and the relative reduction in the use of cash for amounts less than € 2,500;
- New rules on the taxation of financial income. Will be applied to parts of a single rate 20% from 1 January 2012 on tax on capital gains realized replacement of non-qualified investments on equity instruments and contracts of association in participation with capital injection, titles (excluding securities issued by public agencies and state and Titles white list of countries and savings bonds for the southern economy for which the tax remains at 12.5%), certificates of mass, currencies sold to term or arising from deposits, precious metals and shares in investment undertakings. The single rate of 20% also applies with regard to the withholding tax on interest on bonds, promissory notes and similar securities, the withholding tax on dividends from non-qualified investments, listed and unlisted companies and the bank interest. The taxation of financial income to 20% is then went to replace the pre-existing split into two different tax rates of 27% for the interests of the deposits, bank accounts, and 12.5% for all other financial income. With regard to capital losses until 2011 on financial instruments mentioned above is expected from future capital gains deduction limited to 62.5% instead of 100%;

- Finally, the law no. 183/2011 (Stability Law for 2012) has provided some news about the following aspects: Guarantor of the taxpayer. It has been changed the structure of the organ from collegiate to tribunal and has been introduced new causes of incompatibility from office
  - Free of tax productivity bonuses for the years 2012 - 2014 through the application of a "substitute tax of 10% on salaries paid to private employees related to increases in productivity;
  - Remission of fees relating to the apprenticeship contract; Increase in excise duties (fuel taxes) on motor fuels;
  - Changes to the rules of traceability for professionals and partnerships with simplified accounting;

- Increase of the unified. The unified contribution has been increased by 50% in the judgments of appeal and doubled in the proceedings before the Court of Cassation.
  - According to the Albanian tax legislation

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2 German Association of Industry and Commerce in Albania
3 Ceriani, V. Franco, D. “Audizione nell’ambito dell’indagine conoscitiva sulla riforma fiscale e assistenziale” (AC 4566), Banca d’Italia.
• Are excluded from the obligation to complete and submit an annual individual statement of income all individuals that realize their annual gross income from all sources in the total amount of less than 2 million (two million).
  To take advantage of deductible expenses for children and for persons in custody, provided the letters "b" and "c" of paragraph 1 of Article 13/3 of this law, part of the statement, which belongs to these costs, supplemented only the head.

• Non-residents do not benefit from the right to the calculation of deductible expenses, as provided in paragraph 1 of this Article.4

It should be noted that no Albanian families, maintain family balance to any economist. This is because economic difficulties, fiscal infrastructure, lack of economic knowledge and culture.

Natural and legal persons, entities of local tax on small business, within the meaning of Article 10 of Law no. 9632, dated 30.10.2006 "On the local tax system", with estimated annual turnover of under 2 million, must declare, under the terms defined in this section only if the annual turnover for the year exceed 2 million.

Income individuals and legal entities, subject to local tax on small business, which conducts an annual turnover not exceeding 8 million and not less than 2 million are subject to personal income tax.

The tax period begins on January 1 and ends on December 31 of each calendar year.

The applicable tax rate on taxable income of small businesses, subject to personal income tax is 10 percent.

Small and big businesses, taxable profit for the tax period is determined by the balance sheet and its annexes, which should be in accordance with the law "On Accounting and Financial Statements"

1. If taxable profit results negative in a tax period, loss may be covered by profits in the next three tax periods, according to the principle "first loss last before it".

2. If during a taxable period the direct and / or indirect capital or voting rights of a person, varies by more than 50 percent in value or in number, the preceding paragraph shall not apply to losses of the legal person in that tax period and in previous tax periods.

The tax rate on profits to 31 December 2007 was 20 percent, while from 1 January 2008 will be 10 percent.

4. **Table of tax to income from employment**

From 01.05.2013

For income from 0-30000 ALL do not pay any obligation.
For income from 30001 – more, tax rate is 10% on gross salary.

The minimum wage is 21000 ALL or EUR 150 and maximum salary is EUR 91 475 or EUR 650.

According to the Italian tax legislation

4.1 **Personal income tax (PIT)**

The tax on personal income is regulated in the Consolidated Income Tax Act (the "Tax Code"). Individuals resident in Italy are subject to IRPEF income earned both in Italy and abroad. Individuals who are not resident for tax purposes in Italy are subject to IRPEF only on income earned in Italy. Taxable income is subject to taxation by the application of progressive tax rates that, at present, ranging from 23% to 43% , plus a contribution of 3% for income in excess of € 300.000.00 (2011-2013) .

4.2 **Taxation of individuals**

Individuals resident in Italy are subject to IRPEF for income earned both in Italy and abroad. Individuals not resident in Italy are subject to IRPEF only for income earned in Italy.

For individuals the tax period coincides with the calendar year.

5. **The tax rates**

The tax rates to apply to the total income (by five reductions) are the following:

4 Low Nr. 8438, date 28.12.1998 for the tax income changed
For the tax years 2011-2013 is provided a contribution of 3% for income in excess of € 300,000 (2011-2013) to be applied to the portion of income exceeding that threshold. In particular, the gross tax is determined by applying the income tax rates to the total income, the sum of all incomes fall within the aforementioned categories, net of certain deductible expenses (eg, medical expenses, periodic payments paid to a spouse, social security contributions and assistance).

6. Corporate income tax (IRES)

Income tax for companies is also governed by the Tax Code. Companies resident in Italy for tax purposes are subject to this tax for income earned in Italy and abroad. Non-resident for tax purposes in Italy are subject to IRES only on income from Italian sources, when the income comes from Italian subjects. In recent years the taxation of companies has experienced a significant reform and further modifications. One of the main characteristics of the fiscal system is the reduction of the rate of income tax for companies at 27.5%.

7. Comparisons between Albanian and Italian tax systems

Initially, it must be stressed that Italy has a progressive tax system while Albania has a flat tax system. We are not going to analyse which of the systems is the best but will see some positive aspects of the fiscal system in Italy so we can take them in consideration to apply in our country.

Albania has a flat tax system, Italy has a progressive tax system. In Albania economists build financial statements for small and medium businesses, in Italy financial statements are build for families, individuals and legal entities, small businesses and corporations.

In Albania, the income tax is fixed at 10%, in Italy is progressive from 23-43%.

In Albania, taxable income rate for companies is 10% while in Italy is reduced the rate of income tax to 27.5% in the company.

In Albania, the state does not reimburse never if you are at a loss, while in Italy all the families who present with loss of balance are reimbursed by the state for the fiscal year and if it comes to profit next year may be compensated.

Some problematic area in our country are:

There is no implementation of the annual income tax return. As a result of this we have no family bookkeeping, do not have knowledge of many different costs that affect the financial results of the family, we do not refund in case of exit with loss of families.

There are problems with the tax infrastructure of small and medium businesses which have trade relations with unregistered individuals to the tax authorities. For example are dairy-producing businesses. They buy milk from villagers whose do not issue bills of sale and therefore they do not credited VAT from the purchase made. This situation brought to have more VAT on sales and less VAT from purchase bills every month. So businesses pay more VAT then they should. Bringing a liquidity crisis for a long period. Also not recorded purchase invoice means an expense that is not recorded and recognized in the financial results as a results they pay tax on profit more than it belongs.

Another problem for big businesses is on the recognition of depreciation expense that affects the income tax prepayment. In case of the revaluation of assets is not permitted the depreciation of revalued amount. Also where we have used the assets more than forecasted with the straight-line basis for this part we can calculate depreciation costs but they are not recognized by tax administration more than the rates set by the law.

As you can see in the table of annual income tax declarations, income and expenses are divided into two groups: "recognized by the exercise (accounting) and recognized by the tax authorities. The state (the low) has clearly defined depreciation rates for different groups of property, plants and equipment, for example for buildings the rate is 5%, for intangible assets is 15%, for machinery and equipment 20%, for software 25%, etc. If you look carefully problem lies in the recognition of the costs because if we want to depreciate a property with a higher rate than that defined by the low we will have two amount of expenses as a result, two different results on profit, one according the exercise result and
one according to tax authorities rates of recognition. Due to this we have higher overpaid tax profit in advance. Regardless of how much is the result of exercise for the income tax is taken into account only the profit recognized by tax authorities. As we see, those criteria for some reasons are limiting factors for the development of the businesses that will treat as advantages then to the accelerated depreciation. Also on the table of income tax declaration, we can carefully notice something else. At the end of the table, respective company taken as example has 694,657 ALL income tax overpaid from prior periods (on the debit side of the balance sheet) and despite this, tax authorities has assigned a monthly income tax of 30,000 ALL in advance payment. But due to a very small profit even this year it increase the amount of creditable tax overpaid and to finish this credit account takes time. In other words the government takes businesses’ money, fills the state crates, use them and then turns them back when he want the same thing like the creditable account of the value added tax. In a time where all that overpayment of 877,427 ALL may be able liquidity in the firm to improve the business charges against suppliers, or it might be too invested at an interest rate of x% for all block holding period from tax administration.5

Figure 1.

8. Deductible expenses under Italian tax legislation

According to Italian tax legislation you are entitled to a benefit of 19% discount for medical expenses, passive interest on house loans for the money to repair buildings and even though they are different from the first house (signed in 1997), passive interest on loans ranging from 1998 for the construction or reconstruction of first houses, passive interest for agricultural loans and debts, funeral expenses, school fees and other expenses.

8.1 Medical expenses

For medical expenses, of any type (medical / general, specialist, surgical, pharmaceutical, etc.) have the right to have a tax deduction of 19% after having subtracted the amount of EUR 129.11. Should gather all the expenses incurred and subtract EUR 129.11, the discount up to 19% will be held value. If the expenses incurred during the year do not over the sum of EUR 129.11 you have no rights to any deduction.

5 Mamo, J. “The importance of measurement, recognition and presentation of a group of expenses that although secondary expenses, play an important role in the entity’s financial result” 2013.
8.2 Passive interest on loans

The law here is a little tricky. The deduction is applied to the interest that you must pay on bank. You are entitled to this deduction only when it is the first house purchase and the maximum value of the interest on the loan should not be considered superior to EUR 3615.20 therefore can not be reduced more than to EUR 686.89, equal to 19% of 3615.20 euros.

8.3 Expenditure on education

Expenses that have to pay to attend courses for secondary schools providing instruction or university can receive a 19% discount of the value spent.

8.4 Discounts for first home

If you are the owner of the apartment where you live, you are eligible for a discount versus income tax increased by 5%. If you make the regulation of roofs or entrances, the state returns back to you 50% of the value in 10 years by not paying taxes. If you are a tenant of a house used as a main residence, and your earnings are lower overall than Euro 30,987.41 may have facilitated (discount), which should be note in the income statement. If the contract is in the name of your spouse you have 50% discount for each part.

8.5 Pension contributions or assistance

If you are an employee or an independent entrepreneur, you have to pay contributions predictive and aid provided by law to guarantee pension. If you are the employer must pay employee wages and should pour to the State predictive and welfare contributions belonging. When completes the statement can remove from your income as an entrepreneur or as an independent employee the sum poured for these contributions figure for these contributions have shed. If you have a household employee, you can deduct from comprehensive income, payments made to a limit, a maximum of EUR 1549.37.

9. The present situation of Italian businesses in Albania

Many foreigners, Italian businessman, who come with a great desire to do business in Albania, come with the idea that will find many fiscal facilities to spread their business. Actually in Albania the labor is very cheap and there is so much more taxes in Italy. Therefore, they come and perform in Albania part of the labor and export back to the place where it will be sold, in Italy. They are just having important fiscal policy, strategy and management of taxes in the country. Actually, they face many problems related to the corruption, Albanian culture, employee’s culture and language, tax administration employees etc. We have made progress but we still have more work to do.

10. Recommendation and conclusion

Tax infrastructure should take into consideration to make possible disclosure of personal income and maintaining a family balance sheet. Issued receipts for every service that is paid by the head, which certify payments and documents used as justification for the eligibility of expenditure during construction period.

Tax adequate infrastructure to help the management of small businesses and manufacturing businesses, as a country that is more productive than industrial. We can help local manufacturers to increase welfare more then to import products from abroad at a lower price and quality.

Regarding income tax which is prepaid, hope to change this procedure and firms may pay taxes after reporting sales and purchases and not to prepay an amount greater as it is usually, because it blocks liquidity, which can be used to liquidate suppliers, not to take credit, or put them in deposit placed with interest.

The comparison between the two tax systems, considers that the Italian system offers several advantages compared to our tax system, as in the case of establishing the necessary infrastructure to actual recognition of revenues and expenses and reimbursement of the family balance sheet in case of a loss.
It also offers several facilities that we can also apply, as lower tax rate for businesses that open for the first time, for physical persons who have a talent, a skill, something that produce and sell, or offering their physical service.

On the other hand, the income tax rate for corporations is really higher when in Albania is 10% but it should be noted that Italy has an economic growth much higher than Albania. The differences are very high in taxable income from wages especially. We see that in Albania minimum wage is EUR 150 while the maximum is EUR 650, while in Italy there are other wages much higher as a result of the economic development and the conditions and standards of the European Union.

Reliability, can and should we rely on this quality characteristic of the balance sheet of our economic units. In other words, can we have full credibility that this balance sheet that is submitted to the Tax Department will be the same as the balance sheet submitted to the branch of a bank at the time of a loan application? In fact we know that there are different balance sheets in the Tax Department and different balance sheets in banks and this because the state hasn’t total control in its hand and due to all the problems that the tax system has.

Despite the inherent differences between our two countries, Italian tax system provides some fiscal facilities much larger especially of the lower and middle class more than for the higher layer and for corporations by providing a higher welfare than in Albania. Italy despite undergoing crisis is an example to be taken into account because, above all, is a social state!

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Ancient Routes, New Destinations:
Roman Road Via Sebaste as a Thematic Cultural Route

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Abstract

Thematic cultural routes are becoming more important nowadays in Turkey’s tourism. There are tens of walking routes in Anatolia. These routes are generally between uplands in different regions. Among these routes, there are long distance footpaths based on ancient roads. These are The Lycian Way-509 km, St. Paul Trail-410 km and Hittite Way which is also suitable for cycling-385 km. These routes are all waymarked and pass from historical places from different cultures and periods such as Hittite, Hellenistic, Roman and Turkish periods. St. Paul Trail was marked by Kate Clow and follows the route of St. Paul’s missionary journey. This trail generally uses western branch of Via Sebaste which was built in 6 B.C by Roman emperor Augustus. Starting point of Via Sebaste is Pisidian Antioch and it has two courses. Western course has already been marked and combined with the route of St. Paul’s journey and opened to tourism for back packers. Eastern course is not mentioned very much although it has got more touristic attraction sites. A traveller is going to be able to see the biggest fresh water lake of Turkey, two big stork colonies, prehistoric mounds, monuments from Hittite period, Seljukian mosque, caravanserai and palace and caves of Seydişehir-Derebucak regions on this route. After passing Taurus Mountain ridge the main road reaches to ancient harbour city of Side. Apart from this main route the road has many byways reaching mountainous regions since it was built by military requirements Not only the main route of Via Sebaste but all branches should be determined carefully for tourism purposes. Localising all the road system as a whole is going to enrich tourism facilities. Identifying all byways of Via Sebaste is going to offer many choices for the visitors with its multiple starting and finishing points. This road is a candidate new thematic cultural route with its ornithology, speleology, gastronomy, fishing, cycling opportunities. The aim of this paper is to introduce the Roman road “Via Sebaste” and natural-historical beauties along the road.

Keywords: Via Sebaste, Thematic Cultural Routes, Tourism

1. Introduction

Ecotourism is a “responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people”. This kind of tourism has become very popular nowadays. In addition to its popularity, UN declared 2002 as the International year of Ecotourism. For further support for sustainable development UN declared 2011 as the International Year of Forests. Activities such as; Ornithology, trekking, Highland Tourism, Cave Tourism, Hunting, Diving, Air Sports, Angling, Horse Riding, Cycling, Botany Tourism, Photography, Caravan Tourism can be defined as kinds of ecotourism (Erdoğan 2003:120).

Lake Beysehir (Figure 1) is situated in two national parks, Lake Beysehir and Kızıldağ National Parks. With its natural sources and historical findings nearly all the activities mentioned above can be practised in the lake area and its vicinity. Founded in 1993 Lake Beysehir National Park is the largest national park in Turkey with its 88,750 ha area. Nearby national park, Kızıldağ had been founded in 1969 on an area of 2,316 ha and later it was extended to 59,400 ha in 1993. Area of Lake Beysehir is 650 km² and it is the biggest fresh water lake in Turkey. Wetlands and reedy places around the lake provide a very suitable environment for water birds and other species. Lake Beysehir is a resting place for migratory birds in autumn and spring and also a nesting area for the local birds in summers. Lake Beysehir has been a very important place not only for the birds but also the societies settled in or around the lake. Because there are more than 30 islands in the lake and 15 of them are suitable for settlement. History of the region goes back to as old as Neolithic Age and historical development of the region has continued up to now. Lake Beysehir region has many cultural and historical items representing various ages. And Via Sebaste is a very beautiful route which will be able to combine these assets.
Figure 1: Lake Beysehir in Turkey.

2. Via Sebaste Way

Via Sebaste (Figure 2) is a road network which was built by Augustus in 6 BC to control the Taurus tribes especially the Homonadeis whose mainstay was piracy and to provide communication among Augustan colonies established in the region with defence purposes (Cronin 1902: 109; Levick 1965: 54; Robinson 1924: 436). Via Sebaste does not have one branch but many sideways reaching different parts of the region. This road network has only one name since it was built in the same period with the same purposes (Ramsay 1916: 87). These roads which needed high knowledge of engineering (Mitchell 1995: 126) were generally stone paved (Bahar 2006: 96). Parts of the roads passing mountainous regions are in good condition due to its strong construction and furthermore they have been used by nomadic Turkish tribes nearly until today. Use of these road systems by locals until today has provided some regular reparations and by the help of these reparations the system was not covered by earth and remained on the ground.

By starting from Pisidian Antioch (Yalvac), Via Sebaste reaches Neapolis (Sarkikaraağaç) by following nearly the same course of today’s highway. Then it forks near Huyuk. Left part leads to Iconium (Konya) and right part reaches Misthia (Beysehir) via Kireli. The evidence of the course of right part is a mile stone found in Kireli. Via Sebaste passes Beysehir on Carsamba Spring on which there is a stone bridge from Ottoman period. Cronin had visited Beysehir before the Ottoman Bridge was built and reported stones of Roman Period (Cronin 1902: 105-9). Soon after, Ramsay visited Beysehir after the Ottoman Bridge had been built and he reported the same stones of an older bridge from the same period as well (Ramsay 1924: 200). The road finally reaches notorious ancient city Side via Gembos Plain.

Levick proposed that a side way of Via Sebaste might reach to Adada from a defile of Mount Anamas by following western shores of Lake Beysehir after Sarkikaraağaç (Levick 1967: 15).

The information mentioned above proves that Via Sebaste nearly surrounds all around Lake Beysehir. The only part which Via Sebaste does not pass is between Yesildag and Kurucuova. Transportation by modern road between these two towns is very hard even today due to geographical conditions. But there is a link between Kurucuova and Dumanlı which was used in the past very effectively. Although there is lack of information whether this road was a part of Via Sebaste during Roman period, it is possible that it might be a side way of the road network. Archaeological findings which could be dated to Roman period on this road lead the writer to consider the presence of an ancient road part. But it is clear that this part of the road has been used since Turkish occupation by nomadic Turkish people even if it was not an ancient route. Close relations between Mediterranean people and Beysehir people prove the active use of this road.

3. Historical Places on Via Sebaste

There are a lot of mounds, and ruins in Beysehir on the route of Via Sebaste as there are a lot of them in every corner of Turkey. The interesting thing about Via Sebaste is the historical places on it. They are very famous and unique in terms of their features. A visitor will be able to see these places without leaving the route.

Starting point of Via Sebaste is mentioned above but trekking should start from Beysehir since this point has more advantages than Antiocheia in terms of accommodation and transportation.
3.1 Esrefoglu Mosque, Historical Stone Bridge, Turkish Bath and Ismail Aga Madrasah

Esrefoglu Mosque is situated in İcerisehir, the oldest district of Beysehir (Picture 1). As it is understood from its name, this mosque was built during Esrefoglu Principality in 1299 (Konyalı 1991: 225) and survived up to now by keeping its original form. It’s also famous for its woodworking.

Another historical building contemporary with the mosques is Bedesten or literally the Covered Bazaar. It is still in use and used for exhibitions and meetings. Next to Bazaar is the Turkish Bath and it is also from the principality era and it is also in use for public domain. Ismail Aga Madrasah shares the same square with these historical buildings and was newly restored. The newest historical building among these is the stone bridge of Beysehir. It is from Ottoman period and was a part of first irrigation Project of Ottoman Empire.

3.2 Eflatunpinar and Wolf’s Cradle Hittite Monuments

Eflatunpinar is a Hittite Monument in Sadikhaci Town of Beysehir County (Picture 2). It was built next to a spring and consists of 19 huge stones. These stones were placed vertically and horizontally to form a facade. It has a rectangular shape with 7 m length and 5 m width. This monument is dated to Tuthalia IV. by historians (Darga 1992: 186, Yegül 2009: 101) Wolf’s Cradle is another Hittite period monument in the area (Picture 3). It is the biggest monolithic monument in Turkey and weighs 70 tons. A major god is relieved with two lions and a minor god on the monument (Sevin 2003: 186-7).
Kubad Abad Palace

Kubad Abad was the summer residence of Seljuk sultans on the West coast of Lake Beysehir, at the foot of Anamas Mountain Ridge. Famous Seljukian historian Ibn-i Bibi stated that Seljuk Sultan Alaeddin Keykubat visited western shores of the lake while he was travelling from Kayseri to Antalya via Konya and was fascinated with the scenery of the land and lake and decreed the construction of a summer palace (Arık 2000: 43). Excavations are conducted in the site by Ruchan Arık in summers.

4. Natural Beauties on Via Sebaste

Anyway, Lake Beysehir is a natural beauty itself and Via Sebaste surrounds the beauties of the lake. Every meter of this road meets the demands of different types of visitors. A visitor can watch the famous sunset from any place around the lake at any time of the year, in addition to sunset combination of Taurus Mountains with the lake is worth seeing both in winters and in summers.

4.1 Stork Colonies: Yesildag-Adakoy

Yesildag and Adakoy are small Anatolian towns 30 km away from Beysehir. They are on the Side route of Via Sebaste. Suitable places for the storks are the two cemeteries of the towns (Picture 4). Because there are a lot of old juniper trees in the cemeteries and these trees are ideal for the storks to build their nests. First groups of storks arrive here in early April and they breed here. Flying practices of stork chicks in the air all together are watched by a lot of people. 76 stork nests are used by the storks in 2013 summer. Furthermore, there is a camping area 7km north of these colonies by the lake.
4.2 Pinargozu Cave

Pinargozu Cave is the longest cave in Turkey with 15km length. It is 11 km away from the western shores of Lake Beysehir (Karaca 2005: 127). A spring flows from the cave all the year. It is on the other branch of Via Sebaste which was supposed to reach Adada. From this cave a visitor can reach Lake Eğirdir and take the St Paul Trail.

4.3 Islands of Lake Beysehir

Islands of Lake Beysehir are not known very well since they are situated far away from Beysehir. They are not visible and accessible from the city centre that is why they are not very popular. Among these, on Hacıakif Island there are ruins of storages of the Roman Age. Tek Ada (Lonely Island) is just in the North of Hacıakif Island and it was surrounded by a wall during Hellenistic Period. A visitor can see the ruins of a church on the top of the island. Helimin Island (Helim’s Island) is very close to these islands. There are ruins of large buildings from the time of Seljuk Turks. There is another old church on Keltas Island (Baldstone Island) in the West part of the lake1.

Another important island in this part of the lake is Kızkalesi Island (Girl’s Castle Island). It is across Kubad Abad Palace and used as a dockyard and harem of the palace in Seljuk Era. These islands are very suitable for camping activities since they are very close to western shores of the lake. There are small beaches for swimming on the islands and very favourite places for those who are tired of daily routines2.

5. Other Activities Around Lake Beysehir

5.1 Bird Watching

Beysehir and its environs provide chances for bird watching in every season. Bird watching can be conducted by the help of some equipment like binoculars or spotting scopes in most places. But in Beysehir even in the centrum a visitor can do this activity without a special equipment. Storks, mallards, herons, cormorants, gulls, great crested grebes, coots and various birds can be observed even in the Culture Park in the centrum.

5.2 Angling

Lake Beysehir offers very suitable places for anglers from early April to October. Its most common fish is carp and very delicious when compared with other carps of other sources.

5.3 Paragliding

An area only 5 km away from Beysehir was prepared for paragliding activities three years ago. Take off area is just above a famous picnic area and is becoming very popular among paragliding pilots.

5.4 Photographers Meeting

Photographers meeting is organised by Beysehir Municipality every spring. Both amateur and professional photographers meet in Beysehir for a couple of days to take the most beautiful pictures of the region. It has already been a very important event in the photographers’ calendar.

5.5 Beysehir Culture, Art, Tourism and Lake Festival

Beysehir Culture, Art, Tourism and Lake Festival is held in Beysehir in July for a week. Tens of thousands of people meet in the festival area and participate in the activities. It is now the biggest festival of the Central Anatolia.

6. Conclusion and Suggestions

Via Sebaste, built in 6 B.C is one of the Roman Roads in Anatolia. Parts of the road around Lake Beysehir connect the

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1 For further information about ancient history of Hacıakif, Tek, Helimin and Keltas islands see; Bahar, 2008: 235-254.
2 For the total number of islands in Lake Beysehir see; Eyüboğlu, 1979: 80-83; Alperen, 2001: 11-13.
natural and historical beauties mentioned above. These kinds of beauties and historical diversity are not available on the similar trekking routes. Local people whose main stay is generally fishing are going to earn much from tourists when this road is opened to tourism. The studies which have to be conducted to use this road for tourism purposes are:

- Exact route of Via Sebaste should be determined on the land. Survived parts of original road should be revealed. A new route based on Via Sebaste should be established.
- At least two village rooms\(^3\) have to be re-organised and restored on the route. Villages should be determined carefully by considering their position on the route.
- Original Mile Stones of Via Sebaste showing the distance from Antiocheia (Yalvac) should be found and demonstrated on the route and the inscriptions should be translated into Turkish and other languages.
- Imitations of mile stones should be erected on the route showing the distance from Beyşehir.
- Paths should be built on the route by using natural materials.
- Some signboards should be prepared to inform the visitors about the plants of the region.
- Some maps should be prepared on the route to show where the visitor is.
- Signboards for giving information about the water birds of the lake should be prepared along the route.
- Some places should be determined for fishing and these places should be prepared for this purposes.
- Camping areas on the islands should be prepared and essential precautions should be taken against forest fire.
- Suitable boats should be determined for the transportation to the islands and enough life vests should be provided.
- Stork colonies or some of the stork nests should be broadcasted by webcams in order to attract the attention of the bird watchers.
- Places of villagers producing traditional dairy products should be shown on the maps in order to meet them with the visitors for selling their products.

References

Ramsay, W. M. (1916). Colonia Caesarea (Pisidian Antioch) in the Augustan Age. JRS. 6, 83-134.

\(^3\) Village Rooms: They are the rooms in the villages in which the villagers meet or host their visitors. Generally there are more than one room in every village in Anatolia. Visitors do not pay for dining and accommodation and there is no time limit for staying. These rooms were very active 20-30 years ago due to lack of transportation possibilities. They were the symbols of Anatolian-Turkish hospitality.
Albanian “Bologna”
How close/far is Albanian Higher Education to European standards?

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Abstract

Bologna process brought many important changes in the Albanian higher education system. The main objective of the Bologna system of higher education is to achieve European standards in access as well as the quality of the studies. Higher education system in Albania appears to be reformed on the basis of published and already accepted standards in member countries of the European Higher Education Area, making it comparable and compatible with other European systems of higher education. Significant results so far speak for its positive influence and it has open new perspectives towards a European quality education of the Albanian students. However, there are still challenges and difficulties. The purpose of this paper is to present a comprehensive analysis of the European higher education legislation; the study of some essential elements of this system as the financing system of universities, ECTS, and recognition/non-recognition of Albanian degrees in European countries, in order to define how close/far is Albanian Higher Education System to the European standards.

Keywords: European legislation, higher education, ECTS, mobility, diploma recognition etc.

1. Introduction

In 2012, the higher education panorama results to be transformed due to Bologna System/Process. All the Member States of this process have realized significant changes that have facilitated the European High Education Area (Ehea/Heal) to be better determined by laying down the foundations for a higher education which will fulfill the ongoing increasing requests of the society. The higher education structures have changed: developing in principle stable systems of quality and the mechanisms to facilitate the mobility of both students and the docents. Furthermore, the current issues are already defined and projected in a social dimension of Higher Education. Such a project, unprecedented in itself, based on volunteer cooperation, separation and implementation of common objectives of the Higher Education systems of the 47 member states. Albania is one of those states that have signed and implemented Bologna Agreement. Nowadays, Albania is a member of NATO and aspires to receive the Status of candidate country to the European Union. Certainly, this huge step, on the one hand requires the consolidation of democracy, a considerable economic development, constant battling against poverty, and on the other hand, it obligates the approximation of the legislation framework in the field of education in comply with the international and European standards.

In years, in the conferences and the meetings of the ministers, it is underlined the fact that Europe should face with the global dynamic economy, based on knowledge, capable to deal with the economic increase by means of more modern and complementary actions, as well as a stronger social cohesion. The goal of these structures is preservation of the cultural richness and language diversity, based on the diversity of the assets and the inherited traditions from different cultural groups. Particularly, in the Ministers Conference of the Education in Berlin (2003), where the ministers accepted the Albanian request to be included in Bologna Process, they declared that membership means a fundamental reform for all the signing countries, approximation of the legislation and creation of a common space, open and flexible for the Higher Education.

Nowadays, it is already a fact, that Bologna Process has brought very important changes in the Albanian Higher Education. The main goal for the Albanian Higher Education is achieving European standards in access and studying quality, too. The Albanian higher education System seems to be reformed based on the standards determined and already accepted in all the member countries of the European Higher Education Zone (EHEA) making it comparable and in compliance with the other European Higher Education Systems. This reformation has involved all the links of the
system and one of the greatest achievements of this reformation is its massive character, like in the whole world, as the Higher Education does not any more belong to the elite. 2002 marked the beginning of Private Higher Education in our country. Since then, the number of higher education institutions and the number of the study programs is obviously increased, and the rapid increase of the number of students from 2005 up to now has accomplished its objective to become massive. Being in front of this fast growth, this process has also brought forth a number of problems that converge in a single point that is the quality. The current results demonstrate its positive impact and also create new perspectives for all the Albanian students towards the European qualitative education. Nevertheless, its problems in our country are numerous.

2. The whole European legal framework and in particular Bologna System’s covered by its historical raiment

An increasing world toward the economic interdependence, culture and communication still needs "pole positions" and transparent, discussions and clearly defined policies that are at the same level with the new social situation and above all capable of designing creative and functional mechanisms. In the recent decades, at the level of the international institutions, it is gradually raised the awareness that the deep economic and socio-cultural changes consolidate the future of the society. This perspective has particularly become evident in the 10-years reports of UNESCO, in the resolutions of the European Council in the field of education and culture as well as in documents related to the various stages that have marked the development of the European Union. Especially, at the level of the European Union, it is confirmed the conviction that the future of the continent can not be based only on economic aspects, but it is necessary to deal with the deep cultural, social and technological evolution, innovation taking place nowadays worldwide (Scurati - Bocca 1999). To cope with these changes, it is essential that the education process provided for the future generations should be reviewed deeply.

In fact, the education and the professional formation discipline has never been on of the fields where, according to the treaties, the European Community has had reliable legislative competence. As it is well-known, the Community’s competences were extended in four primary fields like: free flow of goods, free movements of people, services, and capitals; thus education was not part of these policies. Traditionally, the university has evaluated in Europe inside the borderlines of each State – Nation, although the consequences were mainly connected to: differentiation, in a specific way, has been the main barrier to the transparency, clarity and mobility: cooperation that was reduced to personal relationships and a limited number of bilateral agreements. Beginning from mid '80-s, the European Union has started some successful programs aiming at strengthening the international cooperation and above it was made possible the mobility of more than 100.000 students a year.

The first initiative in this field goes back to 1984, the year when it was drafted the instrument to support the research and the development at community level called “multi-annual framework program for research and technological development ESPRIT” which has fixed periodical scientific and technological objectives through which it aims at the increase of the international competition as well as it has shown the general lines of action to achieve these objectives.

Immediately, after four years on 18 September 1988, the European University Rectors, gathered in Bologna, at the 900th anniversary of the foundation of the first university of that city, signed Magna Charta Universitatum1. In that document, it is sanctioned some principles that are later incorporated in the Declaration of 1999. It is sanctioned, for example, that humanity future greatly depends on the cultural, scientific and technical development that takes place in the centers of culture, knowledge and research; it is reaffirmed the principle by which the universities, cults of tradition, European humanism, but with the commitment to reach universal knowledge, developing their functions, they overcome the geographical or political borders and affirm the necessary need for mutual understanding and interaction of cultures; among the manners to achieve these objectives, it shows the professors and students mobility and believes that a general unified and constant policy regarding the status, academic titles and exams (meanwhile it is guaranteed the recognition of the international diplomas), and represents an important instrument to assure practicing of the actual mission of the Universities.

The European Community hereafter determined the education and the professional formation as one of its main goals. There are precisely the articles (ex-articles) 149 and 150 of the foundation Treaty of the European Community that provided the EU the general competence to draft norms and stimulating actions in the field of education and the professional qualification. These dispositions in explicit way excluded “the harmonization of whatever legislative

1 See the full text of Magna Charta in www.unibo.it/avl/charta/charta.htm
disposition or regulations of the member states”, leaving it to the member states themselves.

The Article 149 TKE (actually incorporated in the article 165 TFBE) offered the contribution of the European Community in the development of the qualitative education with the support and the fulfilling of the policies of the member states in connection with the teachings contents and organization of the education system, respecting their language and cultural diversity. While the article 150 (actually incorporated in the article 165 TFBE) of the EC treaty contemplated the creation of a policy on the professional formation that reinforces and fulfills the member states policies, respecting completely the responsibility of the latest regarding the substance and organization of the professional training.

Another important moment before Bologna Declaration is “Lisbon Convention” approved on 11 April 1997. In this document, it are specified the fundamental principles and the comparable credits in the studying programs in relation to the time and the activities, the academic titles and the recognition procedures of diplomas, as well as of the qualification certificates of Higher Education in the European area, to facilitate the academic mobility among the different countries. The convention, respecting the autonomy of the different countries institutions, aims to establish a common system of diplomas and academic titles bestowed at its end easily readable and comparable. Based on these principles, the Convention is traversed by the goal to facilitate it, thus, for the citizens of every Union Country, the access in each country's education system.

Another important moment in the architecture of the system mentioned above, constitutes Sorbonne Declaration, signed on 25 May 1998, made by the initiative of the Education Ministers of France, Germany, United Kingdom and Italy, aiming at harmonizing of the European high education architecture. In this declaration, it was stressed the importance of the transformation of the higher education system aiming giving it a new cultural dimension to all the European universities in the European Zone and the need of a positive convergence of all the diplomas and their cycles inside the EU. In the meantime, in EU, it is also confirmed, in factual manner, a real current labor market inside EU, which requires from the education and training system, especially from the higher education, adequate process to the young and the adults (Malizia 2005). In this context, almost everyone agree that “strategic resource” – as it is determined in the international documents, in the experts' language – is, and will always remain the man, especially the man who knows how to presume and invest all his cognitive, creative and ethic potential.

In this prism, the European Union Council, with the recommendation of 24 September 1998, no. 98/561/Ce15, has recommended the Member States to support and when it is suitable, to create a transparent evaluation of the higher education quality; to encourage when it is appropriate, the higher education institutions, in cooperation with the respective departments of the member states to approve the right controlling measurements; to invite the competent authorities and higher education institutions to give special importance to the exchange of experience and the cooperation in the quality evaluation with the other member states and the international organizations, as well as the associations operating in the field of higher education; to promote the cooperation between the responsible authorities on the quality evaluation or assurance of in the higher education and to encourage their inclusion inside the net. The Council also asked the European Commission to undertake measures to encourage the cooperation among the responsible authorities on the evaluation and assurance quality in the higher education and the integration of the organizations and associations of higher education institutions with a European spirit which have the experience requested for the evaluation and assurance of the quality.

Immediately after that, in 19 June 1999, as it is already well known, in Bologna, the Education Ministers of the 29 States signed Bologna Declaration, which had as the main objective and as a priority creation of the European Higher Education Area, promotion of the European cooperation in quality assurance in order to create comparing criteria and methodologies.

In response to the stimulus of the Recommendation of the European Union Council and in Bologna Declaration, in 2000, is was established the European net for quality assurance of higher education, later called European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (EAQA/ENQA). The aim of ENQA is to encourage the cooperation in the field of university quality assurance through various European agencies, national public authorities and Academic Institutions.

Actually, members of EQNA are all agencies for the higher education quality and accreditation of Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Holland, Norway, Poland, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and United Kingdom.

Another fact to keep in mind is what happened immediately after the Bologna Declaration at the European Union, was the extraordinary meeting of the European Counsel in Lisbon in 2000, where important resolutions were taken about

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2 See the full text of Lisbon Convention in www.conventions.coe.int

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the fields related to the education, for, (then), the 15 Member States and now with its extension for all the Member States in EU. This meeting precursor to the one in Koln (04-05 June 1999), represents the moments when the politics and economics field have lighted the fire of the European collaboration, the convergence fire of the European pact for employment.

Based on this signed pact, over a general social and economical vision, it comes to Lisbon meeting, with the focus on the theme: toward an innovated Europe and knowledge, with the aim naturally to the launch of the formation policies. With this the European chairmen, of he States and their Government formulate a common strategic goal economical-politic of UE that is accomplish in 2010” to be more competitive the economics and more dynamic in the world „able for establish growth, with more jobs and more quality, including a bigger social cohesion”. meaning, in other words, to create a space, with more interaction: Educational and training policies in order to live and work in a society of knowledge, an active strategic policy of employment, modernizing protection social policies, and promoting of the social layer policies.

In the Council and European Commission the Education Sector is now known as a priority field of the Lisbon Strategy. The European Council of Lisbon held in dates: 23-24 March 2000 has as establish goal of Europe as the most competitive and dynamic force in the world, finding also useful to use innovative and new possibilities of the market and the particular moment of the Internet. This demonstrate the fact of general aims are made and taken decisions after studying and discussing a detailed program of jobbing and the initiatives that fulfill the challenges for sapience of the society and the globalization. In this line, European Institutions are creating quite a number of aims in Education and formation, to still achieve it in the year 2010. And all these processes are well linked with the Bologna Process that not only including the Member States but also other European states not yet in the Union. The main contents are like: Higher quality in Education and formation, Europe must be a wide world reference about quality and connection with its systems and its institutions, regarding those of Education and formation, the Education System and the Formation in Europe must be in accordance with each other to give a possibility to the citizens flow and take advance from their diversity, all of them who owns the qualifications, knowledge, and skills won all over Union European, will effectively guide the through all the UE for the aim of their carrier and their further studies. The Lisbon Pact also forms the main base for the revitalizing the Education and formation putting in principle some priorities: the development of the teaching along lifetime, taking a special overview the poor lays, the investment over the human resources, the growth of the Education level for the youth and offering a wide gamma of possible trainings, defining of the main specific skills, the increasing of the flow, including appropriate stimulus, the improving of job conditions regarding youth through alternative systems, including the old generation, encouraging the teaching/learning through a lifetime.

It must be stressed, that the sentence, verdicting, 253/200/KE of European Union Parliament and the Council that built “Socrates”, a Community action program, in which could be realize a qualitative Education through common collaborating actions through the States, the student/professors flow inside the EU, the organized projections the creation of the European nets, the preparing studies and comparing analyzes.

In this context the European Council held in 5-6 May 2003 have shown some referring parameters for Education and Professional Formation to achieve it at 2010, we can underline here: the reduction of the abandonment f the school inside a average percentage like 10%, the completing of the pre-university cycle of 85% of the population, and the teaching/learning lifetime process.

It is valuable to mention the document: Education at glance: OECD, Indicators 2005 that could be taken as an indicated mirror of the general state of Education in European level containing a number of comparing indicators and learned over the advancing of the Education systems to the 30 States of that time.

While in Europe still continue to work over the creation of European Space of the High Education (HEAL), and harmonizing the architecture of the various national universities systems, at the other hand nowadays is still in progress the project for the Development of Scientific European Zone (ERA). The ministers of the participating State, now 47, meet every two years, to value the results achieved, and securing a continuous information in the process, creating the priorities and achievements for the next two years. After the first meeting in Bologna (1999) the ministers met in Prague in 2001, Berlin 2003, Bergen 2005, London 2007, Louvein 2009, Wien-Budapest 2010 and this year in Bucharest 2012. 

The next meeting will take place in Armenia in 2015.

In the periods during minister conferences a main role was achieved by the so called group “Bologna Follow-Up Group”, that gathers twice a year and is represented by all the signing States and the Union European Commission, European Council, Education International Pan-European Structure - ENQA, ESU, (representing students organ) EUA (European university association), EURASHE (representing the non-university structure), UNESCO-CEPES and Business Europe (the Industrials Confederation) that act as council members. At last, some seminars so called “Bologna” are held every year in different countries discussing issues linked to this subject and the process, to analyze...
the remaining obstacles and propose new ways of collaborations. Every biennial ministerial meeting ends with a declaration, in which ministers accept the achieved agreement and the new steps are taken for the creation of the European High Education Zone.

In the context just described comes out the Constitutional Pact that could not be ratified, that defined the article I-3 through the objections, scientific and technologic progress, respecting the cultural and language diversity, for the storage and the development of cultural heritage, the protection of the children rights.

Among the dispositions of the general implementation, article III-117-just introduced-predicted, that in specific defining and implementation of its policies European Union, keeps in advance, the requests linked to promoting of the employment and the social adequate protection, the battle against the social exclusion, and also a higher level of Education, Professional Formation, and the Protection of Human Health.

containing of the disposition is included in the Lisbon Treaty that entered in power on 1st December 2009. Title XII called: “Education, Professional Formation, Youth and Sport” and in particular in the article 165 TFBE and article 166 TFBE.

Article 165 textually states:

1. The Union contributes to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organization of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity.

The Union contributes to the promotion of European sporting issues, while taking account of the specific nature of sport, its structures based on voluntary activity and its social and educational function.

2. The Union action aims at:
   - developing the European dimension in education, particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of the Member States,
   - encouraging mobility of students and teachers, by encouraging inter alia, the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study,
   - promoting cooperation between educational establishments,
   - developing exchanges of information and experience on issues common to the education systems of the Member States,
   - encouraging the development of youth exchanges and of exchanges of social educational instructors, and encouraging the participation of young people in democratic life in Europe,
   - encouraging the development of distance education.
   - developing the European dimension in sport, by promoting fairness and openness in sporting competitions and cooperation between bodies responsible for sports, and by protecting the physical and moral integrity of sportsmen and sportswomen, especially the youngest sportsmen and sportswomen.

3. The Union and the Member States shall foster cooperation with third countries and the competent international organizations in the field of education and sport, in particular the Council of Europe.

4. In order to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to in this Article,:
   - the European Parliament and the Council, acting in accordance with the ordinary legislative procedure, after consulting the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, shall adopt incentive measures, excluding any harmonization of the laws and regulations of the Member States,
   - the Council, on a proposal from the Commission, shall adopt recommendations.

Article 166 TFBE textually states:

1. The Union shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content and organization of vocational training.

2. Union action aims at:
   - facilitating the adaptation to industrial changes, in particular through vocational training and retraining,
   - improving initial and continuing vocational training in order to facilitate vocational integration and reintegration into the labor market,
   - facilitating access to vocational training and encourage mobility of instructors and trainees and particularly young people,
   - stimulate cooperation on training between educational or training establishments and firms,
   - develop exchanges of information and experience on issues common to the training systems of the
Lately, some mechanisms are approved and defined with financial character as the Framework Program (2002-2006), achieving the goals. In fact, these articles determine and define the sum of the financial contribute of the Community.

The actions supported for the research and development in a Comminatory level are based on the KE treaty (ex 163-173 articles), throughout which as aimed an increased International concurrence. The action of those instruments as mentioned above is the “multi-annual framework program for research and technologic development”, which has fixed periodical scientific and technologic goals that should be achieved demonstrating the general lines of the action itself in achieving the goals. In fact, these articles determine and define the sum of the financial contribute of the Community. Lately, some mechanism are approved and defined with financial character as the Framework Program (2002-2006), FP7 (continuing) in which the researching priorities are chosen from the process. Every Program has a budget of million Euros that serve for the structuring of the submitted project presented (from the universities, researching institutes, small and large entrepreneurs) and tend to involve multiple partners from different countries. In date 18 May 2000 The European Commission approved the Communiqué “toward a European Zone of research”, quite a question of the EU future action in this field, it’s aim being the help in improvement of general frame of the European research. The European Council in Lisbon has decided the goal for the Community to be more competitive in world until 2010 based on knowledge, while The European Council of Barcelona in March 2002 has identified its goals in the achievement of verge of 3% of PBB’s expenditure for researching and development from the UE till the year 2010, prognosticating about two third of the sources invested in the research(2% of the PBB) should come from the private sectors. The Constitution Treaty [article III.248], introduced the creation of a European researching space, in which the researchers, the scientific and technologic knowledge could rotate, move along, freely, in order to reinforce and strengthen the scientific and technologic foundations. Based on the Treaty, policies and EU actions should encourage the development of the concurrence, including the Industry, promoting all types of activities, and researching activities, considered basically necessary, from what the heads of the Treaty have been drawing and indicted. For this purpose to happen, EU encourages all the enterprises, researching centers and Universities in their scientific research, their activities of technologic development of high quality. The European Space of Research is characterized, on other hands, for its connection among the excellent centers net to the creation of virtual centers, and their interactive creative usage. Additional elements are given, added, through the mutual approval in connection with the needs, and the financial tools over the huge researching objects in Europe, and also the implementation coordinated more widely over the national researching programs and the invigorating of the relationship between different Organizations and European cooperation. Besides this, the European Space of Research aims to promote the investments in the private fields, which presuppose the effective guarding of the intellectual domain, interposition that encourages the creation of business and investment in capitals. In this context, the European Commission approved in 11 March 2005, a recommendation [2005/251/EC], linked to the European Card of the scientific researchers a Conduct Code for the recruitment. The document started from the premises of the fact that the Employer or the financiers must assure the legislative application [request] of the nation and assure the Member States and the researcher a mean to be taken, in a volunteer base, further initiations to advance and grow in the profession of the researcher in the EU and the creation of an open labor market. The recommendation aims at defining the ways and means in order to contribute to an open labor market, attractive, open and stable for all the scientific researchers where there are suitable conditions for the recruiting and employing of the scientific researchers of high quality profile, in a favorite environment. The Member States should provide the researchers stable systems for the development of their career in all its stages, although their contracting situation, and the career ways chosen and assure that the researchers should be treated like projectionists and be considered a component part of the Institutions where they are working. The implementation of Card guarantees that the nature of the relationship among the actors favors success in connection with the production, transferring, separation and distribution of the scientific and technological knowledge. At last, regarding the evaluation system, the Card recommends that the employers and/or the financiers, should approve, for all the researchers including also the
experienced researchers, evaluation system that can provide an independent commission in order to estimate/evaluate periodically and transparently their professional services, considering their general creation in research and results, publications, for instance: patents, teaching management, research and lectures, surveillance, national or international cooperation, administrative tasks, activities to raise public awareness and mobility. These aspects should be considered for the career development. While the behavior code aims at recruiting, identification of simple and transparent procedures as well as to propose different selection criteria: "the merit should not be considered only with the number of publications but taking into account a larger number of criteria like: teaching, the skill to coordinate a scientific research group, work group, the skill to transmit and transfer the knowledge, leading activities, etc.

3. The colons of the research in Bologna process:

3.1 The fundamental principles

The Higher Education Law No. 9741, dated 21.5.2007 "On the higher education in the Republic of Albania", amended by the laws No. 9832, dated 12.11.2007, No. 10 307, dated 22.7.2010, has determined in compliance with the European standards the fundamental principles where it is based. The Law, in particular, aims to define the mission, the key goals of higher education and to regulate aspects of the creation, organization, management, administration, financing, quality assurance in the higher education institutions, in comply with the European standards. While the mission of higher education is: to create, to transmit, to protect and to develop knowledge through teaching, scientific research and service; to educate senior specialists and prepare young scientists; to provide opportunities to benefit from the higher education throughout life; to help the economic development at national and regional levels; to contribute in raising the standards of democracy and society civilization and in preparation of the young people for such a society (Article 2). Regarding the basic principles of this legislative, it is worthwhile to mention that they are described in some colons.

Firstly, the higher education institutions have autonomy and academic freedom. The autonomy of the higher education institutions is expressed in: a) their self governance to organize their internal structures and their activities, through statutes and regulations drafted according to this Law and other legal acts in power; b) the right to design and develop independent study programs and research projects; c) the right to set the criteria for accepting the students in the study programs; d) the right to raise funds and benefit material means in comply with the rules in power, as well as the right to carry out independent agreements with the government or other organizations for training, qualifications or research projects; e) the right to carry out agreements with institutions, business associations or other organizations, domestic or foreign, public or private; f) the right to administer the public funds and other incomes, which they possess as it is determined in the law. The academic freedom of higher education institutions is expressed in the freedom of teaching, freedom of scientific research, freedom of creation, according to the dispositions of this law. Higher education in Albania is developed in compliance with the rules and the principles of European Higher Education Zone (Article 3).

Higher education is public or private. It is offered by higher education institutions, established, operating and accredited according to this law. Higher education institutions are legal persons, public or private, their rights and their obligations are determined in the act of their establishment.

Bologna system in our country is now compulsory for all the institutions of higher education. This is clearly expressed in the higher education law, amended according to which, Article 83 states: "Public institutions of higher education, which were established before the entry into power of this law, should reorganize their internal structuring and the study programs according to this law, within one year of its entry into power" while the requirements for opening a new private institution of higher education, submitted before the entry into force of this law (2007), are reviewed in comply with the standards, the procedures and the terms defined in the laws and the acts that come out for its implementation (Article 84). The law on the reorganization of the private institutions of higher education has left a deadline for the reorganization within three years (Article 85). From this point of view, the system has turned to an obligation for all the institutions of higher education, thus disrespecting the principle based on the element 'optional' upon which Bologna Process is based. The other elements such as the ECTS system, the graduation system, students’ and docents’ mobility, the accreditation system, etc., are basically in full compliance with Bologna system, as in the other European countries.

3.2 ECTS system and the graduation system

One of the advantages of the higher education reform in Albania since 2003, it is the implementation of the European System of Credit Transfer System (ECTS). This system performs the evaluation and comparison of the achievements of
studying as well as aims not only to transfer from one university to another within the country but also providing the academic recognition of studies abroad. In this way, ECTS is one of the basic instruments for achieving and implementing the Bologna reforms. In our country, at the beginning it was the University of Tirana which took the initiative for the construction of credit system, creating new curricula expressed in ECTS credits, since 2003, so that since the signing of Bologna agreement. This was the first significant step of recognizing the Albanian universities in the European network of higher education. Other universities in the country started implementing a system of credits during the academic year 2005-2006. With special instruction of MES end of the academic year 2005-2005 the list of grades accompanying the diploma, reflect not only national assessment marks but also the expression of cases and assessments of credits according to ECTS system as a whole. Also, in terms of the graduation system, according to the Guidelines of the Ministry of Education, higher education for the full duration, a semester is approximately 30 ECTS credits, while an academic year is approximately 60 ECTS credits. University Degree with full length contains 180 credits. The credits are considered earned in case when the student is assessed with passing mark in the relevant subject.

3.3 Students' Mobility

Among the common policy objectives determined in the agenda of the European Council of Lisbon, it is worthwhile to mention: promoting of the mobility of the university students and its staff in the field of education and research (preventing the barriers for greater transparency in recognition of the qualifications and the periods of study and training); drafting of a common European format "curriculum vitae" that can be used voluntarily for movement.

3.4 Scientific Research

Scientific research is thought that one of the weaknesses of higher education in Albania. In the wave of discussions for reforming of Higher Education and scientific research, it was carried out the melting of the Academy of Sciences. In practical terms, this means its transformation from a higher institution of research in an institution that no longer engages in scientific research, because the Academy became 'honorific'. From this time on, in Albania there are not any research institutes under the authority of the Academy, and there are not any public or semi-public research institutes. In this situation, the scientific research is exclusively concentrated in universities or centers within the universities. In this direction, currently there is not a single and truly politically independent institution, an institution developed on its bases, agile and versatile, reliable and evaluated by the Albanian society. In this direction, the scientific research can not be left only in the hands of the universities because this new tradition does not coincide with the traditions of the European countries that we confidently follow.

4. Instead of the conclusions: the problems in Albania, some "fixable"

The research question raised at the beginning of this study, thus: how close or far is the higher education in Albania to the European standards, can not have a satisfactory answer or to be more precise correct, complete in all the key elements that constitute the higher education, but only in principle and in some of its essential elements. In principle, the higher education in Albania is approaching European standards, as in the drafting of the laws and sub-legal acts as well as in the main delineation or main directions that the European countries already have. The legislation obligates the higher education institutions to be confirmed towards these laws including public institutions as well as non-public ones. In this direction, our country has made the system compulsory, unlike the spirit that pervades the Bologna Process.

In connection with the credit system and the graduation system, we can mention again the same result: these systems are basically in compliance with the European standards. If problems should be identified, these find expression in the number of educational programs, in their diversity and not always in comply with the labor market in Albania.

In connection with the scientific research, it can not be said that it is realized in full compliance with the European standards. Currently, there are the universities those which are leading the situation and seek to benefit from the state funds, regional funds or of European Union or of private investors to develop projects that are in their masterplan. Regarding this, if on one hand they can be considered strong poles for attraction of funds for the development of important projects, on the other hand, it can not be said that the scientific research can be left alone in this platform, so, therefore, the part of the legislation on the scientific research should be revised, as well as the whole structure on the scientific research institutions should be reorganized.

On the other hand, one of the objectives of the participating countries participating in the Bologna process, their
number has gone to 47, is that by 2020, around 20% of the students should have study experience in a foreign institution. Thus, it is required by then, the so called students’ mobility should be realized. This objective will be achieved when the students provided with such general competencies, where the English language is priority, as the language of global communication, without underestimating the other languages. The reality of the actual study programs in most of our universities is still far from accomplishment of this objective. It is necessary to harmonize the programs within the country, later at regional and European level, in order to achieve the whole Albanian objective, that of integration and involvement in the global market. The study programs should be reviewed through all the cycles, to reduce the number of those in Bachelor level, to increase the number of professional Master programs and the research elements should extend in all the cycles, starting with what is applied and continuing further more with deep researches, especially in Masters of Science and doctorates (PhDs). Today, it is required that the students should be prepared with general and specific competencies for their profession, based on research and innovation, because that is necessary for the economic and social development of the country. In the conclusion of this paper, it is worthwhile to mention that the problems our country faces are not dictated by the Bologna Process in itself, or by the system itself. They are dictated and amplified by the Albanian reality, by the nature and the behavior of the Albanian society, and above all by the main actors who “build” day by day the Bologna system in our country. Despite the lacunae or the problems that associate this process, it should be stressed that these are problems that can be willfully and easily overcome and could lead to further improvement of the higher education system in Albania.

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System and Form of Kosovo Pension Fund

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Abstract

In this submission is presented Kosovo Pension Fund starting from forming the Fund, model, system of work, management, forms of investments, successes and the benefits from this Fund. Data and information used for this paper are based on reports of Trust management, financial reports, publications, foreign literature and experiences. Data are checked and researched for their validation and update. In this survey conclusion is likely to be made that Kosovo Pension Fund from its forming till current days, has operated and functioned in proper and safe way during fluctuating periods of times.

Keywords: Pensin Found, Cotributors, Global Financial Crisis, Kosovo Central Bank, (OECD)

1. Introduction

Kosovo after war conflict in 1999 and NATO intervention, was established UN Administration and later in 2008 declared itself as independent state, during this period of time Kosovo founded Pension savings trust (Trusti). Kosovo's previous pension Funds accumulated during Yugoslav governance was looted from Serbian regime. In these circumstances Kosovo founded pension system and begin with covering beneficiaries of pension starting from age of 65 years old with benefit of 45 €. From other point of view this amount was more as social help than a pension benefit, however this amount were delivered to all persons older than 65 years without exception ex contributors or non contributors. In 2002 after founding pension trust to ex contributors were denied right to access in their contributes because that fond was already looted from Serbian regime however new founded trust didn't follow experience of other regional countries - first pillar of system pension “Pay as you go” (PAYG), pillar which uses actual gatherings from contribution and delivers to actual beneficiaries, therefore with the Law amending Unmik regulation 2005/20 amending UNMIK regulation No. 2001/35 on Kosovo pension trust was established on behalf of system of investments. With this law automatically ex contributors of ex pension fund were excluded from benefit of new Kosovo pension trust.

Kosovo mandatory pension schemes cover all salaried employers and self-employed persons, including farmers. BQK (Kosovo central bank) as supreme supervisory body of payment's in Kosovo, therefore licensed two pension funds which contain estimated value of 13.4% of GDP. These funds are “Trusti” containing around 18% of total assets value and pension found “Slovenia-Kosovo” containing 0.6% of total assets value.

2. Kosovo pension saving trust – TRUSTI

Kosovo Pension savings trust (Trusti) has been established in august 2002 to administer and manage mandatory and voluntary pension contributions of Kosovo’s employers. Trust is governed by the Board of Directors, which consists of: five professional members with at least 10 years of professional pension expertise; two representative members, one of the other employers and employees; a representative of the Government, without voting rights, and an international representative of the International Civilian representative (ICO). All Board members are appointed by the Assembly with a 3-year term, with possibility of reelection. If the mandate of a member of the Board expires and no new member is appointed, the existing Board member will continue the mandate for ninety days.

Kosovo pension found “Trusti” is supervised by Kosovo Central Bank (BQK). Trust is made in that form that does give individually reports to contributors. Administration of these incomes is under legal responsibility of Trust. Even if the deposits are private, they can be drawn only after retirement.

All inputs in trust are invested in that way that the beneficiaries will enjoy better pension and higher income. But because of the crisis during 2008 with effect in whole World Market, this found was influenced from it and gain loss for contributors as most of this investments have been done in World Markets.

The Trust is entitled to invest and manage resources, according to the law.
Law no. 04/L-101 on Pension Funds of Kosovo gives KPST the authority and the rights of a management trustee over Pension Assets (Section 5.1), and the rights of the Trust with respect of Pension Assets shall include but not be limited to (Section 5.2):

- Conducting a selection of Asset Manager(s), Custodians, or Open-end Vehicles in accordance with this Law;
- Executing agreements with the Asset Manager(s), Custodians, Open-end Vehicles, Accountants, Auditors, Attorneys and other service providers of the Trust;
- Demanding and receiving information from Asset Managers, Open-end Vehicles and Custodians and other service providers with respect to all transactions on behalf of the Trust including the voting of shares of stock held by the Trust;
- Adopting investment principles for the Trust;
- Removing and replacing Asset Managers, Open-end Vehicles, Custodians and other service providers of the Trust;
- Paying the proceeds of Individual Accounts for Savings Pensions to Annuity providers for the purpose of purchasing Pensions for Participants and Beneficiaries in accordance with this Law;
- Entering into agreements for the purchase, sale, lease or rental of real property or equipment necessary for the operation of the Trust;
- Hiring executive and non-executive personnel for the Trust;
- Entering into insurance agreements, including Fiduciary indemnity insurance for the Governing Board, with insurance companies licensed in Kosovo or in the member states of the OECD;
- Preparing a budget to be approved by the Governing Board;
- Charging reasonable fees on a cost basis to each Participant for the administration of Individual Accounts as approved by the Assembly on annual basis. Such fees shall not exceed 0.30% per annum, pro-rated over the year depending on the frequency of unit price calculation, and shall only be applied on invested pension assets; and
- Reimbursing all other actual expenses related to the investment of pension assets, including but not limited to: transfer charges, asset management fees and performance fees from Participant funds.¹

3. Management of Pension Fund

Management of funds is foreseen and invested in a way that ensures better and safe return of assets. The trust had a positive return of assets since year 2002 with exception of year 2008. Because of Global Financial Crisis price of the shares had been reduced from 1.2184 € in December 2007, and it have been marked 29.40% fall on shares.

On next picture is given table with price movement's form 2002 till 2013.

![Graph of stock price movement from 2002 to 2013](image_url)

Fig.1. price of stock 2002 – 2013²

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As shown on this graphic, price of shares has had growth since until 2008 therefore in 2009 cause of Global Financial Crisis had an impact on fall of share value followed by lose, however in second period of 2009 Trust continue having slow rise on share's.

Trust found since the first investment done in February 2003 when were invested 13 mil. € on short term on marker through intermediation ABN AMRO, and after considering as safe and reliable investment, on next year were invested full 100% assets on same market. In the first period of year 2005, the investments of Trust were involved on shares (through Vanguardit), bonds (Schroders) and in credit markets (European Credit Management) beginning from second period of year 2006, while in December of 2007 on this portfolio were involved investments of value exchange (FX Concepts and Aurel Capital Management). In first period of year 2008, governing board made a decision to places on local banks some of their assets. In 2010 assets deposited in Pro Credit Bank (5 Mil €) were withdrawn after canceling agreement between. Other withdrawn was made from European Credit – Luxi found in management of ECM since 2011, this decision is been approved after considering and foreseeing incensement of risk.

Management during 2011 changed strategy of investments when a decision was made to invest 40% on share hold markets and other 60% in financial institutions with absolute return. These percentages were concluded after analyzing situation of incoming retired beneficiaries in short period of time and in long period of time.

After analyzing situation with beneficiaries of this found, decision for investing 60% in financial institutions was based on reliable and safe return of assets and guarantees covering of incoming retired beneficiaries otherwise for beneficiaries awaiting for retirement in longer period of time the 40% was invested in share hold markets.

Financial institutions that Trust invests are those operating in Kosovo and in countries members of The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

Tab. 1. The following table shows the percentage of allocation of the Trust since 2003 and the 2011.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Investment Fund</th>
<th>Registered</th>
<th>Market</th>
<th>2011 Participation in investment</th>
<th>2010 Participation in investment</th>
<th>2009 Participation in investment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Millions of trust</td>
<td>Millions of trust</td>
<td>Millions of trust</td>
<td>Millions of trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanguard GSIF</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Actions</td>
<td>203.45</td>
<td>35.84%</td>
<td>194.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AXA GILB</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>Bonds associated with inflation</td>
<td>84.91</td>
<td>14.96%</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BNP Paribas GLF</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Money Market</td>
<td>63.65</td>
<td>11.21%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schroders ISF SB</td>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>Bonds</td>
<td>59.96</td>
<td>10.56%</td>
<td>60.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aquila RP 7</td>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>Absolute return</td>
<td>50.64</td>
<td>8.92%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BNY Mellon RRF</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Absolute return</td>
<td>50.36</td>
<td>8.87%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECM DEC</td>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>Credit market</td>
<td>19.98</td>
<td>3.52%</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raiffeisen Bank Kosovo</td>
<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>Bank deposit</td>
<td>18.84</td>
<td>3.32%</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NBL Pristina</td>
<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>Bank deposit</td>
<td>15.85</td>
<td>2.79%</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortis GLF</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Credit market</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>75</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECM ECL</td>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>Credit market</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>21.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>ProCredit Bank</td>
<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>Bank deposit</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FX Concepts</td>
<td>foreign exchange</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aurel Capital Mgt</td>
<td>foreign exchange</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABN AMRO IGF</td>
<td>Netherland</td>
<td>foreign exchange</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total investments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>567.64</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>450.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the table, the percentage of allocation of the Trust since 2003 and the 2011.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Millions of trust</td>
<td>Participation in</td>
<td>Millions of trust</td>
<td>Participation in</td>
<td>Millions of trust</td>
<td>Participation in</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Central Bank of Kosovo

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Millions of trust</th>
<th>Participation in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20.74</td>
<td>3.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.08</td>
<td>7.79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122</td>
<td>32.46%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total assets of the trust

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Millions of trust</th>
<th>Participation in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>588.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>488.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>375.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Millions of trust</td>
<td>Participation in</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Contributors

Today in Kosovo are included approximately 424,170 beneficiaries contributing in Trust, and it is considered that approximately 500,000 persons are employed. All this approximate number of employees aren’t participating in Trust because as believed small amount of salaries and lack of responsibility from legal obligation. In this observation Kosovo pension found in comparison with other regional Founds is the poorest on the region, even so it began operating in approximately in same period of time as other regional Founds.

Table 2. E shallaev te kontributit

Contributors as shown on graphic below every year are participating in bigger number, however we can conclude that there is higher number of employees than self-employed participants in Trust. The growth between 2007 and 2008 shown on graphic, has occurred as a result of employment from (KQZ) Central Election Commission when were employed election monitors and after expiry of contract number of employees fall.
When we mention contributors, from the data and statistics made from Trust management possible conclusion is that the contributors from age 55-64 participate in higher number then other age groups. These statistics are shown on graphic below.

![Fig. 3. Contributors](image)

Participants their benefit can acquire only when they retire and important notice is that withdraw can be made only time to time in certain amount. Other notice is that on this amount is added additional amount provided and financed from government of Kosovo to all inhabitants older than 65 years. Additional information is that in case the benefit is under 2000 € the beneficiary can collect immediately

5. Conclusions

Investing in Pension Funds is the best investment that diligent worker can make. Investments on Pension Funds are regulated by law, monitored by (BQK) Kosovo Central Bank and well managed from Trust Board. In circumstances Trust is forced to invest and exploit their recourses outside Kosovo’s financial market due to absence of some instruments in financial system of Kosovo. On poor economy of Kosovo, investments from Trust funds would generate big movement on growth and development of Kosovo’s economy however in near future likely will be done.

Global Financial Crisis that had negative effect on Global Financial Market, effected on Trust funds also but there are clear indicators showing that loses gained are becoming to recuperate, changing investment strategy on2008 improved situation and it was good decision for the time.

In the end recommendation is that Trust Fund must pay attention more in marketing, publishing, informing more inhabitants about benefits, safety and future of this Fund.

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Abstract

Cooperatives are major players in the rural areas as they generate income for members and contribute to sustainable socio-economic development of their territory. Good governance is now recognized as a major factor in organizational effectiveness. The peculiarities of cooperative organizations induce a specific mode of governance to reconcile cooperative principles and the economic logic of the market especially in the international context. This paper aims to present the results of a research whose objective is to show the impact of the governance structure of cooperatives on the marketing of the saffron product of Taliouine region (also known as the country of saffron: a local product with high added value) in Morocco. Our research focuses on the analysis of the nature and components of the structure of governance in saffron cooperatives and the evaluation of their implications on their marketing practices of saffron. This research is conducted by means of semi-structured interviews with presidents and members of the cooperatives of this area.

Keywords: Cooperative Governance, Saffron, Marketing.

1. Introduction

Dans le cadre du développement durable des régions cloisonnées, les coopératives se présentent comme un instrument efficace pour la promotion de la croissance économique au niveau de ces régions. En effet, les coopératives participent à l’amélioration de la situation socio-économique de ses adhérents. Toutefois, elles sont confrontées à une multitude de problèmes, tels que la mauvaise gestion ou les déficits financiers. À cet effet, ces entités solidaires ont compris que le développement de leur productivité, dépend essentiellement de la mise en place d’un système de gouvernance efficace. Ce régime permet, ainsi, de revoir en permanence le système de gestion des coopératives, à travers une surveillance continue des résultats obtenus.

Notre article s’intéresse à la gouvernance des coopératives safranières de Taliouine, et plus particulièremenê à la contribution de cette composante dans la valorisation de la commercialisation du Safran. L’objectif de notre texte est d’étudier l’efficacité du système de gouvernance au sein des coopératives. On s’attachera plus particulièrement à étudier comment la mise en place d’une gouvernance efficace contribue à l’augmentation du chiffre d’affaires de ces entités solidaires.

Premièrement, nous passons en revue les théories organisationnelles à l’origine de l’émergence de la gouvernance dans la littérature des firmes. Par la suite, nous présentons les principes assurant une gouvernance efficace au sein des organisations. En complément à notre étude sur la gouvernance, nous mettons l’accent sur les coopératives au Maroc à travers une lecture détaillée de la loi n° 112-12 fixant le statut général des coopératives. La deuxième partie de notre texte, est consacrée à la présentation des résultats de notre étude de l’efficacité du système de gouvernance au sein des coopératives du safran de Taliouine ainsi que de les réponses obtenues à notre objectif de recherche qui est le rôle de la bonne gouvernance dans la promotion de la commercialisation du safran.
2. Cadre Conceptuel

2.1 L’émergence de la gouvernance dans les théories organisationnelles

Dans le cadre d’une sphère micro-économique en pleine mutation, le tissu économique est de plus en plus mondialisé. En effet, l’ouverture des capitaux des firmes au marché boursier, a permis de collecter des nouvelles ressources financières par lesquelles l’expansion de ces entités est garantie. Par ailleurs, cette initiative a également créé une multiplicité de propriétaires d’une même firme. A cet effet, il est tout à fait légitime de déléguer à une entité indépendante le droit de manager la firme. Cette nouvelle situation micro-économique, a été le catalyseur de l’émergence de plusieurs théories organisationnelles qui avaient pour objectif de schématiser la relation entre les actionnaires et les managers. Nous allons passer en revue les principales théories qui ont marqué cette relation et qui ont participé à son développement.

Selon Jensen et Meckling (1976), une relation d’agence est un contrat par lequel une ou plusieurs personnes (le Principal) engagent une autre personne (l’Agent) afin d’agir en son nom et qui implique la délégation d’un droit de décision (autorité) à l’Agent. Deux parties sont alors définies, la première est constituée des propriétaires qui sont les bailleurs de fonds, tandis que la seconde est constituée des managers qui ont le rôle de gérer ses fonds, et de prendre les décisions afin de développer cette richesse. En effet, toutes les décisions stratégiques seront prises par cette seconde partie. D’autant plus, que les managers ont un accès à l’information contrairement aux propriétaires qui ne sont au courant que des informations rapportées par les décideurs. Cette situation évoque des interrogations sur l’efficacité de cette relation propriétaires - managers, en prenant en considération un élément crucial à cette réflexion, à savoir les intérêts de chacune des deux parties. Il est à noter que les objectifs du principal et de l’agent ne convergent pas nécessairement dans la même direction. En effet, les propriétaires sont plus intéressés par la maximisation du profit, tandis que les managers portent également leur attention à détenir plus de pouvoir décisif. Par conséquent, cette divergence d’intérêts induit à la faiblesse de ce système sociétal. En effet, les décisions prises par les managers pourraient nuire à la société, et impérativement aux droits des propriétaires. Ce résultat nous amène à poser notre réflexion sur les éléments qui pourront consolider cette relation et éventuellement minimiser ce conflit d’intérêts. Il est donc impératif de trouver un terrain d’entente qui fournira une liberté d’agir aux décideurs et au même temps, qui protègera les intérêts des propriétaires. La logique interpelle l’existence, d’une tierce partie, ayant pour rôle de garantir les droits des propriétaires, à savoir un comité de contrôle du travail et des décisions des managers.

D’autres travaux de recherche ont abouti à la même solution citée plutôt, à savoir la création d’un mécanisme de contrôle. Entre autres, les travaux de Alchian et Demsetz (1972), qui ont considéré l’entreprise comme une équipe, dont chacun des membres est conscient que son intérêt dépend de la survie de l’équipe tout entière. De ce fait, la productivité augmente avec le travail en équipe. Par conséquent, cet élément de coopération est garanti, selon les mêmes auteurs, de la protection des intérêts des propriétaires. Toutefois, ils prêssent l’existence, à la fois, d’un système de contrôle et des mesures incitatives (rémunération des membres) pour garantir une meilleure productivité. Dans le même contexte, Jean Jacques Laffont (2000) préconise la théorie des incitations, qui selon lui, « elle fournit une description précise des contraintes imposées par la décentralisation de l’information sur l’allocation des ressources et décrit les propriétés des optima contraints ». Il est à noter également les résultats de recherches de Clarke (1971) et de Groves (1973). Ils proposèrent des mécanismes de taxation qui conduisent les agents à révéler leur information en stratégie dominante. Pour cela, il faut donner à l’agent un transfert qui, à une constante près, lui donne la même fonction objectif que le principal, ici le décideur public. L’agent a alors intérêt à annoncer ses vraies préférences puisqu’il a délégué en quelque sorte la décision au principal qui va maximiser la même fonction objectif que lui. Une autre interprétation est qu’on lui fait payer l’externalité positive ou négative qu’il crée sur l’ensemble des autres agents économiques (Laffont, 2000).

À l’issue de ces différentes approches, une nouvelle notion a émergée dans le vocabulaire des entreprises, qui est celle du gouvernement d’entreprise. En effet, la gouvernance est apparue comme une solution définitive aux problèmes de conflit d’intérêts entre les actionnaires et les propriétaires. A cet effet, le travail des actionnaires est conditionné par le contrôle d’un système de gouvernance qui oriente les décisions prises en adéquation avec l’intérêt de toutes les parties prenantes de l’entreprise. En raison de l’importance de cette nouvelle culture d’entreprise, plusieurs chercheurs des théories des firmes ont essayé de mettre en évidence la gouvernance au sein de l’entreprise. Nous enregistrerons la définition proposée par Charreaux (1997) : « Le système de gouvernement d’entreprise recouvre l’ensemble des mécanismes organisationnels qui ont pour effet de délimiter les pouvoirs et d’influencer les décisions des dirigeants, autrement dit, qui gouvernent leur conduite et définissent leur espace discrétionnaire ». La gouvernance au sein de l’entreprise est donc importante car elle contribue à l’amélioration de l’efficience et de la croissance économique. En
effet, la gouvernance participe à encrer la notion de la confiance entre les différentes parties prenantes de l’entreprise, et également à la promotion de l’économie dans sa globalité. Outre les avantages micro et macro économiques obtenus suite à la mise en place d’un système de gouvernance efficace au sein de l’entreprise, il faut également mettre l’accent sur la nouvelle relation entre les propriétaires et les managers. Il est tout à fait logique que la gouvernance d’entreprise aide à mieux schématiser cette relation. En effet, elle englobe, non seulement la relation managers-propriétaires, mais elle fait aussi référence aux différentes parties prenantes de l’entreprise. Pour mieux expliquer cette notion, on rappelle, plus exhaustivement, le rôle d’un système de gouvernance efficace, qui se résume autour des trois points suivants : la protection des droits des propriétaires, la transparence et la diffusion de l’information, la participation des propriétaires à la prise de décision.

- Protection des droits de propriétaires : la gouvernance de l’entreprise doit assurer le pilotage stratégique de l’entreprise et le contrôle permanent et effectif de la gestion par les managers, de telle manière à protéger les intérêts des propriétaires et à assurer la pérennité des entreprises. Elle doit reconnaître les droits des différentes parties prenantes à la vie d’une société. Ainsi, la gouvernance d’entreprise contribue à la définition des objectifs stratégiques d’une entreprise, ainsi qu’à l’élaboration des moyens en vue des les atteindre, et en dernier lieu, elle opère un contrôle permanent sur les résultats obtenus.

- La transparence et la diffusion de l’information : Avec la mise en place d’un régime de gouvernement d’entreprise efficace, les actionnaires sont en droit d’avoir accès à l’information. En effet, ils doivent être informés, en temps opportun, de toutes les informations concernant l’entreprise, telles que la situation financière, et les résultats de l’entreprise. Ces informations doivent être exactes et ne doivent en aucun cas contenir des informations mensongères. D’autant plus, qu’ils doivent être informés des dates de réunions des assemblées générales, des décisions devant être prises lors de l’assemblée générale, du règlement de ces assemblées et des procédures de vote.

- Participation des actionnaires à la prise de décision : les actionnaires sont en droit de connaître les décisions prises par les managers (conseil d’administration), et éventuellement donner leurs avis sur ces orientations qui concernent la société. Ils ont ainsi le droit de participer aux assemblées générales et de voter sur le maintien d’une décision prise par le conseil d’administration ou le cas échéant l’abolir et voter une autre décision qui répond au mieux à leurs intérêts et qui participe efficacement à la croissance économique. Par conséquent, la gouvernance d’entreprise a pour rôle d’assurer un traitement équitable de tous les actionnaires (minoritaires comme majoritaires).

2.2 La coopérative et les principes de coopération

A partir des principes de la gouvernance d’entreprise que nous avons cités, ci-dessus, la gouvernance s’avère être une nouvelle forme de démocratie participative. Elle construit une culture de concertation, de coopération et de partenariat entre tous les agents économiques. De ce fait, elle permet à toutes les parties prenantes de l’entreprise, à prendre des décisions approuvées par la majorité et répondants à leurs intérêts communs. De plus, la gouvernance est une notion universelle, appliquée à toutes les organisations, quelles soient privées ou publiques. Cette application nous interpelle sur la pertinence du régime de gouvernance au sein des coopératives, plus précisément les coopératives du safran de Taliouine, objet de notre article et de notre seconde partie. Toutefois, en préliminaire à cette étude, nous mettons l’accent sur les coopératives au Maroc, sur les principes de coopération et sur le cadre législatif et juridique, à travers une lecture détaillée de la loi n° 112-12 qui est une refonte des dispositions de la loi n° 24-83 fixant le statut général des coopératives qui a été promulguée par le dahir n° 1-83-226 du 5 octobre 1984. Tout d’abord, il existe plusieurs définitions du mot coopérative, mais dans une vision de cadrer notre recherche sur les coopératives marocaines, nous avons choisie la définition proposée dans la loi n° 112-12 à savoir : « La coopérative est un groupement de personnes physiques, qui conviennent de se réunir pour créer une entreprise chargée de fournir, pour leur satisfaction exclusive, le produit ou le service dont elles ont besoin et pour la faire fonctionner et la gérer en appliquant les principes fondamentaux définis à l'article 2 ci-après et en cherchant à atteindre les buts déterminés à l'article 3 de la présente loi. Des personnes morales remplissant les conditions prévues par la présente loi peuvent devenir membres d’une coopérative ».

A partir de cette définition, les personnes, devenus membre d’une coopérative, travaillent en équipe afin de réaliser un objectif commun à savoir l’amélioration de leurs situations socio-économiques, et le développement durable

1 Extrait de la loi n° 112-12
de leur communauté. Cette situation implique un esprit coopératif entre les membres de la coopérative pour améliorer la qualité du produit fourni et maximiser la production. Toutefois, afin d’assurer la pérennité des coopératives, il existe des principes édictées par l’article 2 de la loi n° 112-12 qui sont en adéquation avec les sept principes internationaux de coopération qui ont été formulés par l’Alliance coopérative internationale. On rappelle, ci-après, les principales idées :

- Adhésion volontaire et ouverte à tous : la coopérative est ouverte à toute personne qui désire y adhérer à condition qu’elle remplisse les conditions de fond arrêtées par les constituants de cette dernière en raison de son activité. Par ailleurs, le retrait d’un des membres de la coopérative est possible à condition de ne pas porter préjudice à son fonctionnement par un retrait intempestif.
- Droit à la prise de décision : les membres de la coopérative sont tous égaux. Par conséquent, ils ont le droit de participer à l’établissement des politiques et à la prise de décisions
- Partage équitable des recettes : les excédents des recettes sont répartis de façon équitable entre les membres, au prorata de la participation de chacun d’entre eux. Par ailleurs, les excédents mis en réserve sont alloués au développement de la coopérative.
- Éducation et formation des membres : les membres de la coopérative (employés, dirigeants élus et gestionnaires) bénéficient de séances de formation afin qu’ils puissent contribuer efficacement au développement de leur coopérative.
- Coopération entre les coopératives : les coopératives ont la possibilité de collaborer avec d’autres coopératives œuvrant sur le plan national comme international.

D’un autre côté, il faut rappeler que la coopérative est une entité indépendante financièrement. Le statut juridique des coopératives tel qu’il a été énoncé au niveau de l’article 4 de la loi n° 112-12 stipule que : « les coopératives sont des personnes morales jouissant de la pleine capacité juridique et de l’autonomie financière ». A l’issue de cette étude de la loi n° 112-12, nous concluons que la coopérative est une organisation autonome et démocratique basée sur l’esprit d’entraide, de coopération et de confiance.

3. Résultats et discussions

Dans cette partie, nous portons notre attention sur les coopératives du safran de Taliouine, afin de répondre à la question primordiale de cet article comment une bonne gouvernance des coopératives peut elle participer à la promotion de la commercialisation de leurs produits. Tout d’abord, nous étudions l’existence d’un système de gouvernance au sein de ces coopératives et ultérieurement l’efficacité de ce régime au regard des résultats obtenus en matière de commercialisation du produit du Safran. Nous rappelons que notre étude a été élaborée suite aux résultats recensés lors de notre enquête sur le terrain auprès des coopératives du Safran au niveau de Taliouine au Maroc, à travers des entretiens semi-directifs avec les membres et dirigeants de ces organisations solidaires.

Nous voulons, tout d’abord, partager un point très important qui nous a le premier marqué, lors de notre étude empirique. Il s’agit de souligner que les responsables des coopératives sont conscients de l’importance de la contribution d’un régime de gouvernance efficace au sein de leurs coopératives. Ils comprennent mieux, à présent, l’impact du gouvernement d’entreprise sur leur productivité et leur compétitivité. Cette prise de conscience sur la nécessité de la mise en place d’une gouvernance efficace par les membres, est la résultante d’un effort considérable des dirigeants élus des coopératives à développer des nouvelles compétences et connaissances, à travers un système de formation continue fourni à l’ensemble des membres des coopératives.

La présentation de la sphère socio-économique de la région expliquera mieux la pertinence des décisions prises par les coopératives en matière de création, d’éducation et de formation. Les membres des coopératives du Safran de Taliouine, sont pour la majorité, des habitants des environs de cette ville du sud du Maroc. Ces habitants vivent principalement de la culture du safran. Une production qui est, en grande partie, vendue sur le marché informel, rendant par conséquent, ces habitants à la merci des intermédiaires du secteur. D’autant plus, la plupart de ces agriculteurs sont des personnes peu scolarisées. Par conséquent, ils sont plus susceptibles à être trompés par les revendeurs du secteur informel, au regard de la méconnaissance des agriculteurs de la valeur réelle du safran sur le marché national et mondial.

A partir de ce constat, les coopératives ont vu le jour pour garantir un développement durable à la région de Taliouine pour participer à l’amélioration du niveau de vie des agriculteurs. Ces coopératives ont réuni l’ensemble des agriculteurs de la région, leur offrant ainsi, un lieu où ils pourront vendre leur produit avec la garantie d’être payés équitablement. En effet, cette concentration de production permet aux coopératives de maîtriser la qualité du Safran à travers la mise en place de séances de formation allouées aux agriculteurs. Ces formations ont pour but d’assister les
agriculteurs, tout au long du processus de production, afin de leur faire connaître les bonnes démarches à suivre en matière d’irrigation, de culture, de la récolte et du stockage du safran. Les nouvelles connaissances, ainsi acquises, permettent aux agriculteurs de produire un Safran de haute qualité, lui octroyant alors un avantage compétitif sur le marché local, national et international. D’autant plus que la coopérative apporte aux agriculteurs, une structure avec un conseil d’administration qui possède les compétences requises en matière de gestion de la coopérative, de conclusion de contrat avec les différents partenaires de la coopérative.

Nous nous focalisons, à présent, sur l’efficacité de la gouvernance au sein des coopératives du Safran de Taliouine. À travers notre étude empirique, nous avons étudié le respect des trois principes de la bonne gouvernance que nous avons expliqué lors de la première partie de ce texte.

3.1 Protection des droits des membres :

Les coopératives, de part leurs statuts et leurs objectifs, assurent la protection des intérêts des membres. Cet acquis est mieux expliqué par l’esprit d’entraide et de coopération entre les membres, déclencheur primordial de la création de la coopérative du Safran. Les membres, à savoir les agriculteurs, ont tous intérêt à maintenir la croissance de leur organisation, qui est leur source primordiale de revenus. D’autant plus que le cadre législatif qui coiffe les coopératives au Maroc a prononcé plusieurs organes administratifs, qui ont pour mission de garantir les intérêts des coopérateurs. La coopérative, selon sa taille et son chiffre d’affaire, est gérée soit par un conseil d’administration, un directeur ou un gérant de la coopérative. Ces derniers assument explicitement la responsabilité de l’administration saine et prudente de la coopérative. Ils veillent, à la périodicité du fonctionnement dans une perspective d’amélioration continue et veillé à la protection du patrimoine du mouvement, de ses membres et de ses clients. En parallèle aux gestionnaires de la coopérative, un comité de surveillance existe au sein de chaque entité. Ce dernier exerce le contrôle permanent sur la gestion du conseil d’administration ou des gérants. Par la suite, il élabora un compte rendu contenant ses observations sur la gestion de la coopérative.

Afin de garantir au mieux les intérêts des coopérateurs, le législateur marocain a instauré l’office du développement de la coopération, qui a pour mission de s’assurer que les coopératives sont gérées conformément aux textes réglementaires en vigueur. À cet effet, l’office du développement de la coopération a l’aptitude de provoquer une mise en place générale extraordinaire pour prendre les mesures nécessaires afin de remédier à toute anomalie constatée lors de ses enquêtes. Toutefois, nous avons relevé quelques pratiques qui nuisent au maintien des intérêts des agriculteurs. Le premier inconvénient réside dans le système de commercialisation adopté par les coopératives. Ce système repose sur le paiement tardif des producteurs. En effet, le paiement du producteur est conditionné par la vente effective du produit, entraînant ainsi un retard de paiement pour ce dernier. Cette situation est en contradiction totale avec l’objet même de la coopérative qui est d’aider l’agriculteur à améliorer sa situation socio-économique. Par conséquent, le maintien de cette pratique nuit considérablement à la relation producteur-coopérative, à travers le manque de confiance entre l’agriculteur et la coopérative. Cette situation peut ainsi freiner l’adhésion de nouveaux membres qui opteront de vendre leur production au niveau du secteur informel.

Ce constat suscite des interrogations sur l’option de cette politique de commercialisation. Une question se pose : pourquoi les dirigeants des coopératives ne changent-ils pas de politique. L’explication fournie par les coopératives est le défi d’un bon de roulement important qui permet de payer les agriculteurs immédiatement. Toutefois, cette argumentation n’est pas tolérée actuellement, surtout dans un environnement caractérisé par les nouvelles technologies et l’ouverture des marchés. À cet effet, nous avons relevé quelques pratiques qui nuisent au maintien des intérêts des agriculteurs. Le premier inconvénient réside dans le système de commercialisation adopté par les coopératives. Ce système repose sur le paiement tardif des producteurs. En effet, le paiement du producteur est conditionné par la vente effective du produit, entraînant ainsi un retard de paiement pour ce dernier. Cette situation est en contradiction totale avec l’objet même de la coopérative qui est d’aider l’agriculteur à améliorer sa situation socio-économique. Par conséquent, le maintien de cette pratique nuit considérablement à la relation producteur-coopérative, à travers le manque de confiance entre l’agriculteur et la coopérative. Cette situation peut ainsi freiner l’adhésion de nouveaux membres qui opteront de vendre leur production au niveau du secteur informel.

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A l’issue de ce constat, il paraît intéressant de réfléchir à des solutions permettant de garantir les intérêts des agriculteurs et la croissance de la coopérative. Les coopératives, dans le cadre de coopération avec d’autres coopératives moins cloisonnées, installées au niveau national comme international, peuvent conclure des accords de
partenariat, visant à mieux communiquer leurs produits dans ses régions. Il s'agit de création de bureaux de représentation, qui seront le lien entre ces coopératives cloisonnées et la clientèle éventuelle. Les coopératives peuvent également concentrer leurs efforts à nouer contact avec des sociétés de manufacture utilisant le safran comme matière première dans leurs productions. Des accords avec des agences de voyages nationales et internationales opérant dans le tourisme équitable est une autre alternative. Ces initiatives auront pour objet de créer un portefolio de clients susceptibles d’acheter le produit dans l’immédiat.

3.2 Transparency and diffusion of the information:

L’examen de ce point au niveau des coopératives safranières de Taliouine nous a permis de constater le respect de ce principe. En effet, des réunions périodiques sont organisées au sein des coopératives. Par exemple, la coopérative invite tous ses membres pour fixer les modalités de commercialisation du safran, à travers les deux éléments suivants : la fixation de la quantité mise en vente sur le marché et la détermination du prix d’achat. A la fin du mois de décembre de chaque année, une réunion est organisée entre les membres de la coopérative afin de décider de la quantité du safran apportée par chaque membre à la coopérative. Cette décision est importante car il est difficile de d’acheter toute la quantité produite par les agriculteurs, et ce à défaut du fond de roulement et de clientèle immédiate pour acheter le safran.

Ainsi, lors de cette réunion, un consensus est établi sur la quantité du premier lot de safran qu’apportera chaque producteur. Cette quantité dépend de la capacité de production de l’agriculteur. Pour le petit producteur, la quantité du lot varie de 250 à 500 grammes. Pour les grands producteurs, le lot peut atteindre 1 à 2,5 kg. Ensuite, une deuxième réunion est effectuée pour la détermination du prix d’achat du safran. Afin de déterminer le prix d’achat, la coopérative effectue une comparaison avec le prix d’achat dans le marché traditionnel (le souk). Si par exemple, le safran est vendu à 15 dirhams le gramme au marché, la coopérative propose 4 à 5 dirhams de différence en plus. Le consensus sur le prix d’achat nécessite du temps car les producteurs recherchent à gagner le plus possible.

Après avoir décidé de la quantité et du prix d’achat du safran, la coopérative donne aux producteurs un délai de 8 à 15 jours maximum pour apporter le premier lot de safran séché. La présence du conseil à ce moment est obligatoire. La coopérative conditionne le safran dans des boîtes qui portent le code du producteur, son nom, le lot et l’année de production pour assurer la traçabilité. Ces boîtes sont conservées dans des coffres forts. La gestion de stock utilisée est la méthode FIFO. Des échantillons sont gardés par la coopérative pour justifier que le produit de la coopérative est pur et sans défaut en cas d’éventuelles réclamations.

Un bon de réception est rempli pour chaque producteur contenant le nom, le code, la date où il a apporté le safran, la quantité, le prix unitaire et le prix total. La coopérative garde ce reçu jusqu’au paiement du producteur (avec le numéro de chèque et la copie du chèque) avec signature de l’agriculteur. Par conséquent, cette démarche a pour but de garantir la transparence des transactions au sein de la coopérative.

En réponse au respect du droit d’accès à l’information, la loi n° 112-12 dans son article 25, a octroyé pleinement ce pouvoir aux adhérents de la coopérative. En effet, le membre coopérateur peut à tout moment, consulter tous les documents administratifs, comptables et financiers de la coopérative. On cite par exemple, les états de synthèse, le rapport du conseil d’administration, le rapport du ou des commissaires aux comptes et les procès verbaux des assemblées générales. Le cadre législatif a également assuré ce droit même aux membres non scolarisés. En effet, ces derniers peuvent recourir à l’aide d’un conseiller lors de la consultation de ces documents.

3.3 Participation à la prise de décision:

Les coopératives tiennent annuellement, des assemblées générales ordinaires, auxquelles sont invités tous les membres de la coopérative. Lors de ces assemblées, il est question de prendre des décisions sur plusieurs sujets intéressants la coopérative. En effet, la loi a explicitement détaillé les principaux sujets dont se prononcent les assemblées générales. Elle est l’occasion de remettre en cause le travail du conseil d’administration. A cet effet, les coopérateurs ont le droit de vote sur toute décision intéressant la coopérative, qui va de la remise en cause des comptes annuels à la désignation des membres du comité de surveillance, des commissaires aux comptes et du conseil d’administration. Toutefois, un élément empêche le respect de ce principe au sein des coopératives safranières de Taliouine, à savoir l’analphabétisme des agriculteurs. Cet inconvénient induit que les membres n’ont pas de connaissance en matière de gestion et de prise de décision. Par conséquent, les seules décisions prises par les coopérateurs sont celles de l’approbation d’adhésion de nouveaux membres, la répartition des bénéfices aux membres selon la quantité apportée. Les membres ont des parts
dans la coopérative mais l’excédent est distribué selon la quantité apporté et le travail effectué au sein de la coopérative. Les membres sont appelés un par un pour leur donner leur part du bénéfice. Ces bénéfices peuvent être réutilisés après un accord de la part de tous les membres (un vote) pour permettre à la coopérative de financer ses activités.

Certes, le comité de surveillance des coopératives minimisent le risque de mauvaise gestion. En effet, les dirigeants des coopératives sont surveillés de près par l’office de développement de la coopération, qui rend compte régulièrement de l’exercice de leurs tâches. En parallèle, il existe des sanctions pénales qui ont été édictées par la loi en cas d’observation de toute anomalie de gestion ou de tout écort de bonne conduite par les dirigeants des coopératives, nuisant ainsi aux intérêts des coopérateurs. Toutefois, la coopérative doit plus investir dans l’éducation des coopérateurs sur leurs droits coopératifs. Des séances de formation sont organisées en concertation avec l’Office de développement des coopérations, afin de mettre à niveau les membres des coopératives. En effet, les coopérateurs doivent être des agents qui participent efficacement à la prise des décisions stratégiques des coopératives. Comment peut-on développer la rentabilité des coopératives, si les principaux membres ne sont pas conscients de leurs droits et de leurs devoirs. Le coopérateur n’est pas seulement un fournisseur, il représente également un capital pour la coopérative dans le sens où il est membre actif et soucieux de remettre en cause continuellement les résultats obtenus, et de participer à l’élaboration des orientations stratégiques. Par conséquent, il faut mettre l’accent sur la mise à niveau des membres et des dirigeants des coopératives afin d’atteindre les objectifs escomptés. Il faut penser à intégrer au sein de ces entités de jeunes compétences de la région de Taliouine, qui ont acquis de par leurs cursus universitaires, des connaissances en matière de techniques de gestion et de commercialisation des produits de terroir. Ils seront les formateurs relais auprès des membres des coopératives.

4. Conclusion

En conclusion, l’étude de l’efficacité du système de gouvernance au sein des coopératives safranières de Taliouine nous a permis de recenser des points forts et aussi des points d’amélioration. Nous résumons les points forts du système à travers les points suivants :

- Un cadre législatif répondant aux standards nationaux en matière de coopération, qui protège les intérêts des coopérateurs à travers la multiplicité des organes de contrôle édictées par la loi ;
- Confiance entre les coopérateurs et ancrage de l’esprit coopératif ;
- Les coopérateurs ont droit à toute information relative à leur organisation. Un droit qui est préservé même en cas d’analphabétisme du coopérateur ;
- La transparence et traçabilité constatée dans les processus d’achat du safran aux agriculteurs (prix et quantité) ;
- La commercialisation du safran avec un prix mieux valorisé que sur le marché traditionnel ou informel ;
- La protection des intérêts des coopérateurs.

En ce qui concerne les axes nécessitant des améliorations afin de garantir l’efficacité du régime de gouvernance au sein des coopératives du safran de Taliouine, nous résumons à travers les points ci-après :

- Refonte de la stratégie de commercialisation du produit safran par les coopérateurs à travers la mise en place d’une structure de prospection de la clientèle et de communication autour de la coopérative et de son produit ;
- Favoriser la coopération entre les coopératives safranières, à travers un regroupement qui leur offrira plus d’opportunités de croissance ;
- Prodiguer des formations aux agriculteurs en matière de gestion des coopératives, afin qu’ils participent efficacement à la prise de décision ;
- Assister les dirigeants des coopératives analphabètes et qui n’ont aucune compétence en matière de gestion ou d’administration d’une organisation telle que la coopérative, à développer les connaissances requises pour l’exécution de leurs fonctions.
- Développer davantage l’esprit coopératif au sein des adhérents et des dirigeants.

References

Anglicisms in Italian and Albanian Language in the Field of Telecommunication and Informatics

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Centre of Foreign Languages

Abstract

The two branches, that of telecommunication and informatics, are lately introduced in Albania. Since these branches are largely developed in English speaking countries, the terms used even in Albanian textbooks are English ones. This phenomenon is also viewed in Italian language. But apart from what is mentioned above, another reason why anglicisms have entered both these languages is because of the lack of native words, thus Italian and Albanian words for certain items, devices or services in these fields of study. An approach of anglicisms that function as terms in both languages. How much do they differ? E.g. both languages use the term ‘plotter’, ‘baseband’ but there are cases where one of the languages uses a native term instead of an anglicism. For the English term ‘pointer’, the Italian equivalent is ‘puntatore’, whereas in Albanian it is used either ‘pointer’ or ‘pikëzues’. For the term ‘jacket’, in Italian it is used the term ‘custodia’ whereas in Albanian it is used the English term ‘jacket’ or the Albanian equivalent ‘këllëf’ ‘mbulesë’.

1. History of anglicisms in Albanian and Italian language.

Foreign words have entered Albanian language, a member of the Indo-European family and one of the oldest languages in Balkan, hundreds of years ago. Many words were loaned from Old Latin and ancient Greek, some of which have been totally absorbed and are nowadays part of the Albanian lexicon. Other words were borrowed from Turkish and Slavic language. Later in the 20th century Albanian was influenced by French, Italian and English language. Loan words are encountered in the spoken and written language as well since the borrowings started as Prof. J.Thomai puts it (2006;257) in the 3rd century BC, when Greek colonies settled in the Illyrian territory and they continue to date. Loan words maybe either simple words or term. In this paper I will mainly focus on words that function as terms.

Regarding English loan words nowadays, they are widely encountered in media, politics and technology. According to R.Këcira (2009;9) the areas where anglicisms are widely encountered are ranged as below: media, politics and economy, modern warfare, science and technology, commerce etc. Prof. J.Thomai writes in his book ‘Lexicology of Albanian Language’ (2006;250) that English words entered Albanian language in the 1920s. R. Këcira’s monograph ‘Anglicisms in Albanian; A language contact phenomenon’ provides facts about the existence of anglicisms either as terms or simple words in Albanian, since 1920s. The data she used was the collection of the newspaper published in Albania ‘Laboremus’ in the 1920s, four dictionaries and a three month collection of the newspaper Gazeta Shqiptare. Some of the anglicisms used in the corpora above mentioned are: ‘mottoja’ today used as (motoja), ‘campion’ (kampion), ‘kollegj’ (kolegj), ‘flanella’ (fanela), ‘alcohol’ (alkol), ‘chassin’ (shasi), ‘refrigerator’ (frigorifer), ‘chequesh’ (ceqesh) etj.

As far as anglicisms in Italian is concerned, Satu Pirkkalainen (2002:5) points out that some English words entered Italian in the 19th century but in the 1930s the Italian government under the dictation of Mussolini tried to substitute all foreign words with Italian ones even though later it was impossible to prevent these words from entering Italian language due to the Anglo-American culture. Maria Leticia Mariani (2011) in her article ‘Itanglese: Gli anglicismi nel linguaggio quotidiano’ writes that the number of Anglicisms in Italian is approximately 6000, most of which entered Italian after the Second World War.

For this paper I consulted textbooks in Italian in the field of informatics and telecommunication such as ‘L’informatica’- P.Bishop; ‘Reti di tele comunicazione’- A.Roveri and ‘Calcolatori Elettronici’- R.Cuchiara and Albanian textbooks, ‘Komunikimet me fibra optike’ R. Mitrushi ‘Informatika 1’ I.Ninka, N.Frashëri, E.Arkaxhiu. Some of the anglicisms I encountered in these books were; input, personal computer, bus, plotter, cluster, pointer, cicli di wait, flip-flop, programazione top-down etc. The aim of this paper is to spot some of the anglicisms in the Albanian and Italian textbooks used in the field of telecommunication and informatics and see how they differs from one language to another.
2. Reasons for borrowing

The main reason why borrowings occur is because there is a lack of native words in naming or designating certain phenomena, devices, services etc. Informatics and telecommunication are relatively new branches of study in Albania. As such it is sometimes difficult to designate certain devices, items or services that are unknown to us. When reading certain text books in Albanian in the field of informatics and telecommunication, you encounter a lot of foreign words, mainly English ones. Albanian authors, field specialists or professors do not have or can not find an Albanian term and thus they resort to English ones (since the bibliography used is mainly English). But this is not the only case. There are cases in which the Albanian term exists but it's not used, either because it may be unknown to the author or maybe it's easier for him/her to use a foreign word instead of searching or risking to use an Albanian equivalent.

3. Anglicisms approach in Albanian and Italian textbooks of telecommunication and informatics.

Below it is given a list of some anglicisms used in both languages. There are cases in which both Italian and Albanian language use only the English term because there isn't any equivalent in neither language such as cluster, plotter (in Albanian it is written with a single ‘t’, ploter ), hardware (even though in Albanian it is sometimes written ‘harduer’ because it has undergone changes under the Albanian phonetic system\(^1\), etj.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English term</th>
<th>Albanian</th>
<th>Italian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Plotter</td>
<td>Ploter</td>
<td>Plotter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Bus</td>
<td>Bus</td>
<td>Bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Cluster</td>
<td>Cluster</td>
<td>Cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Hardware</td>
<td>Harduer</td>
<td>Hardware</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.

Sometimes both languages use the anglicism and a respective equivalent term for example; in Albanian texts you encounter ‘input’ and ‘hyrje; ‘pointer’ and ‘pikëzues’; ‘çip’ and ‘qark integrues’ etj.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English term</th>
<th>Albanian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Input</td>
<td>Input/ hyrje</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pointer</td>
<td>Pointer/pikëzues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Chip</td>
<td>Cip/ qark integrues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Output</td>
<td>Output/dalje</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. File</td>
<td>File/fajl/skedar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Buffer</td>
<td>Bafer/ ndërmemorie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Software</td>
<td>Softuer/ programet e kompjuterit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Clock</td>
<td>Klok/takt/gjenerator I taktit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Flag</td>
<td>flag/ tregues/indicator/marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Broadband</td>
<td>Broadband/brezgjere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Flip-flop</td>
<td>Flip-flop /shilarës/multivibrator bistabël</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2

In Italian textbooks both terms are used ‘output’ and ‘emissione’; ‘input’ and ‘ingresso’. See table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English term</th>
<th>Italian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Input</td>
<td>Input/ ingress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Output</td>
<td>Output/emissione</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Polling</td>
<td>Polling/ (technica d’) interrogazione</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Forwarding</td>
<td>Forwarding/anticipazione</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3

\(^1\)Some anglicisms in Albanian are not used in their English phonetic or grammatical form, because they change under the Albanian phonetic system, but there are many English words that preserve their English form such as the term ‘cluster’ which in Albanian, should be written ‘klaster’, the term ‘output’ is not written in Albanian textbooks as ‘autput’ etc.
In the table below I have listed some anglicisms encountered in the Albanian and Italian textbooks and where possible an Albanian and Italian equivalent which either stands next to the anglicisms or is used alone.

4. List of Anglicisms encountered in some Albanian and Italian textbooks of informatics and telecommunication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>English term</th>
<th>Albanian</th>
<th>Italian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Input</td>
<td>Input/ hyrje</td>
<td>Input/ (operazione d’) ingresso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Output</td>
<td>Output/ dalje</td>
<td>Output/emissione/ (operazione d’) uscita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>File</td>
<td>File/fajl/skedar</td>
<td>File</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Buffer</td>
<td>Bafer/ ndërmemorie</td>
<td>Buffer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Plotter</td>
<td>Ploter</td>
<td>Plotter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Software</td>
<td>Softuer/ programet e kompjuterit</td>
<td>Software</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Hardware</td>
<td>Harduer</td>
<td>Hardware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Personal computer (pc)</td>
<td>Kompjuter personal (pc)</td>
<td>Personal computer (pc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Flag</td>
<td>Flag/ tregues/indicator/marker</td>
<td>Flag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Interface</td>
<td>Ndërfaqe</td>
<td>Interface/ interfaccia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Pointer</td>
<td>Pointer/pikezues</td>
<td>Puntatore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Floppy disc</td>
<td>Flopi disk/disquete/ disk I bute</td>
<td>Dischetti flessibili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Hard copy</td>
<td>Hard copy</td>
<td>Coppia fisica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Forwarding</td>
<td>- (gjuhë e folur, forword-oj)</td>
<td>Anticpazionie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Polling</td>
<td>Polling</td>
<td>(technica d’) interrogazione</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Bus</td>
<td>Bus</td>
<td>Bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Chip</td>
<td>Cip/ qark integrues</td>
<td>Chip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Clock</td>
<td>Klok/takt/generator I taktit</td>
<td>Temporizattore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Cluster</td>
<td>Cluster</td>
<td>cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Broadband</td>
<td>Broadband/brezgiere</td>
<td>Larga banda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Jacket</td>
<td>Këlief/mbulesë</td>
<td>Custodia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Data bank</td>
<td>Bankë e të dhënave</td>
<td>Banco dati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Mouse</td>
<td>Maus/ mi</td>
<td>Mouse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Flip-flop</td>
<td>Flip-flop /shilares/multivibrator bistabël</td>
<td>Flip-flop</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4

5. Conclusions

As many European languages, Albanian and Italian language can not escape the influence of English words/terms since it is an international language. It is a language spoken in the most developed countries where technological and scientific developments are of a high rate. Anglicisms are nowadays widely studied because they are present in many other languages such as French, Spanish, Italian, German, Albanian etc, even though they differ in usage from one recipient language to another because sometimes they undergo the phonetic, grammatical rules of the recipient language and the degree of assimilation differs. Such is the case of anglicisms in Albanian and Italian language dealt with above where it seems that anglicisms are not always used in the same way. Sometimes the two languages take the English terms as it is in English and do not make any changes to it, sometimes they adjust it to their phonetic, grammatical, morphological system and sometimes they try to substitute the English term with a native one. As far as their attitudes to anglisisms is concerned, I must say that the two languages are opened to foreign words, in our case English ones, even though there must be rules that control foreign words entrance and usage.

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2 The abbreviation 'pc' used in English and Italian is used in Albanian as well even though the Albanian equivalent for 'personal computer' is 'kompjuter personal'.
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Migration, Youth and Social Issues in Albania: Kukes Region Case

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Abstract

This research was conducted to investigate the realities on the social issues that disturb the everyday living of youth in Albania, focusing on the case of the Kukes Region, by gathering quantitative and qualitative data. Kukes Region suffers from a wide range of socio-economical issues that make the life of the inhabitants difficult and induce them to leave the region. Migration of the population, especially of youth, is one of the main issues that disturb the region. Youth activism has always played an important role in the development of the society and Kukes region is compounded by a relatively young age population. In this research 150 people were invited to participate in the questionnaires, 15 people in the opened interviews. The findings revealed that youth in Kukes Region find it difficult to live in the region because of the wide range of social issues like poverty, unemployment, gender issues, etc.

Keywords: youth; development; employment; education; migration; Kukes Region; patriarchal society; old mentality;

1. Introduction

The Kukes Region lies in the northeastern part of Albania and includes three districts: Kukes, Has and Tropoja, with a population of 114,000 inhabitants (data taken from the Kukes Regional Council). It consists of 3 municipalities, 24 communes, 187 villages (89 villages in the Kukes District, 30 in Has District and 68 in Tropoja). This region is considered as one of the poorest regions in Albania. In 2010 the number of the families that benefited economical aid was 1027 families per 10.000 inhabitants (The Regional Development Strategy, 2012-2016, page 20).

A wide range of socio-economical issues disturb the life of the inhabitants in this region, making difficult the everyday living. According to the Regional Development Strategy¹ some of the factors that have contributed in increasing of the rates of poverty in the region are as below:

- Increased unemployment, deteriorated from destruction of state enterprises, which were the biggest providers of job opportunities.
- The fall of pyramidal schemes ruined the finances and financial savings for the majority of population.
- Agricultural activities in the region lack of tools for production manufacture. Even if the tools existed, the remote area, lack of transportation infrastructure, lack of electrical and running water would make no use of them.
- Lack of functional and modern education environments has caused the increase of school drop outs.
- Patriarchal tradition and gender inequality in another social issue that needs to be addressed.
- Lack of national and international investments in the region. Also the misuse of the natural resources which are available in the region.
- Lack of equality in providing social, health and education services in the remote areas because of the low population density and natural difficult conditions that characterize the region.
- Dependence on the economical aid, 45% of the families in the region are treated with social aid.
- Lack of youth involvement in decision-making. We have to remind that Kukes Region has a relatively young age population.
- Villages are in a much worse conditions. Because of the bad living conditions most of them are abandoned.

¹ For more information refer to "The Strategy of Kukes Region Development, January, 2004", page 77-78 and to "The Regional Development Strategy (2012 – 2016)".
All these socio-economic problems were accompanied with another disturbing phenomenon, the migration of the population. A considerable number of the inhabitants, especially youth generations, moved to live in other cities or abroad. In the Development Strategy for the Kukes Region it is stated that “The most important recourses in the region are its inhabitants” (SZHQK, 2004: 10), and these recourses were departing.

We all know the consequences of the migration of the population in the development of this region. Among the inhabitants that left the region were doctors, teachers and educated people that had given an important contribution in offering qualitative services to this region, also simple, hard working people and the youth who were the future of this region. Not only the cities, but especially the villages, were abandoned and as a result and infrastructure and development were aggravated continuously. From 1989 to 2001, 25% of the population moved from the Kukes Region (SZHQK, 2004: 36).

“Why stay? There is nothing for me here. I do not have a job and I do not have running water! We have just each other and this in not enough for me right now.” – Student from Kukes Region (SZHQK, 2004: 40).

Poverty, unemployment are disturbing phenomenon for the Kukes Region, but the growth of the number of inhabitants that migrate (especially youth), the increased desire of the inhabitants to move from the region and live somewhere else is a worse social issue for the region. Especially youth, who find the life in Kukes region difficult and frustrate.

Kukes Region is compounded by a relatively young population, the average age of the population is 26.9 years old, 54% of the population is under 25 years old (SZHQK, 2004: 38). Youth is a very important agent for the development of this region, but they want to leave if they have the opportunity. In this article I tend to investigate what youth think about living in the region? What are the main social issues that according to them make their life difficult in the region and make them wanting to leave or not to return back?

2. Methodology

Instruments: The instruments used in this study are: first, data gathered from the local institutions like Regional Council, Regional Education Directory, Kukes Prefecture; secondly, 150 questionnaires and 15 interviews are administered; thirdly, direct observations, a method facilitated by the fact of being an inhabitant of one of the districts of the Kukes Region.

From data analyzes the sample results as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 – 24 year</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 – 30 year</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the sample 30 of the respondents were emigrant that live abroad, 60 of them were students who were attending the university in Tirana and Durrres, 60 others live in the Kukes region.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1 Staying or leaving the region?

a) The respondents that were attending university studies in Tirana and Durrres were asked: If they would prefer to stay and live in Tirana after finishing their studies?

From data analyzes 70% of the respondents responded positively. The respondents that answered maybe (20%) or no (10%) were mostly students on their first years of their studies.

One of the male respondents, aged 21, stated: "I do not want to go back there. I will do anything not to go back"

"Turn back? Are you kidding me? Back in my home there is nothing to do, just work in the field and drive three hours to go in the city. I come from a village where there is only one grocery shop, a bar for men and nothing else. Who would want to go back in a place like that? I am in the second year and I am looking for a job so I
can stay even during summer in Tirana. Thank God my brother, who lives abroad, is helping me with money for the moment” stated another male respondent, aged 20; Another male respondent, aged 21, stated: "If we could choose, I think that no one would want to go back. Every student from all over Albania would like to live in Tirana because it is the city that can offer more opportunities. But, you have to have a job to stay or a rich family because life here is very expensive. So, if I find a job here, I will stay, if not, I do not have another choice but go back". "If I want to stay, yes I do. If I will stay, No I won't. My family won't let me live here, they want me back after finishing my studies. You know, for a girl is not so easy to decide to stay because girls cannot take those decisions" stated a female respondent, aged 20.

Another female respondent, aged 19, stated: "After my studies I would like to find a job in Tirana and live there. I want that but I have to convince my family to let me. My brother seems to not liking the idea much. He says that I can do that after I get married".

In nowadays there are a lot of young people from Kukes Region that after their studies have stayed to live and work in Tirana. According to the results, the respondents state that they would prefer to stay in Tirana after their studies, some of them have done that, some of them have returned. According to the results, staying or leaving in not a free decision for girls because of the patriarchal society and the old mentality on gender roles. A respondent that has finished her studies and decided to stay and live in Tirana stated: "It was a tough decision, I went against all my family. They did not want me to come here. They still tell to me that I have done a mistake and if I had returned life would have been much easier for me. Most of the time I cannot complain to them if something is wrong, like the wage that never is enough for example, because every time they toss it as a sign of their victory. It is not easy for a girl to decide to leave her family and live alone, while not being married. In the region people are not used with women independence. You do not imagine what people say about girls and women that have dared to challenge the old mentality, but I do not mind actually, my family does".

b) The respondents that actually live in the region were asked: If they would prefer to live somewhere else than in the region, the results were: Yes – 64%; No – 14%; Maybe – 17%, I don’t know – 5%.

One of the male respondents, aged 27, stated: "If I had some money I would have already gone".

Another male respondent, aged 28, stated: "I want to go away; actually I am planning to do that again. I tried once, but I got caught after three months. It was a difficult experience but I will try again. I have nothing to do here, no job, no money, nothing.....".

A female respondent, aged 24, stated: "I would like that, not because I do not like it here, but there are so many problems that make our life so difficult that anything else would look better". "Look around where I live...everyday is the same, everyday is like a battle to survive. No one in my family works; I haven't attended school, my children either, because there is not one in our village...I am sorry for the great view we have, but I can't live only with it." stated a female respondent, aged 30.

According to the results, the life is so difficult in the region, especially in the villages that they would change it to go somewhere else where there are more possibilities for them. The respondents stated that the region was blessed with a beautiful nature, but it lacks so many necessary services and facilities to benefit from it. One of the female respondents stated: "We have so many vital issues to resolve than enjoying the scenery around. How you can do that where you do not have a job, when you are afraid to get sick because the hospital is so far, when your kids stay around all day because the school is far and the roads are wrecked...".

c) The respondents that live abroad were asked if they have considered coming back to live in their birth place in the future? The results show that they would prefer to comeback to visit or spend the vacations here, but the everyday life will be the one in the country where they have migrated.

One male respondent stated: "I love my birthplace but it is very difficult to live there. I will just come back for vacations, to visit relatives, but that's it".

Another respondent, female, stated: "I came here when I got married. I have a much better life here, I go out in the evening, my husband has a good job, life is much better. My life in my village was boring, all days the same. It was boring and tiring, all those chores to do, inside the house and in the field, money were never enough".
3.2 What are the main social issues that induce the respondents to consider leaving the region?

Regarding to the data gathered, the main social issues that disturb the life of youth (and not only) and make them want to leave or not coming back, are as follows:

3.2.1 Poverty related issues and life conditions in the Kukes Region;

According to the respondents, one of the social issues that disturb their life is poverty. Related to the poverty, life conditions in Kukes region are one of the main social issues that induce youth to leave the region. The situation is critical especially in the distant villages, where there is lack of educational system, health system, even of running water in their homes and electricity.

This makes this region not attractive for youth to live.

3.2.2 Lack of road-infrastructure development;

The undeveloped road infrastructure is seen as one of the main issues that induce the youth in Kukes region to leave. The construction of Durres-Kukes road has improved the national road infrastructure and connection with other cities especially for the Kukes district, but still the region suffers from the lack of road infrastructure. The connection of the other districts, Tropoja and Has, with other cities, and especially the connection of the villages with each other and especially with the cities is problematic. The bad and undeveloped road infrastructures make the life of inhabitants very difficult, and induce them to leave. A considerable number of villages are abandoned because of the bad infrastructure.

Youth who live in the villages are faced with a wide range of social issues every day. One of the respondents stated: "I live in a village that takes 2 hours to go to the city. You can travel only early in the morning because the van goes early in the city and comes back in the evening. During the winter we stay months without going anywhere. The life here is the same, help in some field work, watch television.....it is boring".

3.2.3 Unemployment;

The job market in the Kukes Region continues to be poor by resulting in high levels of unemployment in this region. The public job market is focused mostly on offering services and the production sector has not been developed after the closure of factories after 1990. The private sector is small and undeveloped and mostly includes fields such as building industries, transport, marketing, etc., (District Council, 2006: 48-49). Lack of job opportunities is considered as one of the main factors that induce youth to leave their birthplace. In the villages the scenario is even worse, where agriculture is the only activity that the families conduct for their living.

3.2.4 Carrier and professional growth;

Most of the respondents state that in their birthplace it is very difficult to advance in their professional growth and qualifications. Job opportunities are few in the region, so few that you should feel lucky just to have a job. The situation is worse in the villages where working in the field is usually the only activity available for the inhabitants. In this case growing professionally or being promoted is just out of question.

One of the female respondents that works in a Bank in Kukes city stated: “The only opportunity for being promoted is to be engaged in politics and to be lucky enough that the political party that you support will be the one that governs”.

The interviewees state that if they are lucky enough to find a job, the only thing they have to do is to keep the job. A female respondent aged 30 stated: “I work in this job for 8 years now, nothing is changed. I just have to feel lucky enough that I have the job, growing up in duty seems out of the question”.

According to the respondents, for women and girls is much more difficult to grow professionally because of their gender roles and the patriarchal society. A female respondent, aged 28, stated: “we only are in XXI century with years because life has not changed much for girls and women. The role of girls and women is the same as a century before, despite what it looks like. In family man are in charge, at job men are in charge, wherever you look you see only men, in the street, in the directors offices, in the head of the table.....”.

According to the respondents, the main reasons that make it difficult to promote or grow professionally are as below:
• leading job positions usually are assigned politically and not by merit;
• there aren't many job possibilities available in the region; having a job is being lucky;
• girls and women are penalized on promoting because of the patriarchal society and old mentality on gender roles;
• the private sector is undeveloped in the region, so the job opportunities in this sector are not many; also, the branch of private sectors that operate in the region (construction, transportation, etc.) do not offer much opportunities for promotion or professional growth;

3.2.5 Entertainment possibilities;

Social and cultural life in the Kukes Region almost does not exist. The possibilities to be entertained in this region are reduced in having coffee in the city bars and for the youth that live in the villages, social and cultural life is even more difficult. There is no cinema, art gallery or other entertaining and cultural activity in the region, as one of the respondent stated: "Here you have to wait for the electoral campaigns to begin so you can have the opportunity to attend a concert in the city".

Cultural and entertainment activities are very few in the cities, only in some show organized for New Year feast, or some other special occasion. The situation in the villages is worse, there is difficult to find services that are necessary for the welfare of the inhabitants, looking for entertainment is a question of luxury.

A female respondent that lives in a village stated: "My only entertainment is the television. You can watch others how they live their life, feel miserable about yours, and desire with all your heart to find a way to escape. A lot of girls here in the village are married just to go away from here and not because they were in love".

3.2.6 Old mentality and patriarchal society;

The respondents think that living in their birthplace is difficult because of the old mentality, opinions and rumors that cause them frustrations and violates their freedom. Much more than boys, girls suffer more the weight of the old mentality and rumors. According to them, in their birthplace people like to talk about the others more than tend to look their own business. “Eat your bread and talk to the others” stated a respondent. It is better to live in Tirana where no one knows you and vice versa.

People in Kukes region know each other very well and they live so close to each other that they cannot ignore the other’s opinion. The old mentality is harsher on girls and women. Girls and women have to stay in their homes, take care of their domestic duties. Outside business, decision making are man's matter. According to this issue a female respondent stated: "A good girl and women is one that cleans, cooks, and obeys. Girls and women that seek higher education, go at work are usually rumored around from the others".

3.2.7 Gender inequality

Kukes region society is a traditional one, characterized by patriarchal elements. The female respondents stated that gender issues are one of the main problems that make their life difficult in their birth place. A female respondent stated: "For girls in not as easy as for boys here. Life is much more difficult for us. While unmarried, your father and brother try to control you, after marriage their place is taken by your husband".

Because of the patriarchal society and different social conditions in which women and men are faced with, everyday living is not handled the same between men and women, boys and girls. The social issues are hard on women and girls and as a result their life is much more difficult. A female respondent aged 29 stated: "The life is very hard for a girl here, always being judged, always being surveyed by the other. It feels like you have to report for everything you have done or not done; always to ask permission for what you want to do...".

Another female respondent stated: "You do not have control on your life. If you want to do something you have to ask for permission, even to go shopping. My brothers are abroad, living their life, they did not ask anyone to go or not, they just did".

In Kukes region most women and girls:
• Depend economically on their husband, father or family;
• Unemployment rate is higher among women than men;
• Because of their family duties they put their career aside to hold their family, especially when children are involved;
• Gender roles like being a housewife, taking care of cooking, cleaning and raising children, isolates women within the walls of their homes and make them dependent to their husband or father for everything that the family needs from outside these walls, like incomes to afford the life.

4. In conclusion

The youth in Kukes region are faced with a wide range of social issues that disturb their life. Unemployment, lack of basic services, lack of infrastructure, gender inequality, disturbs their life, making every day a challenge. Girls are discriminated more than boys because of the old mentality and patriarchal society. The youth living in the villages are faced with much more difficulties that the one that live in the cities. The remote areas, cold long winters, bad roads, lack of infrastructure, are just some of the social issues. From the results, the respondents state that they would prefer to live somewhere else if they have a choice.

References

Territory and Sustainable Economic Development in Morocco

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Abstract

The magnitude of the challenges that are facing Morocco and that are becoming more pressing as the effects of globalization and the opening up of economies argues for the introduction of new concepts and procedures for territories development that combine progress and social justice, economic efficiency and development of natural resources for sustainable development. The latter can not be guaranteed with the participation and the involvement of all local and regional actors in the design of their territorial development projects. Indeed, while the concept and objectives of sustainable development are universal in nature, the application can only be differentiated according to the areas studied. In Morocco, the magnitude of the challenges that are becoming increasingly pressing as the effects of globalization and the opening up of economies argues for the introduction of new concepts and procedures for regional development that combine progress and social justice, economic efficiency and development of natural resources for sustainable development. The latter can not be guaranteed with the participation and involvement of all local and regional actors in the design of their territorial development projects. Our research intends to discuss issues of sustainable development and its necessary local roots. It is twofold: firstly, to show that a sustainable and equitable development involves the creation of competitive territories, generating wealth and protector of natural resources, on the other hand, emphasize the policy initiated by Morocco in order to sustainable development at local level.

Keywords: sustainable development, territorial development, Local Productive Systems, Local Agenda 21, Oasis Tafilalet.

1. Introduction

Le développement durable commence aujourd'hui à susciter une certaine curiosité bienveillante. C'est en particulier le cas dans les domaines de l'aménagement du territoire où l'on constate que cette préoccupation est progressivement intégrée ; souvent sous la pression des réalités de terrain. En effet, la réflexion sur le développement territorial ne peut faire l'impasse d'une réflexion en termes d'équité et d'efficacité et tout un ensemble de raisons militent a priori pour donner progressivement aux territoires une place privilégiée dans les stratégies futures de développement durable.

Ainsi, si le concept et les objectifs de développement durable sont par nature universels, leur application ne peut être que différenciée en fonction des terrains étudiés. Au Maroc, l'ampleur des défis qui viennent de plus en plus pressants sous les effets de la mondialisation et de l'ouverture des économies milite pour l'introduction de nouvelles notions et de nouveaux modes opératoires en matière de développement des territoires qui allient progrès et justice sociale, efficacité économique et valorisation des ressources naturelles pour un développement durable. Ce dernier ne peut être garanti qu'avec la participation et l'implication de tous les acteurs locaux et régionaux dans la conception de leurs projets de développement territorial.

Notre recherche se propose de discuter des enjeux du développement durable et son nécessaire ancrage territorial. Elle poursuit un double objectif : d'une part, montrer qu'un aménagement durable et équitable implique la création de territoires compétitifs, générateur de richesse et protecteur des ressources naturelles; d'autre part, souligner la politique initiée par le Maroc afin d'assurer un développement durable au niveau des territoires.

2. Territoire et développement durable

Le développement durable n'est pas un concept fermé, forgé définitivement: c'est une stratégie en formation, notamment en rapport avec l'action. Cette vision du Développement Durable a forcé des dimensions territoriales variées. En effet, consacré par le Sommet de la Terre de Rio en 1992, le développement durable est aujourd'hui inscrit dans les orientations politiques nationales et internationales. Mais c'est bien à l'échelle des territoires que se dessine depuis quelques années un renouvellement de l'action, inscrivant concrètement le développement durable dans les réalités sociales et économiques.
S'attaquer aujourd'hui de manière conjointe à l'aménagement du territoire et au développement durable est justifié car les difficultés de ces deux domaines ont quelques rapports et on peut envisager des actions de réciprocité des impacts positifs.

2.1 Concept de développement durable


Le concept est donc issu d’un long processus de réflexion lors des négociations internationales menées au sein de l'ONU. Ainsi, la Commission mondiale sur l’environnement et le développement a défini le développement durable comme suit (Burgenmeier, 2007) : « Un processus de changement par lequel l’exploitation des ressources, l’orientation des investissements, des changements techniques et institutionnels se trouvent en harmonie et renforcent le potentiel actuel et futur de satisfaction des besoins des hommes ».

Le point de départ est l’inquiétude de la commission devant les signes de « grave stress subi par les systèmes économiques, environnementaux et sociaux partout dans le monde ». Il s’agit d’associer des considérations environnementales et économiques aux processus décisionnels. La commission postule ainsi que le développement à long terme n’est viable qu’en conciliant le respect de l’environnement, l’équité sociale et la rentabilité économique (Féronè,G., Debas,D., & Genin,A.S., 2004).

Ainsi, le développement doit être général, au sens de la valorisation de l’ensemble des atouts d’un territoire, et équilibré, au sens d’une maîtrise des interactions entre les facteurs et les processus, et intégrer la notion de temporalité : le temps à venir (« satisfaire les aspirations des générations futures »), comme le temps présent (« ne pas sacrifier pour autant les aspirations de la génération actuelle »), et prendre en considération autant l’influence du monde extérieur sur un territoire donné, que la contribution de chaque territoire à l’équilibre de l’écosystème global. Un principe qui renvoie à la notion de co-responsabilité (Vandermotten, C., 2002).

Le développement durable repose en fait sur une nouvelle forme de gouvernance, où la mobilisation et la participation de tous les acteurs de la société civile aux processus de décision doit prendre le pas sur le simple échange d’informations. Le développement durable entend promouvoir la démocratie participative et rénover l’approche citoyenne. L’accès à l’information, et la transparence en sont les pré-requis.

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2.2 L’agenda 21 local : projet territorial de développement durable

L’aménagement et le développement durables des territoires sont aujourd'hui au cœur des préoccupations quotidiennes de l'action publique. Les défis à relever collectivement sont nombreux, qu’il s’agisse de garantir la cohésion sociale, à travers notamment les politiques de l'habitat, de renforcer l'attractivité des territoires ou d’assurer l’intégration de l’environnement dans les projets d’aménagement.

Si l’échelle territoriale apparaît bien a priori comme un point d’appui privilégié des démarches de "développement durable" il est incontestable que c’est à l’échelle des territoires que le "développement durable" a été le plus rapidement et visiblement intégré dans les politiques et ceci sous les formes les plus diverses. En effet, les agendas 21 locaux, se basant sur une philosophie de l’action (Pierron.J.P., 2009), sont devenus la traduction la plus immédiate de « l’intégration » du développement durable dans les politiques publiques.

L'Agenda 21 (ou Action 21) est un plan d'action pour le 21ème siècle adopté par 173 chefs d'État lors du sommet de la Terre, à Rio de Janeiro, en 1992. Avec ses 40 chapitres, ce plan d'action décrit les secteurs où le développement durable doit s’appliquer dans les politiques publiques.

Cet outil permet d'associer l’ensemble des acteurs interne et externe à la collectivité par une véritable sensibilisation aux enjeux actuels de développement durable. C’est donc un projet territorial de développement durable qui se veut :

✓ participatif, mobilisant différents acteurs impliqués sur le territoire,
✓ volontaire, à l’initiative des collectivités,
✓ transversal, coordonnant les différents enjeux, les différentes compétences et les différents niveaux de collectivités,
✓ adapté aux spécificités du territoire,
✓ articulant une logique de long terme à des actions pragmatiques et concrètes.

Les collectivités territoriales sont appelées, dans le cadre du chapitre 28 de l’Agenda 21 de Rio, à mettre en place un programme d’Agenda 21 à leur échelle, intégrant les principes du développement durable, à partir d’un mécanisme de consultation de la population : ainsi naît l’Agenda 21 local. « Elles jouent, au niveau administratif le plus proche de la population, un rôle essentiel dans l'éducation, la mobilisation et la prise en compte des vues du public en faveur d’un développement durable » (Extrait du chapitre 28).

L’Agenda 21 local est qualifié d’une innovation sociale, appliquée à l'aménagement durable et conséquemment à la gestion du territoire (Gagnon, C., 2007), puisqu’il s’agit :

✓ d’une transformation sociale dans la façon de penser et de faire le développement tant sur le plan des énoncés et de la gestion des politiques/actions publiques et privées ;
✓ d’une nouvelle gouvernance territoriale, caractérisée d’une part, par une complémentarité entre la démocratie électorale et participative, et, d’autre part, par la responsabilisation de tous les acteurs territoriaux ;
✓ d’une meilleure transparence dans le mode décisionnel concernant le territoire et sa gestion ;
✓ d’une vision commune et mobilisatrice du territoire ;
✓ d’une démarche en continu du territoire apprenant.

Le programme souligne le rôle déterminant des collectivités locales qui par leurs politiques influent directement sur l’économie, le social et l’environnement et qui par leur proximité à la population peuvent agir en faveur de l’information, l’éducation et la mobilisation en faveur du développement durable.


3. Territoire et développement économique durable au Maroc

Le développement durable ne peut devenir réalité qu’à partir du moment où il est approprié par les territoires et surtout par les acteurs de ces territoires. S’agissant d’un mouvement d’envergure internationale, le Maroc a compris cette exigence et l’a traduite par des pratiques innovantes. Cette partie vise à positionner le Maroc dans cette dynamique et d’analyser les spécificités de sa démarche.

Ce retour au territoire est de nature à redynamiser l’activité économique mais surtout à retrouver la vision du territoire comme espace d’une communauté vivante contribuant efficacement à la cohésion sociale. (Sedjari, A., 1999)

Pour cela, il faut :

- Imaginer des idées nouvelles pour la gestion des territoires ;
- Des approches novatrices d’aménagement du territoire ;
- Des programmes ambitieux pour réduire les écarts entre les différents territoires.

Ainsi, cette nouvelle conception du développement met le territoire au centre de l’action publique. Plusieurs axes stratégiques en matière de développement territorial ont été déclinés. La promotion des réseaux des entreprises pour favoriser la coordination et les coopérations inter-entrepreneurielles, le développement des outils de veille et de l’innovation et la construction d’un environnement institutionnel favorable pour développer un nouveau mode de gouvernance capable de réunir les acteurs locaux avec les compétences nécessaires autour d’une vision commune.

3.1 Les Systèmes productifs locaux : une forme d’organisation productive territorialisée.

Les Systèmes Productifs Locaux (SPL) portent une nouvelle approche qui conçoit le territoire comme un moteur de développement économique favorisant la mise en œuvre d’une intelligence collective réunissant les acteurs locaux autour des projets communs. Ainsi, la démarche SPL conduit à une nouvelle conception du développement dans laquelle le territoire doit détenir la clef de l’action publique, l’acteur central étant désormais l’entreprise et les opérateurs économiques. En effet, chaque territoire, selon ses ressources, ses potentialités propres devrait contribuer au développement de l’activité productive nationale en s’appuyant sur une logique de réseaux qui fait de la solidarité entre les territoires une base pour le développement durable.

Au Maroc, plusieurs projets ont été entrepris par des départements ministériels. En effet, le Ministère chargé de l’industrie avait enclenché en 1997, en partenariat avec l’ONUDI et avec l’appui financier de l’Italie, un projet portant sur les stratégies pour la promotion des réseaux de PMI innovateurs qui contribueront à un développement industriel durable dans le cadre d’une dynamique de développement local. Ainsi, trois filières pilotes ont été choisies en raison de leur importance stratégique et de leur potentialité pour réunir les acteurs locaux autour des projets communs. C’est ainsi que le secteur de l’agriculture intensive de Souss Massa, le secteur tissu de Fès, le secteur de la poterie de Safi et le secteur de la marqueterie de Essaouira ont été choisis.

Dans le même sens, le Ministère du Commerce Extérieur a lancé, toujours dans le cadre du même projet avec l’ONUDI, une initiative visant à encourager les opérateurs économiques, en particulier les PME/PMI, à se regrouper au sein de consortiums d’exportation dans le but d’améliorer leur accessibilité aux marchés extérieurs. Ainsi, tenant compte de l’expérience réussie de création et de développement des consortiums d’exportation durant la période 2003-2010, l’Etat compte donner un nouvel élan à ces groupements à travers la mise en place d’un programme d’appui renforcé d’un nouveau schéma de gouvernance. Ce programme baptisé « Export Synergia » est un instrument d’encouragement destiné à soutenir les consortiums d’exportation durant leur phase de démarrage à travers un accompagnement pour la réalisation des actions visant leur développement à l’international.


- Tanger (textile-habillement),
- Casablanca (mécanique),
- Casablanca (textile-habillement),
- Casablanca (technologies de l’information),
- Souss Massa (agriculture intensive),
- Souss Massa (agriculture extensive),
- Fès (artisanat),
- Guercif (textile habillement),
Cette identification conduit à penser que les conditions d’une coopération entre les acteurs d’un territoire existent effectivement. On constate cependant que sur les deux dimensions principales, à savoir l’engagement sans nuances des pouvoirs publics et l’engagement du monde économique, de grands progrès restent à faire. Des progrès dans cette direction font partie des objectifs des responsables au niveau national. Mais il est clair que la proximité géographique des entreprises peut aider amplement à accélérer ces progrès, à condition que les acteurs économiques concernés au niveau local, les intègrent dans leur stratégie.

La réalité marocaine présente plusieurs concentrations sectorielles et géographiques d’entreprises (systèmes productifs locaux). Cependant, la simple concentration d’entreprises opérant dans le même secteur n’est nullement un gage de succès. En effet, le SPL ne peut être « clé en main », il doit se construire progressivement à partir des habitants et des groupes sociaux en présence de leur histoire et de leur culture, et il doit être capable de s’enraciner et de s’ancrer dans les territoires.

Et pour pouvoir comprendre les tendances mondiales et modifier leurs stratégies, les SPL doivent observer ce qui se passe ailleurs. Il est indispensable qu’ils établissent des contacts avec l’extérieur, qu’ils participent à des chaînes de production internationales et qu’ils s’exposent aux meilleures pratiques internationales pour ne pas rester isolés et risquer l’implosion.

3.2 L’Agenda 21 local : un outil privilégié pour la mise en œuvre du développement durable

Le programme «Agendas 21 locaux pour la promotion de l’environnement et du développement durable en milieu urbain», se basant sur une approche participative, est appliqué dans les villes d’Agadir, Marrakech et Meknès, sur la base d’une première expérience à Essaouira. Ce dernier s’élargit aujourd’hui à d’autres villes et régions, consolidant de ce fait, le mouvement d’expansion et d’enracinement de cette nouvelle approche du développement à l’échelle locale. L’intérêt particulier que suscite ce programme découle de sa finalité qui se ramène à instaurer un processus d’ancrage et de promotion de la bonne gouvernance locale et du développement durable d’une cité.

Ce Programme initié, avec le soutien financier du Ministère marocain de l’aménagement du territoire, de l’eau et de l’environnement et le concours du PNUD, entre 2001-2004, s’est développé depuis par :

- Une extension au niveau de la région Marrakech-Tensift Al Haouz,
- Un programme au niveau de la ville d’El Hajeb,
- Un programme relatif à la province d’El Hoceima,
- Et par un autre programme qui a concerné cinq provinces du Sud.

Les programmes agendas 21 locaux visent à soutenir le développement d’une capacité d’appui aux municipalités et communes pour la préparation et la mise en œuvre d’Agendas 21 locaux. Il s’agit notamment de mettre en œuvre les instruments appropriés en termes de planification stratégique participative, de renforcement des capacités des acteurs locaux, de protection de l’environnement et de conduite de projets à caractère démonstratif.

Il est certain que la concrétisation de cette approche est une œuvre de longue haleine. En effet, Si les efforts d’implication et de mobilisation des acteurs locaux ont permis d’atteindre des résultats éloquents pour certains programmes, il est loin d’être satisfaisant dans certaines villes. Ainsi, des partenaires directs du Programme qui sont habitués à des projets physiques et concrets leur permettant plus de visibilité, conçoivent mal un projet d’appui institutionnel dont les résultats sont, selon eux, très peu palpables. Il a été également remarqué que la participation aux activités du programme est timide de la part de certains élus qui font partie de l’opposition dans le conseil municipal malgré le fait que l’Agenda 21 offre un espace de débat et d’échange à l’ensemble des forces vives de la cité.

3.3 Programme de Développement Durable des Oasis du Tafilalet

Le Programme de Développement Territorial Durable des Oasis du Tafilalet (POT) se situe dans le cadre du plan d’action de la stratégie de la lutte contre la désertification, de la préservation de la diversité biologique et d’autres aspects liés à la gestion de l’environnement. En effet, conscient du problème de dégradation des oasis du Sud, le gouvernement marocain a effectué un diagnostic et élaboré une stratégie et un plan d’action, à la suite desquels ce programme a été préparé pour tenter la création d’une dynamique de développement durable dans les espaces oasiens. Il intervient au niveau de 29 communes afin d’appuyer, valoriser et rendre au Tafilalet son apogée.
Ce territoire dispose d'une richesse architecturale de grande qualité, qu'il faut sauvegarder, notamment les «Ksours» et «qasbahs», des palmeraies productives des meilleures dattes, des paysages fascinants et un système ingénieux de drainage des eaux souterraines (khettara) qui témoigne du savoir faire des hommes de Tafilalet.

Le POT a été mis en œuvre en 2006 par la Direction de l’Aménagement du Territoire, et il s'est renforcé en 2009, grâce à la contribution du Fonds de développement rural (FDR). Son objectif global étant l’élaboration d’un plan de développement territorial durable dans le Tafilalet en se basant sur les plans communaux et intercommunaux de développement. C’est un programme fédérateur puisqu’il implique plusieurs intervenants :

- Le Ministère de l'Habitat, de l'Urbanisme et de l'Aménagement de l'Espace,
- La région Meknès-Tafilalet,
- La province d'Errachidia,
- L'Office de mise en valeur agricole du Tafilalet,
- L'ADS,
- INRA,
- Bailleurs de fonds internationaux : PNUD, Fonds français pour l'environnement mondial (FFEM), le Fonds mondial pour l'environnement,
- la Principauté de Monaco,
- l'ONG internationale CARI France.

Pour préserver sa culture, ses valeurs, ses traditions, son identité et son environnement le Maroc s’est engagé dans une démarche de développement touristique durable. À ce titre, une stratégie pour le développement de l’écotourisme a été élaborée en 2007 pour positionner la Destination Ecotouristique des Oasis et du Désert du Tafilalet à travers un produit écotouristique phare et compétitif : la « Route du Mejhoul », sa finalité est de promouvoir un tourisme durable dans la région, à travers une valorisation rationnelle et pérenne des ressources naturelles des Oasis du Tafilalet tout en intégrant une dimension de développement économique localisé. Il s’agit d’initier plus particulièrement des actions liées à l’accueil avec des acteurs locaux, et de privilégier des retombées directes pour les communautés locales impliquées.

Ce produit écotouristique permet, à travers un circuit, de découvrir plus de 100 variétés de dattes du Pays des oasis du Tafilalet, mais aussi de découvrir les produits de terroir en lien avec la production des dattes dans le Tafilalet : plats, mets, suceries, jus, pattes de dattes, etc…

Le visiteur à travers plusieurs activités ludiques et récréatives va de site en site, d’oasis en oasis découvrir et apprendre ce qu’est une oasis, une Khettara, l’architecture de terre, etc…..

la Route du Mejhoul permet donc de structurer une filière agro-touristique pour la valorisation de la date en mettant en réseau tous les acteurs concernés : hébergeurs, restaurateurs, associations, communes, agriculteurs, coopératives, producteurs, MINTOUR, ORMAVAT, ADS,…

Partenaires du Programme des Oasis de Tafilalet (POT), les gîtes el Khorbat à Tinjdad et Chez Pauline à Tadighoust obtiennent le label Clé Verte pour l’année 2010. Ce résultat est le fruit d’un processus d’encadrement mené par le Programme au profit de l’ensemble des gîteurs adhérents à l’APECTAF (Association des Promoteurs de l’Ecotourisme au Tafilalet).

Les objectifs du projet ne seront atteints qu’avec la mise en place d’outils techniques et pédagogiques. La mobilisation des ressources humaines et financières par une stratégie de communication adaptée, la capitalisation des bonnes pratiques et la réalisation des réajustements éventuels par un système de suivi évaluation efficace ainsi que la collecte, le traitement des données et la production de supports numérique et cartographique dans le cadre d’un système d’information géographique.

4. Conclusion

Personne ne peut se prononcer sur l’efficacité et la capacité des projets menés actuellement à accélérer les dynamiques du développement durable du territoire (Elkadiri,N., 2007). Il est certain que la concrétisation de cette approche est une œuvre de longue haleine. Plusieurs raisons peuvent être citées :

- Une tendance à la bureaucratisation des fonctions communales au détriment des missions de développement;
- Les leviers de développement sont insuffisamment maîtrisés et la perspective stratégique est souvent absente au profit des questions d’urgence et de court terme;
- Les ONG locales manquent de moyens et de compétences;
Des difficultés de coopération entre les acteurs,
Non-assimilation/appropriation des acteurs locaux (élus, services extérieurs, société civile...) des principes du DD.

Le processus d’élaboration des projets de développement territorial devient un enjeu en soi, car la mobilisation des acteurs ne se décrète pas et ne peut être « clés en main ». Elle se construit à travers une ingénierie de la participation des acteurs.

Références

Students' Perceptions and Attitudes toward Sustainable Tourism Development in Albania

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Abstract

Nowadays, tourism in Albania has been considered a new phenomenon. Its growth needs to be managed in order to provide a successful future of tourism and an increase of the potential contribution of tourism for the country's sustainable development. This requires tourism to be developed in a sustainable manner. This study focuses on the perceptions towards sustainable tourism development in Albania. The purpose of this study is to analyze students’ perceptions towards tourism development in Albania in order to understand the nature of tourism impacts in the three dimensions of its development. To obtain necessary data, a structured questionnaire was delivered on-line to all students of the MA program on “Sustainable Tourism Management” at University of Shkodra “Luigj Gurakuqi”. Liker-scale was used to measure the perceptions of the students on tourism development in Albania. The findings from descriptive data analysis provide evidence on the costs and benefits of current development of tourism and also provide students’ suggestions on a sustainable future of tourism in this country. In general, tourism students’ knowledge and perceptions towards sustainable tourism development in Albania have not been analyzed up to now. Through this study we hope to contribute to filling this gap, by offering the first empirical study that measures students’ knowledge towards sustainable tourism development and their suggestions to promote it. Findings of this study are an important contribution for setting up the strategy of sustainable tourism development in Albania.

Keywords: Student’s perception, sustainable tourism development, Albania

1. Introduction

It is recognized that education is the most efficient way to change people thinking to a particular problem and to make the desired change in their attitude.

Nowadays, sustainable development (SD) is a core issue implicating every step of development. In support of SD, it is internationally accepted that education is a vital tool, since achieving SD is essentially a process of learning (UNESCO, 2002). Basically, the SD is a way of thinking about how we organize our lives and work using limited natural resources in order to satisfy needs not only of our generation, but also of future generations. So, SD requires a change in the mental models which structure our thinking and inform our decisions and actions for more responsibility (UNESCO, 2005; 2009). This is reflected in international, national, and regional policies, strategies, and programs on development. On the other hand, there is still no roadmap or ideal strategy which would guarantee achieving the best possible state of sustainability (Tilbury, 2011). The concept of sustainability can be operationalized in a wide variety of ways and the appropriate application of actions for SD depends on the country. Therefore, it is necessary to learn the way towards more sustainable futures (Tilbury, 2011). The general success for any SD policy, strategy, and program depends on peoples’ involvement, acceptance of responsibility and common acting to face the challenges of SD. To ensure these, relevant information needs to be provided for people in order that SD concept to be understood and also applied; moreover their abilities and motivation need to be formed to sustain this course. Through education for SD, it is possible not only to understand SD concept, but also to promote SD and to improve the capability of people to address the issues SD with responsibility.
UNESCO (2009) has defined Higher Education Institutions as a potential driving force of change towards sustainability. In this way, the great challenge of the 21st century for institutions of higher education is to train future professional students capable of acting in favor of SD (Junyent, 2007).

This challenge is even greater in higher education institutions of tourism because the importance of sustainability is particularly a fundamental necessity in tourism (Weawer, 2006). On the one hand, tourism is highly dependent on natural resources, which are often scarce and fragile, and is developed in sensitive socio-cultural environments (Boyle, 2012). On the other hand, tourism is estimated as an important contributor to the SD of a country with potential tourist sources. Recently tourism has been seriously considered in the national SD strategies of many countries. Tourism development (ST) appears to be a very attractive method of achieving the economic growth of a country at a time when all indications are that tourism demand will continue growing in the future years (UNWTO, 2011, 2012). It has the potential to improve the national balance of payments through the new currency introduced by international tourists, to stimulate investment, to diversify the economy, to generate a larger and faster growth in employment than the same investment in another economic activity, to contribute to improving the quality of life, to provide a new ready market for local products and son on (Middleton & Hawkins, 1998; Sharpley, 2004; Swarbrooke, 2002). In this way tourism serves as agent of development in many countries, but the rapid unlimited growth and non-right management of the tourism puts pressure on the environment of traditional and new tourist destinations, making that an agent of harmful change (Middleton & Hawkins, 1998).

Given these considerations, the tourism industry is confronted with serious and difficult choices about its future. This happens because the decisions made now will affect the lifestyles and economic opportunity of residents in tourism destinations for decades. Many of these decisions are irreversible because once communities lose the character that makes them distinctive and attractive to nonresidents, they have lost their ability to compete for tourist-based income in an increasingly global and competitive marketplace (Dibra & Dhora, 2012). Therefore, it is necessary to plan and develop tourism to be environmentally and social-economically sustainable. Establishing of a suitable balance between these three dimensions is exactly a guarantee for long-term sustainability in tourism (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005). In the efforts to achieve this, on the one hand, it should maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction, ensure strong awareness about sustainability issues and promote ST practices amongst them, and on other hand, it should provide (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005) the following:

- Economic sustainability, which means realization of the viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits that are fairly distributed to all stakeholders, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities, contributing to poverty mitigation;
- Social-cultural sustainability, which means respect of the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, protection and preservation of their material and living cultural heritage and traditional values, contribution to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance, and generation of a better quality of life;
- Environmental sustainability, which means optimal use of environmental resources that represent a key element in tourism development, maintaining vital ecological processes and helping to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity.

Within this context, it is clear that abilities and competences for management with responsibility of tourism destinations and businesses for the sustainable future need to be developed for tourism management students who are the future industry leaders and managers. For this, ST in higher education institution is learnt not only to gain knowledge about theories related to sustainable tourism but it also calls for students’ changing mindsets and their active commitment in matters relating to more ST futures (Dibra & Oelfke, 2011).

Many international network of tourism educators and industry practitioners as The Tourism Education Futures Initiative (TEFI), International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators (ISTTE), the BEST Education Network, etc have also recognized sustainability as an important value to be communicated through tourism education and have published some studies on teaching ST. However, there are no studies to assess what tourism students actually feel about sustainability in tourism development of a country.

The authors of this study examine and analyze the perceptions of tourism management students toward the importance of tourism development in a sustainable manner, current impacts of tourism development in their country, and also examine the most important suggestions of the students for further development of tourism in a sustainable manner in their country.
2. **Scope and Significance of the Study**

The space of this study lies in Albania, where tourism is considered as a new phenomenon and where the growth of tourism must be well managed for the sustainable future of tourism in Albania. There is a rich, natural and historical-cultural heritage as basic resource supporting tourism in Albania. The existence of many unique tourist resources create opportunities to develop cultural, coastal, mountainous (green and white), adventure tourism, etc in Albania. Only after the '90-ties, with the opening of Albania to the world, tourism has been made part of the country’s development policies and strategies of the government. These policies have determined tourism as a priority industry for the rapid and SD of the country (MTKRS, 2003, 2007). In this way, tourism especially, is expected to play a leading role in achieving a balance between the social-economic development and environmental protection in Albania. However, the success of these policies is often evaluated primarily through the ability to increase tourist numbers. In fact, according to INSTAT (2012), the number of international visitors until 2012 increased 11.9 times more than in 1995. This is not enough if we seek to develop ST. As tourism continues to grow in Albania, the tourism industry faces serious and difficult choices about its future. In ensuring that tourism development is going in the right direction, a number of political actions have been determined. However, governmental commitment to sustainable tourism development (STD) in Albania has not always submitted into practice, besides, the current practice of tourism businesses in Albania have not helped STD (Dibra & Oelfke, 2011). The growing attention to tourism development in Albania has been driven by the short-time economic benefits that the industry can bring. However, the decisions made will affect the social-economic aspects of the life of residents for the present and the future. Based on the appealing attractions of Albania to tourism market, to differentiate itself regionally and internationally, many of these decisions, which will lead to the loss of its character and make it distinctive and attractive to this market, may be irrevocable. Consequently, this will lead to the loss of competitive opportunities of Albania for income from tourism and only low prices can keep it in the market. If we want to avoid the serious damage of the resources on which tourism depends, then this growth must be well managed for sustainable future of tourism in Albania. In the management of tourism towards sustainability, the higher education institutions of tourism in Albania should be a potential driving force because tourism students will be future manager of tourism. For this, the authors of the research want to see how students of tourism management perceive the importance of tourism development in a sustainable manner in Albania, how they estimate the impacts of actual tourism development in their country and how the students are future-oriented in finding innovative and effective solutions to issues affecting the sustainable future of tourism in Albania. The research was strictly focused on all students of MA program on “Sustainable Tourism Management” (STM) at the University of Shkodra “Luigi Gurakuqi” in Albania. This is because of the fact that the students involved in this study are longer exposed to the curricula of STD, and are more familiar with this subject through the analysis of different case studies related to the sustainable tourism development.

This study is a continuation of the work of its authors as educators of the 21st century who are involved in the global sustainability course through their ongoing discussions with the purpose of promoting the STD and improving the role of High Education Institutions in this respect. Specifically, this study enables the researchers to shed light on tourism students’ feedback on actual tourism development in Albania and on their perspectives to address the issues of STD in Albania with responsibility. The findings of this study provide evidence to the costs and benefits of current development of tourism in Albania, and also present suggestions on a sustainable future of tourism in this country. Therefore, information from this study can assist Albanian politician makers in their work to prepare the long-term strategy for sustainable tourism development in Albania. Until then, the knowledge and perceptions of tourism students towards sustainable tourism development have not been studied. With this study we hope to contribute to filling this gap by offering a first empirical research that measures tourism students’ knowledge and perspectives to promote and implement sustainability practices in tourism.

3. **Methodology**

The research scheme supposes that the perceptions and attitudes of students of MA program on STM about the impact of actual tourism development determine solutions offered by them to tourism development for sustainable future. The type of design used was exploratory. A quantitative research method was used to cover the objectives and contents of this study. A questionnaire was designed as an instrument to collect data because it is estimated as the most popular research method for measuring attitudes and providing numerous, organized and reliable data. The literature was explored to develop the items of questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed as a structured one, with closed questions which facilitate management, tabulation, data analysis, the response of the respondents and makes these
responses reliable. The questionnaire comprised four sections. The first section was about the importance of sustainable tourism development in Albania. Construction of the second section of the questionnaire was based on the purpose of sustainable tourism development to maximize the positive impacts and minimize the negative impacts of tourism development. For this, the second section consisted of 43 attitudinal statements concerning the economic, social-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism development in Albania. All statements were measured using on five-point Likert scale, ranging from 'strongly agree' (1) to 'strongly disagree' (5). The third section required from students to rank suggestions in the order of importance for the further development of tourism for sustainable future. The last section was the demographic profile of student respondents.

The population of interest for this study was all students attending the summer term in MA program of STM at the University of Shkodra. The total number was 54 students. The major premise from which researchers started this study was that the students of this study program already have theoretical and practical knowledge on sustainable tourism development. they have accumulated it over the years of study in this study program, and they have knowledge about tourism development in Albania as residents and also as future managers of tourism in Albania.

A research software tool, Qualtrics, as a fast and easy method to deliver the questionnaire, to collect data on-line, to keep anonymity, to encourage response to sensitive issues, and to process the data collected was used. The survey was conducted in May 2013 for 3 days. A total of 50 students completed the questionnaires, accounting to a response rate of 92.59%.

Descriptive statistical methods were employed to analyze the responses collected in the research. To interpret these results, the five level of Likert scales were differed by 0.80 point as follows: Class interval= (Maximum score - Minimum score)/Class number = (5-1)/5=0.80. So, the applied scales in the study to interpret the calculated mean scores of Likert scales are: 1 – 1.80 = strongly agree (SA); 1.81 – 2.60 = agree (A); 2.61 – 3.40 = neutral (N); 3.41 – 4.20 = disagree (D); 4.21 – 5.00 = strongly disagree (SD). The calculated mean scores were ranked from the lowest mean to highest one in the respective tables.

4. Findings and Discussion

Profile of the respondents: 52% of the students responded the survey at the end of the first year and 48% of them at the end of the second year of MA study program on Sustainable Tourism Management. The majority of respondents (74%) were female. The main age group was 21-25 years old, representing 90% of the respondents; the others were 26-30 years old. With regard to employment, only 36% of respondents stated that they do jobs related to tourism, while 16% of respondents stated they are currently employed in different sectors of industry other than tourism and the rest weren’t employed. Of 50 survey students, 94% were Albanian and 6% were Montenegrin. The authors believe that the main reason for the respondents’ answers about their level of knowledge on tourism development in Albania may be the country of residence. 84% of them stated that they had a lot of knowledge, and 16% of them stated that they had average knowledge about the content of the questionnaire.

Respondents’ perceptions towards the importance of sustainable tourism development: All the students surveyed agreed strongly (mean=1.08 and S.Dev.= 0.28) that tourism development in our country guarantees success if it were developed in sustainable manner. They strongly believed (mean=1.53 and S.Dev.=0.58) that only developed in this manner, can tourism be one of the main ways through which Albania may achieve rapid and sustainable development.

Attitudes towards Perceived Overall Impact of Tourism: In general, students had positive attitudes towards the overall impact of tourism development in Albania (the average value of all means of impact items = 2.18). Moreover, figures revealed by the survey clearly confirmed that the students view more positive aspects than negative ones of tourism development in this country. The average value of all means of positive impact items is 1.99 while that of the negative impact items has the value of 2.401. Regarding their attitude towards three aspects of tourism development, the students showed more favorable attitude to the economic impacts of tourism development (mean=2.10). They felt that tourism industry would play a major economic role in Albania. Following the economic impact of tourism, social-cultural impacts and environmental impacts of tourism are evaluated relatively favorably (respective means 2.24 and 2.44). Analytically, on the one hand, students felt more the positive impacts in economic aspect of tourism development (mean=1.94), on other hand, they believed that the negative impacts of tourism are more present in the environment (mean=2.31), whereas, data on negative social-cultural impacts of tourism development disclosed a conservative stand of students to the influence of tourism in this aspect of development (the respective overall average 2.65).

1 the smaller value of the mean shows a greater approval of impact item
Attitudes towards Perceived Economic Impacts of Tourism Development: Based on the mean scores of each impact item (Table 2), students respondents tend to strongly agree that tourism has provided more desirable job opportunities and new business development opportunities for the community (mean=1.43) and has attracted more investment and spending for the Albanian people (mean=1.59) than other sectors. Further, the findings reveal the approval of the respondents on other positive economic impacts as: “visitors spending promote the development of the Albanian economy” (mean=1.67), “tourism has created a new ready market for our local products” (mean=1.82), “tourism has helped to improve the infrastructure facilities to the tourist areas” (mean=2), and “tourism makes possible the survival of peripheral attractive areas” (mean=2.16). Moreover, students’ respondents believed that the tourism development had helped to increase both national government revenues (mean=2.02) and local government revenues (mean=2.16). However, their attitude became neutral concerning the economic impact “Residents revenue has increased because of tourism” (mean=2.63) which means that students nullify it as positive economic impact of tourism in Albania. Further findings on the perceived negative economic impacts of tourism clarify their attitude in this aspect. Therefore, students agreed strongly that tourism creates more seasonal job opportunities (mean=1.73). Moreover, they believed that work in tourism is paid less (mean=2.06) than in other sectors, that the development of tourism has dramatically increased construction costs and land prices in tourism areas (mean=2.1), that tourist industry in non-urban tourist areas has employed more people from urban areas than local residents (mean=2.49), and that the cost of living of residents is increased by tourism (mean=2.53). However, they kept a conservative attitude towards the possibility of leaving out the majority of the money earned from tourism (mean=3.13). The authors believe that this attitude comes from the fact that the majority of tourism businesses in Albania are local SMEs.

Attitudes towards Perceived Social-Cultural Impacts of Tourism Development: With regard to social-cultural impacts of tourism development in Albania (Table 3), students have more positive perceptions (mean=1.98) than negative ones. According to the survey findings, students believed strongly that tourism has provided an incentive for the restoration of historical and traditional buildings in Albania (mean=1.54). That’s why, it is not particularly surprising about the finding that there are favorable perceptions towards social-cultural aspects of tourism, in that that tourism has increased good understanding and cultural exchange between people (mean=1.85), pride of residents for their country (mean=1.89), the image of the country in the eyes of others (mean=1.90), educational opportunities (mean=2.17) and cultural events (mean=2.06), entertainment and recreational opportunities (mean=2.19), presence and quality of public service (mean=2.30) for local people, the possibilities of not abandonment from residents of the remote peripheral areas (mean=2.18), and the possibilities of the economic power of women due to increased number of jobs created for women by tourism (mean=2.33). Recognizing the fact that survey population is composed of young students might lead to a more favorable perception towards the positive social-cultural impacts. However, the data revealed that tourism has also provided some negative, social-cultural impacts such as growth of traffic accidents in summer tourist season (2.17), imitation of the behavior and life style of the tourists (mean=2.58). Moreover, they revealed that the survey students kept a conservative attitude towards other social-cultural impacts such as the possible changes in the style and forms of traditional arts and crafts due to tourism (mean=2.61), the possibility of cash benefits from tourism by a small group of people only (mean=2.66), and an increase in social problems such as crime, drug use, prostitution, alcoholism in the community by tourism (mean=3.25).

Attitudes towards Perceived Environmental Impacts of Tourism Development: Findings about environmental impacts of tourism development in Albania (Table 4) show that the most favored impact item by students is “tourism increases attention to regulatory measures for the management and maintenance of the environment in the tourism area” (mean=1.78). Also, the students felt that tourism provides increased awareness and appreciation of environment (mean=1.82), an incentive for the protection and conservation of environment (mean=1.94) and a higher standard of roads and other public facilities than they would be otherwise (2.38). On the other hand, further data disclosed that regulatory measures designed for the management and maintenance of the environment in the tourism area were not

**Table 1:** The average value of all means of impact items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourism Impacts</th>
<th>Positive impacts</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Negative impacts</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Overall Impacts</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic Impacts</td>
<td>1.94 (A)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.34 (A)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.10 (A)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social-cultural Impacts</td>
<td>2.04 (A)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.65 (N)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.24 (A)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Impacts</td>
<td>1.98 (A)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.31 (A)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.44 (A)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall impacts of tourism</td>
<td>1.99 (A)</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.40 (A)</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.18 (A)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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always translated into practice. The following findings confirm this with the level of acceptance by students on existence of negative environmental impacts as: The informal and not suitable construction of tourist facilities is destroying the natural environment (mean=1.7), the noise level in tourism areas has increased by tourism during summertime (mean=1.8), tourism has increased the traffic congestion in/to the tourist area during summer season (1.84), tourism has begun to transform some tourist areas in overcrowded urban territory (2.1), tourist activities are causing the migration/the extinction of many species of fauna (mean=2.26), visitors’ litter have reduced the attractiveness of landscapes (mean=2.44), tourism is responsible for water pollution in rivers, lakes and seas because of the discharge of untreated sewage from tourist facilities (mean=). However, their attitude became neutral for other environmental impacts as “tourism development is responsible for the forest destruction in or round the tourist area” (mean=2.73) and “tourism development is responsible for the limitation of power and drinking water at some areas surrounding tourist spots during summertime” (mean=3.38) which means that students nullify these impacts as negative environmental impacts of tourism development in Albania.

Respondents’ suggestions for further tourism development in Albania: The findings of the survey show that the most expressed suggestion of the students concerning tourism development for sustainable future was the composition of the long-term strategy for the sustainable tourism development in Albania (mean=4.14).2 and the increase of cooperation between the private sector, public sector and the community in the planning and management of tourism (mean=4.28). This means that the tourism development in Albania should be designed and controlled by all stakeholders of tourism in order to minimize the negative tourism impacts and enlarge positive ones. Besides, new ways should be proposed in this process to improve the future of tourism in order that all stakeholders profit from sustainable tourism development. Decrease of tourism attractiveness in the environment of some areas in Albania has led the students to make some suggestions as: the need for the physical and integrated planning of tourist areas in accordance with their natural and historic character (mean=4.67); the need for the further improvement (mean=5.35) of road infrastructure and tourism signage to and in tourist areas, public support facilities (as provision of parking, electricity, water and telecommunication, the public and green spaces, waste and sewage management); as well as the need for resolving the problem on the legal land ownership of and legal construction in tourist areas for successful urban planning, safe and competitive investments, and sustainable future of tourism in those areas (mean=7.69). The sixth most expressed suggestion concerning further tourism development was more orientation of tourism towards alternative forms, such as cultural tourism, ecotourism, agro tourism, cycle tourism, and the development of thermal spas (mean=8.35). With this suggestion, they see the need to develop more sustainable forms of tourism, as well as to target specific international markets in order to diversify tourism product of Albania from the neighboring competitive countries, successfully profiled in 3S tourism. Moreover, they have expressed the suggestion that there is a necessity of improvement and intensification of promotion to make possible the further penetration of Albania in the western tourist market (mean=8.86). Besides, to increase the positive impacts of tourism and reduce the negative ones, students suggested as necessary the effective control of tourism development through the implementation of laws, regulatory measures, land use plans, and standards related to tourism activity (mean=8.98). In order to achieve sustainable tourism development, students considered also reducing the seasonality of tourism development in Albania as of a special importance (mean=9). They understand that the process of stimulating tourism demand of off-peak season would increase revenue from tourism while putting less pressure on the environment and community in peak season. As the future managers of tourism, survey students understand the importance of tourism human resources as the key basis of quality tourism offer. Therefore they suggested improving the building process of professional capacity in the tourism sector (9.63). To increase further the level of Albania’s integration in the global tourism market, the students considered promotion of Foreign Direct Investment in the development of tourist resorts of a special significance (mean=9.84). Since the tourism in Albania is already in early stages of its development, to promote the mobilization of investment in tourism, students also suggested the creation of a supportive climate of tourism businesses leading to cost reduction of doing business (mean=9.98.). It may be necessary to promote investment in mountainous areas tourism through the creation of fiscal incentives for business investors, to provide tourist services with competitive prices comparing European ones, through reducing value added tax, and promoting the integration of sustainable tourism practices in tourism business activity, which lead finally in reduction of their operation cost. At the end, students have also asked the definition of an indicator system for monitoring sustainable tourism development and the creation of an efficient system of collecting and disseminating information on tourism’s development (mean=10.98). Thus, students understand that the efforts to develop strategies for sustainable tourism without sufficient management information would reduce the process of the aspiration towards it.

2 the smaller value of the mean shows a greater priority of strategy
5. Conclusions

Taking into consideration the outcomes of this research, one can conclude that tourism development in Albania has been associated with its costs and benefits. Despite that, findings from the main component analysis showed that Albanian people has received more benefits than costs from the tourism development. The last brought more economic benefits increasing the employment and business opportunities and improving local infrastructure, growing governmental revenue as well.

However, greater environmental costs were major concerns as they had evidenced negative impacts. Although the tourism industry had become the basis of economic growth in Albania, students remained careful about tourism development. Their suggestions aimed to enlarge tourism benefits with a parallel effort to reduce the consequences deprived by tourism, in order to orient tourism development in a more sustainable manner.

References


Table 2: Students’ Perception towards Economic Impacts of Tourism in Albania

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Likert scale</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td><strong>Positive economic impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tourism provides more desirable job opportunities and new business development opportunities for the community.</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tourism attracts more investment and spending</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Visitors spending are injection for the Albanian economy.</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Tourism creates a new ready market for our local products</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Investments in the public infrastructure and other facilities have increased by tourism</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The national government revenue has increased by growth of tourism</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tourism has increased tax revenues for local governments</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Tourism makes possible the survival of peripheral areas attractive</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Revenue of residents has increased because of tourism</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Negative economic impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Tourism creates more job opportunities seasonal</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Work in tourism paid less.</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Development of tourism has dramatically increased construction costs and land prices in tourism areas</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The tourist industry in non-urban tourist areas has employed more people from urban areas than local residents</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The cost of living of residents is increasing by tourism</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Most of the money earned from tourism development in our country ends out of Albania</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total economic impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total negative social-cultural impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total positive social-cultural impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Students’ Perception towards Social-Cultural Impacts of Tourism in Albania

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Likert Scale</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total positive social-cultural impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tourism has provided an incentive for the restoration of historical and traditional buildings</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Meeting tourists has increased good understanding and cultural exchange between people.</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pride of residents for natural and historic-cultural heritage of their country has increased due to tourism</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The image of the country in the eyes of others has increased</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tourism is encouraging more cultural events for the local residents</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>There are more educational opportunities for locals due to tourism</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Development of tourism reduces depopulation of peripheral tourist areas</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Entertainment and recreational opportunities for local people have increased by tourism</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Tourism has led to an increase of presence and quality of public service for local people</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Women are gaining more economic power due to more created jobs for women by tourism</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total negative social-cultural impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Tourism growth in summertime increases traffic accidents</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Tourism encourages residents to imitate the behavior, live style of the tourists</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The commercial demand of tourists causes changes in the style and</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
forms of traditional arts and crafts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Likert Scale</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Cash income from tourism goes in benefit of a small group of people</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Tourism has increased social problems such as crime, drug use, prostitution, alcoholism in the community</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total social-cultural impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.24</strong></td>
<td><strong>A</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Students’ Perception towards Environmental Impacts of Tourism in Albania

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Likert Scale</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tourism adds attention to regulatory measures for the management and maintenance of the environment in the area</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tourism helps to increase awareness and appreciation of environment</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Tourism provides an incentive for the protection and conservation of natural resources</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Due to tourism roads and other public facilities are kept at a higher standard than they would be otherwise</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total positive environmental impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.98</strong></td>
<td><strong>A</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The informal and not suitable construction of tourist facilities is destroying the natural environment</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Noise level in tourism areas has increased by tourism during summertime</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tourism increases the traffic congestion in/to the tourist area during summer season</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Tourism has began to transform some tourist areas in overcrowded urban territory</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Tourist activities are causing the migration/the extinction of many species of fauna</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Visitors’ litter have reduced the attractiveness of landscapes</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Tourism is responsible for water pollution in rivers, lakes and seas of our country of the discharge of untreated sewage from tourist facilities</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Tourism development is responsible for the forests’ destruction in or round the tourist area</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Tourism development is responsible for the limitation of energy, water at some areas surrounding tourist area during summertime</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total environmental impacts of tourism</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.20</strong></td>
<td><strong>A</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Wilhem Wied and the Movement of Northern Epirus: The Protocol of Corfu

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Abstract

After the independence of Albania, the six Great Powers decided that the throne of Albania would be given to a Western Prince, Wilhem von Wied, who would lead the country in a difficult moment and politically destabilized, and considering the territorial claims of the neighbor countries such as Serbia, Montenegro and Greece. Prince accepted the throne, and of course with the promise of help from the Great Powers. Obviously running a country, which besides, was unknown to the Prince, would present difficulties. A fundamental problem was the one that relates to a movement created by Athens, called "the movement for autonomy of Northern Epirus". A movement which was contrary to the decisions of the Great Powers, and of course was very problematic for the new Monarch. However, this event became even more complicated after the suggestion of The International Commission of Control, on some concessions to the "Vorio Epirotans". This led to the signing of an agreement with "Vorio-Epirus", in Corfu which is known as the "Protocol of Corfu ". Issues about "The Movement of Northern Epirus", the relations of Wied and his government with it will be considered more extensively in this study. The "Protocol of Corfu" issues. Why The Protocol of Corfu agreement was rejected by the government of Turhan Pasha and the reasons for its ratification by the same government will be considered as well.

Keywords: movement, autonomy, agreement, fighting, controversy, violation

1. Introduction

The decisions of the Conference of Ambassadors in London 1913, would lead to major changes in the Albanian cause. The main decisions were related to the definition of the borders and delimitation of the status of Albania. In the definition of the borders, decisions were taken considering the demands of neighboring countries, where the Albanian lands became a prey available to their territorial ambitions. From these decisions to Albania were parted about three quarters of the land area and divided between Montenegro, Serbia, Macedonia and Greece. To determine these borders was decided to establish a committee to work at the place, called the International Commission of Control (Akademia e shkencave, 2007).

For determining the status of Albania they decided to turn it into an autonomous Principality, on top of which would set up a Prince, which will be determined by the Great Powers. For selecting the prince different figures were reviewed and among them were Western figures, some of which with royal descent. There were proposals for Mohammedan figures, but these figures were not suitable, especially for the situation in which Albania was after the declaration of Independence by the Turkish Empire. Even Albanian patriotic figures strongly opposed the election of a Mohammedan prince. Faik Konica, who was the representative of Vatra Federation, published an article at the press of the time, in which it argued that such a choice would be a setback for Albania, especially now that she wanted to turn the eyes to the West, by become part of European progress. (Faik Konica, 1913) After taking into account these candidates with the proposal of Austria-Hungary and Italy, it was decided that the King of Albania would be Prince Wilhem von Wied. This decision was well received by Albanian circles, hoping to create a united Albanian principality. There were circles who opposed this choice considering Wied as a man without political achievement and without prosperity, prosperity that is aiming to win in Albania (Tarabosh, 1913).

2. The Movement of Northern Epirus

In fact, the prince knew nothing about this country with various issues, but he made the acceptance of the post after receiving the promise of the Great Powers for their assistance in governance. Shortly after his arrival in Durres, Prince was faced with problems which were related directly with the determination of the borders of Albania, and with the extent
violent actions in Korça, and they even hired some armed troops. Wied itself and the government of Durres were concerned, they strongly rejected the claims of Zografos and the Spiro Spiromilo, who declared the autonomy of Himara together with its 7 villages. (Valentina Duka, 2007, pg. 65).

Powers, and even of the Prince or the Greece. Problems would increase even more, when the same did the himarian, small minority who came here centuries ago (Valentina Duka, 2007, pg. 35).

This proved to be only a maneuver of them, because very soon Greeks encouraged the creation of a new movement against the regime of the Prince, who demanded the autonomy of the North – Epirus. This movement was called "The movement for Autonomy of Northern Epirus". Participants in this movement were Albanians filogreek and some Greek forces, which had remained here after the retreatment of Greek troops from Korça, waiting to be reactivated. (Akademia Shkencave, 2007, pg.60-61). Their actions were violent, burning villages and massacring the innocent population, which refused to be part of this movement.

To formalize this motion, a congress was held in Gjirokastër, which announced in March 2, 1914 the autonomy of Northern Epirus and his provisional government, on the head of which was placed Jorgji Zografos, the former Greek Minister of Foreign Affairs originating from Gjirokastra. He said that he would not accept the intervention of the Great Powers, and even of the Prince or the Greece. Problems would increase even more, when the same did the himarian, Spiro Spiromilo, who declared the autonomy of Himara together with its 7 villages. (Valentina Duka, 2007, pg. 64-65). Wied itself and the government of Durres were concerned, they strongly rejected the claims of Zografos and the violent actions in Korça, and they even hired some armed troops.

Seeing the situation, ICC, with the proposal of Austria-Hungary, was of the opinion that, to "Northern Epirotans" had to be made some concessions that had to do with the guarantee of equal religious rights; the rights to the introduction of languages, spoken here, in schools; inclusion of elements from the South in Albanian army. Regarding the change of borders, requested by the Greek government, the Great Powers agreed with some border adjustments in kaza of Gjirokastër, as it was agreed with Mr. Venizelos, but regarding the change of borders in kaza of Korça, the Triple Alliance was opposed to the request because it conflicted with the decisions of the Conference of London (Valentina Duka, FO 421/292, Doc. Nr. 49, March 8, 1914 , Telegram i Sir F. Elliot për Sir Edward Grey).

The "Northern Epirus" forces clashed with the royal troops, but despite the brave fighting, it was increasingly difficult to continue resisting, and because of the fact that the movement had more than moral support from Greece. Situated in these positions, the king and the government had to decide how they should proceed in relation to this matter. Colonel Thomson, second in command of the army in Mission, was of the opinion that in this case to win should be used the "diplomacy", considering an opponent, military, very much stronger than the Prince forces. (Captain Heaton Armstrong, 2001, pg.62).

Wied decided to send as his and the government representative, Colonel Thompson, to negotiate with Zografos and to recover the southern provinces. A military very prepared, but not with much experience in the field of diplomacy (Arben Puto, 2009, pg. 136).

As a place for negotiation was assigned the Greek island of Corfu, whose decision will be known as the "Protocol of Corfu". In fact the negotiations were held twice, on 10 March and 17 May. In this meeting, Thompson negotiated with the representative of the government of "Northern Epirus", Karapanos, a deputy of Arta at the Chamber of Deputies in Greece, and now Minister of Foreign Affairs in the government of Zografos (Valentina Duka, 2007, pg.65).

At the first phase of negotiation, were presented by the "Northern Epirotans", some very ambitious claims, which meant a detachment of southern Albania. Regions of Gjirokastër and Korca will be passed under the administration of a local government and gendarmerie. Albanian government forces had no right to interfere, just in case of war. In schools would be obligatory the Greek language for a population that was predominantly Albanian and with Albanian as mother language. (Arben Puto, 2009, pg. 137).

The decisions of the Protocol of Corfu flagrantly violated the decisions of the London Conference over the sovereignty of Albanian lands. These decisions were not well received by the Albanian government, which accused Colonel Thompson for exceeding the powers. She rightly claimed that the powers conferred by the Prince to the Colonel had to do with the manner of the reception of the provinces of South and the measures to maintain law and order there.
and not making the negotiations on terms of a political nature. Situated in these circumstances the Colonel gave to the Prince his resignation. The British Consul in Albania, Harry Lamb, thought that his resignation was a misfortune, because he appreciated the personality of Colonel Thompson and his skills in reorganizing the army in Albania. He was the only one who could have an effective control over the Toptani Esat Pasha, who was afraid of him. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/292, Doc. Nr. 69, 29 Mars, 1914, Telegram i Sir Edward Grey për Sir F. Elliot).

The government did not ratify the agreement made by Thompson and rejected it. In fact it seems like Colonel Thompson was an element that worked in disfavor of the Albanian state, but this is not true, because he was a capable officer, who made a great contribution to the preservation of order in a country with a difficult political situation. He lost his life in the struggle against rebels in Durrës in middle of June 1914, defending order, which was part of his mission. (Arben Puto, 2009, pg. 137).

On the other hand, the Greek Foreign Minister and the Venizelos government repeatedly made request to the Great Powers and to Sir Edward Grey specifically, for a positive response regarding the boundaries of the South of Albania in favor of "Northern Epirotns", because according to him, the Greek government was in a difficult position by not having the opportunity to act in their support and keeping a backseat. The great powers had no intention to discuss more about these claims, but they guarantee the intervention for the provision of religious and linguistic rights (Valentina Duka, FO 421/292, Doc. Nr. 31, 23 Mars, 1914, telegram nga Sir Edward Grey per Sir F. Elliot).

Regarding the issue of changing the borders, the Great Powers returned the same answer back to Greece through a note proposed by the Triple Alliance, in which it was clear that some adjustments can be made on the border of Gjirokastra, but no way over Korça. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 80, Prill 13, 1914, Telegram i konsullit te përgjithshem, Lamb per Sir Edward Grey).

The non ratification of the agreement of Corfu, made happen that, the pressure of "Northern Epirotns" to the local population and the government of Wied to be raised even more. A part of the filogreek population tried to provoke incidents in Korça, but the population was measured and did not responded to provocations, however, everything was planned and so to the first week of April armed gangs came burning the city. (Joseph Swire, Tirana: Dituria, 2005, pg.170).

Despite that the Greek troops, forced by the Great Powers, were retreated from the territory of South, the movement of "Northern Epirus", was aided by the Greek armed gangs. In Korça, the Greek bishop Germanos, organized a complot with some Albanian filogreeks, some Greek soldiers, who were deliberately left in hospitals, and by Greek bands (Edwin Jacques, Albanians, Tirana: Kartë dhe pendë, pg. 385). The fighting continued for about 4 days. The citizens of Korça who joined the gendarmerie forces, managed to defeat Greek bands. Greeks, with rage burned the Christian neighborhood in Korça, even though they were fighting to protect their rights (Edwin Jacques, Albanians, Tirana: Kartë e Pendë, pg. 386). The fate of the Metropolitan who was the organizer of the complot was determined by the Dutch officer, who commanded the army forces in Korça, he decided to remove him for safety reasons in Elbasan (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 72, 9 Prill, 1914, Telegram i konsullit te përgjithshem Lamb për Sir Edward Grey).

Although Korça was taken by Albanian government, Greek bands continued their atrocities to Albanians, but now even more terrible. Greece had thought well about the reprisals actions to Albanians, she had brought from Crete prisons, hardened criminals specifically for this job. One of the Albanian villages that suffered most from the Greek atrocities was Kodra village, situated near Tepelena. The tragedy of this village, but not only, was discussed in parliamentary debate of June 29, 1914, in the Chamber of Commons in the British Parliament. The British parliamentary, Aubrey Herbert, delivered a long speech, in which he discussed the reports and facts coming from Albania about the deplorable situation of hundreds of villages raped by gangs of "Northern Epirotns". (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 91, 1 Maj, 1914, Telegram i konsullit te përgjithshem, Lamb to Sir Edward Grey).

Reports on the situation in villages raped, were sanded by the British consul in Albania, Mr. Lamb to Sir Edward Grey. In them he reflects the difficult situation in these villages, about the massacred population by Greek bands equipped with artillery. While in Durres, which was filled with numerous refugees, was growing the pressure on the government to take a firm decision on the occupation of the southern provinces. According to him: if the powers do not decide in favor of an active intervention, it will be very difficult for the Prince, I think, to continue to resist the popular demand for military action, despite seeming impossibilities in the measures he has in his hand. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 91, 1 Maj, 1914, Telegram i Konsullit te Përgjithshem, z.Lamb për Sir Edward Grey).

Meanwhile the Athens government continued diplomatic battle. The main issue was to convince the Great Powers about the Greece’s effort to calm the aggravated situation in Epirus and its exclusion of military troops from the "Vorio Epirus" troops. The removal of Greek troops from the territory of Albania in late March was not so full, so there was a

...
possibility of intervention by the forces of the Great Powers for their removal and to transfer the power peacefully to the Albanian Government. The intervention of the Great Powers troops was not in the interest of Greece, so it sent a note to the ministers of the Great Powers, in which it stated that the Greek troops were now ready to be removed within the time specified by the Powers (31 March), it pledged to maintain peace in the Greek population of "Northern Epirus" and also demanded the retreatment of the troops of the Powers, until reaching an agreement between the Albanian government and Zografos. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/292, Doc. Nr. 81, 30 Mars, 1914, telegram i Sir F. Elliot pwr Sir Edward Grey). Powers decided to retreat their troops, but they situated there a local gendarmerie organized by Dutch officers.

The situation continued to become even more difficult, while the Albanian government had absolutely no intend to accept any kind of agreement in which included a separatist regime in South provinces, a decision that was strongly backed by the British Consul in Albania, Mr. Harry Lamb. Even he couldn't accept that the Christian population can be justified in their demands for more guarantees as a Christian population, when its governed by a Christian King and is under the control of the International Commission. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/292, Doc. Nr. 73, 9 Prill, 1914, Telegram i Konsullit të Përëtjshëm, Lamb për Sir Edward Grey).

Seeing that the achievement of "Autonomy of Northern Epirus" was impossible, even for the reason that he couldn't get the support of the Great Powers, Zografos decided to give up of the claims for the political autonomy of Epirus, but now he had some new proposals and for which he expected that the Albanian government would response. The Greek Minister, hoped that with the intervention and the encouragement of the International Commission, the negotiation would be fruitful. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 79, 23 Prill, 1914, Telegram i Sir F. Elliot për Sir Edward Grey).

3. The Protocol of Corfu

Meanwhile the situation in South provinces continued getting worse, entire villages were burning and the population was violated repeatedly. In serious fighting of the gendarmerie with the the Greek gangs, was taken and burned Erseka, and its Albanian population was massacred. The Greeks were advancing towards Frashëri and Korça. Këlcyra was partially burned by Greek troops (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 84, 1 Maj, 1914, Telegram i Z. Lamb për sir Edward Grey). The Dutch officers reported that the Greek artillery had protected the advancing of the gangs. 30 peasants were reported burned in the region of Kolonja and the Greek troops were advancing towards Përmet. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 85, May 2, 1914, Telegram i Z. Lamb për Sir Edward Grey).

Found in these positions, the Albanian Government made a note addressed to the Austrian and Italian Legation. Addressing to these governments, it seeks to enable an urgent evacuation of Greek troops, to end the Greek excesses against Albanians, in general and Muslims, in particular. Once presented the aggravate situation, it said that has taken into account the suggestions of Austria and Italy related to: the organization of gendarmerie and militia, and the necessity of making some impartial concessions to Epirotans. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 91, 1 Maj1914, Konfidenciale, Telegrami i Z.Lamb për Edward Grey).

So, the Albanian government to give an end to the artificially created state, (to put a regional system, which wouldn't be accepted in any way), has responded to some of the proposals made indirectly, which are presented below in a summary form:

The Orthodox communities in Albania are free to teach in their schools in Greek. Only in primary schools will be teaching in Albanian language. To take possession of the territory will be sand several detachments of gendarmerie under the command of Dutch officers, who will do some recruiting with elements of different religions in proportion with the number of the population of these religions. The Albanian army will have a unique command and will form a unit. The Sanxhak of Gjirokastra and Korça, each, will form an administrative unit. The local administration will be selected by local councils, on head of which will be the governors, elected by the central government and that would be representative of this one. The right of making petitions in Greek language for the inspector, for the villagers that speaks only Greek. The central government will come in help to the village residents affected by problems in the recent years. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Dok. Nr. 91, 1 Maj, 1914, Konfidencial, Telegram i Z.Lamb për Edward Grey).

In response to Albanian demands for a potential deal, the Greek Foreign Minister Mr. Varatassi immediately went to Durres, after he took a notice from the Albanian government, which was willing to receive him. Even in this case, the Greeks used their tactics, implying that his arrival was not related to the notice, but at the request of the King of Greece, which, in effort of good neighborly, attempted to establish a diplomatic relation. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 93, 3 Maj, 1914, Konfidencial i Z.Lamb për Edwar Grey).
Once he declared officially that he had no authority to discuss the issue of Epirus, he presented a document by which aimed to inform the Cabinet indirectly on some "minor modifications" to the Albanian proposals. The focus of these "counterproposals" was a redistribution of the regions, according to which, Himara remain under Gjirokastra, Kurvelesh, which was between the two and was entirely Muslim, was joined to Vlora, Frashërë and Tepelena were joined to Elbasan. The purpose was to create a largely Christian province in the south, and all the rest of Albania, was a widely Muslim population. So an amalgamation of all eventual Albania, after making a division in religion and language, would be reduced to a minimum. Then the South region will become a sort of Greek Eastern Rumelia, which with the earliest opportunity will be annexed by Greece. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 93, 3 Maj, 1914, Konfidencial, Telegram i Z.Lamb për Z. Edward Grey).

In the management of the situation between the Albanian and the Epirus was needed the mediation of the International Commission. So the government of Turhan Pasha unanimously, invited the International Commission, to take over the implementation of the principles proposed by the Albanian government. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, dock. Nr. 93, 3 Maj 3, 1914, Konfidencial i Z.Lamb për Z. Edward Grey). Zografos also agreed with the invitation for the Commission as an intermediary.

The Commission agreed and decided to take on the role of mediator between the Albanian and Epirotans, but with the condition to be provided that the current hostilities by Epirotans to go to an end, on the other hand it will stop any advance of Albanians and after taking this surely it will leave immediately to Saranda. This decision, the Commission forwarded to Mr. Zografos to. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 96, 5 Maj, 1914, Z.Lamb për Z Edward Grey). Zografos promised to stop fighting in order to begin negotiations. Immediately after that, the Commission went on to Saranda to launch negotiations. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 92, 7 Maj, 1914, Z.Lamb për Z. Edward Grey).

The Commission held four conferences with the gentlemen Karapanos and Zografos, who had risen during this time, their demands, even more than those presented by Mr. Varatassi. However despite the arrogance and uncompromising chauvinism of Zografos, almost was reached a kind of understanding about the language issues, school and army. The Epirus delegates were forced to abandon the requirement regarding the merger of Gjirokastra and Korça in one. Another issue that was discussed was the position of those Orthodox communities in Epirus, for which was insisted on maintaining the "rights and privileges" of the Ecumenical Patriarchate. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 103, 17 Maj, 1914, Z. Lamb për Z Edward Grey).

For the manner of the reception of the provinces by the Albanian was agreed to left it to the Commission of Control and the Dutch officers. The Epirotans tried to join the specific claims of Spiro Milo, who appeared himself at the hearing of 17 May, widely exposing his major requirements and stating that if they weren't taken into consideration, he will continue his efforts with those disgruntled elements in Epirus that could take away. With reservations, the Commission decided to put in a paragraph, his request, for an evaluation by the Powers, but it wasn't included into the agreement (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 103, 17 Maj, 1914, Z. Lamb per Z Edward Grey).

The Commission was found in difficulty about the fact that how these requirements will be seen, apparently quite reasonable for a local view, but problematic in an inclusive aspect. Any privilege granted to South will have its consequences in the North, making more difficult the merging of these regions into homogeneous state (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 103, 17 Maj 1914, i Z.Lamb për Z. Edward Grey).

The delegates of Epirus clearly implied that they interpreted the right of local councils to develop their own budgets, such as the right to spend the richness of South only within its borders, when is known that the South is the richest part of Albania. The omissions formulated in this way, where summarized in an administrative autonomy of both these provinces, whose boundaries should be arranged in such a way that can maximally reduce the Muslim majority and the administration of which will be made from elements mainly came from Greece and that have run the "movement Epirus." (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 103, 17 Maj, 1914, Z. Lamb për Z Edward Grey).

The negotiations on proposals submitted by Zografosi, on May 17 in Corfu, were presented for ratification by the International Commission to the Albanian Government, and also for the approval by the Congress of Northern Epirus. The achievements of the agreement during the negotiation do not include Himara, only if it would be accepted by her.

The decisions of the Corfu Agreement were approved, also by the respective governments of the Great Powers and therefore were only to be confirmed by the Albanian government and the Assembly of Epirus. This one, when was expected this approval, announced to the International Commission, that the Assembly would meet after having a response from Prince Wied about Himara provisions, provisions that were not included in the agreement, as well as some other requirements regarding the administrative subdivision of the country, which were rejected by the Commission. This announcement was just a pretext to reject the agreement reached in Corfu and to keep occupied the...
South provinces, considering also the fact of the difficult political situation in the center of Albania. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 127, June 12, 1914, Z. Lamb për Sir Edward Grey).

The Albanian government accepted the Corfu agreement with some remarks which were submitted through a memorandum, to the International Commission on June 4, 1914, in which it declares its acceptance of the application, by the conditions that the points of agreement will not bring any violations to the development and national unity. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 120, Qeshor 5, 1914, Z. Lamb për Z Edward Grey). The Government also stated again to the International Commission on June 20, that it will not accept the new proposals of Zografos, as they affect the independence, integrity and unity of Albania. (Valentina Duka, FO 421/293, Doc. Nr. 139, Qeshor 26, 1914, Z. Lamb për Z Edward Grey).

The Protocol of Corfu was not approved by the government of the “Northern Epirus”. The Epirus and Greek forces, although they accepted a truce while were held the negotiations for the Protocol of Corfu, advanced with their troops, occupying Korça and even further in north. The International Commission failed in its commitment to the implement of the Protocol of Corfu. This issue will be further complicated because Europe will soon be included in the First World War and the Albanian question will be left behind.

4. Conclusions

The Movement of "North - Epirus" was a separatist movement, promoted and later strongly aided by Greece with the main intention for the southern secession, which also constitute the richest part of Albania.

The larger consequences of this movement fell on the local population, which was mostly Muslim, but also on Christians. The violence was incredible, the Greek massacres and atrocities, caused the indignation of various political personalities of Europe. There were some of them that had fought a lot for the Albanian question, struggling mightily with their speech in the press of the time and in various parliamentary debates. One of the best friends of Albania, which has given a tremendous help, regardless of the consequences that could have been on his political career, was the British parliamentarian Aubrey Herbert.

In the parliamentary debate of June 29, 1914, in the Chamber of Commons in the British Parliament, Aubrey Herbert, delivered a long speech, in which he discussed the reports and facts coming from Albania on the deplorable situation of hundreds of villages raped by gangs of the "Northern Epirotans". One of the Albanian villages that suffered most from the Greek atrocities was the Hill (Kodra) village, situated near Tepelena. The tragedy of this village, but not only, was discussed in his speech. He says:

The Hill Village is used as a slaughterhouse, where groups of Muslims and Albanians were brought in different days and there was a slaughter. The massacre reported in Hill Christian Church (Hormovë) was just the latest in their series. Here, these poor people were locked inside and Epirotans regular soldiers went up to the roof of the church, removed some tiles and with their army rifles opened fire on defenseless people.... I have a list with the names of 205 people killed in Hillside and I verified it. The Epirus Government accepts almost all the facts, but I am convinced that the guilty parties go beyond ... Therefore the Greek government that instructed Mr. Gennadius in London to deny the massacres, knew that the massacre had happened ... even they knew it all ..... my full report will be accompanied with facts. (Bejtullah Press Jason Tomes, 2012, pg.223-225).

The statements of Aubrey Herbert were further confirmed by the General Dee Veer of the Dutch Mission, who saw with his own eyes the massacres of Greeks in the village and photographed the terrible images. In his report directed to the International Commission of Control, he describes with even more details the atrocities and declares the exhumation of 195 bodies, which were buried in a shallow grave, putting them in proper graves. All the bodies were headless. The massacred population in the village was not Muslim, but Albanian Christian (Edwin Jacques, Tirana: Karte e Pende, faqe. 386).

The Colonel Herbert continued his battle to protect the Albanian issue through British press. He published continuously in prestigious newspapers like The Times and The Morning Post, which were published in London, different facts coming from the developments in Albania, hoping in the sensitization of the British Government for an oppressed people, whose state was created by The Great Powers with the leading role of Great Britain, and was her responsibility to raise the voice for the protection of this state and this people. (Bejtullah Press, Jason Tomes, 2012).

The Greek atrocities will continue even further in other villages outside of Korça, in the district of Kolonja. In the parliamentary debates of June 29, 1914 in the Chamber of Commons, Aubrey Herbert denounced this massacres in his speech as following:
In the district of Cologne ... (1 Maj) 55 houses were burned Muslim village of Qinam, with massacres and mutilations. In Staria, 120 houses burned and slaughters etc. In Leskovik 2200 houses burned, in Frashër 150 houses burned. (Bejtullah Destani, Jason Tomes, 2012, pg. 226)

For the atrocities of Kolonja and its villages was written as well in the newspapers of the patriots abroad, like the Newspaper of Sofia The Freedom of Albania, which published a letter from the Kolonja area. In the article was spoken about the atrocities of the andartes (the holy battalions of the epirotns). Borova was robbed and 13 women, were dishonored with the violence, in Rehova and Gostivisht also., In Luaras, 20 Muslim children were slaughtered. In Panarit, also, 300 people were slaughtered,, they said to them, that they could return home, then they killed them with axes (Edwin Jacques, Tirana: Karte e Pende, pg. 387-389).

The reports were coming, as well from the American journalist William Howard. From his contacts with Harold Spencer, an American volunteer at the headquarters of Prince Wied, he provided some information. Spencer testified about the events that he personally observed, especially in the village of Qinan. After having expelled the Greek troops, he was faced with the massacre there. The Greeks had raped five young women, which were found naked. One of them was raped 27 times. Others, who had fought for their honor, were killed and their bodies were raped by the Greeks. His testimonies, also come for the Bocka village, where the Greek troops killed more than 200 women, children, babies and also for Hormova village, where 225 farmers were massacred.(Edwin Jacques, Tirana: Karte e pende, pg. 387-389).

These massacres make even clearer the actions of the Greeks in the territories that were and are part of the Albanian state.

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Criticizing the Present through the Future or How Kurt Vonnegut Turned Science Fiction into an Art

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Abstract

Kurt Vonnegut is one of the most known figures of the late 20th century and beginnings of the 21st century. He is one of the most prolific writers of American literature of those days. His novels are known for a usage of a wide range of subjects, starting with science and ending with environmental issues, like that of global warming. But, different from some of his well-known contemporaries, Kurt Vonnegut started writing science-fiction in paperback in order to make ends meet, as he was in a very difficult economical situation. Influenced by writers as Aldous Huxley, with “Brave New World” and also by the studies of chemistry he attended when he was at university, he used in his novels machines, super-computers, aliens, lives in other planets, etc. However, he was not just a science-fiction writer. Instead, science-fiction became a means for him to better express the ideas he had about the world. He creates other5 planets to show us what goes wrong in ours, he writes about machines that have substituted the man, he writes about scientists that are not responsible at all about the effects of their inventions. The world is not saved by scientists, but it ends because of them. That is the aim of this presentation: to show how science becomes an art in Kurt Vonnegut’s fiction.

Keywords: science-fiction, technique, narration, influence, subject

"Years ago... I wrote a novel about people and machines, and machines frequently got the best of it, as machines will. (It was called Player Piano, and it was brought out again in both hard cover and paperback.) And I learned from the reviewers that I was a science-fiction writer.” (Vonnegut, WFG, 1976, pg.1) This is how Kurt Vonnegut starts his essay on science fiction on the “Wampeters, Foma and Granfalloon”. Kurt Vonnegut is one of the most prolific and well-known writers of the postmodern American literature. He has also been a public figure, speaking about issues like global warming, censorship, politics, free will, etc. He has been labeled as a science fiction writer, satirist, postmodernist, black humorist. But he has always denied the labels, like many other writers. Maybe the main problem for Vonnegut, of all these terms, was that of science fiction writer.

Early in his career, he was considered by the critics as a science fiction writer, for the fact that his two first novels were set in the future and included machines, robots, aliens, super computers and many other technological gadgets. When Vonnegut started writing in the 50s science-fiction was very popular, not only in literature, but also in the movies. It is considered to be a modern genre, involving space travel, robots, aliens and time travel. Being in very bad economical conditions, and being tired of working in other things but writing, he decides to write a novel. But the publishers wanted to boost the sales and emphasized the science-fiction elements to his novel. They even changed the title from “Player Piano” to “Utopia-14” to make it sound more sci-fi.

If we consider most of the novels of Kurt Vonnegut, we find a lot of elements that make him deserve the title of science-fiction writer, because in each of them we find his interest in technology, the future of mankind, the causes and effects of science development, the work of scientists, etc. On the other hand, he does not consider himself at all as a science-fiction writer. Instead he argues that all writers must know more about science, because it has already become part of our lives. What makes Vonnegut “hate” more this term is the fact that critics saw science-fiction not as a very serious genre, or “high-level literature”. Vonnegut says it very clearly in “Wampeters, Foma and Granfalloon” when he says: “I supposed that I was writing a novel about life, about things I could not avoid seeing and hearing in Schenectady, a very real town awkwardly set in the gruesome now. I have been a storehead occupant of a life drawer labeled “science-fiction” ever since, and I would like out, particularly since so many serious critics regularly mistake the drawer for a urinal.” (Vonnegut, 1976) So, most literary critics would not admit reading science-fiction, or when they read it, they would say that it was poorly written and it was done just for the sake of filling the pages of pulp magazines that appeal to teenagers. Kurt Vonnegut has got an answer for that, too, when he says that these critics are educated in that way, and
he blames the colleges. "And our most impressive critics have commonly been such English majors, and they are squeamish about technology to this very day. So it is natural for them to despise science fiction."

There was also another problem with the term "science-fiction". As with many other terms, most people would not agree on the definitions and what makes a writer to be called with the adjective of "science-fiction". As I tried to trace the very meaning of science-fiction, I see that it dates back many years ago, with a Syrian-born Greek satirist (Britannica Encyclopedia), to Jules Verne and Edgar Allan Poe. While in British Science Fiction we find the names of Robert Louis Stevenson and H.G. Wells, In the United States of America there are Hugo Gernsback and John W. Campbell. After the Second World War, with the advent of the atomic bomb and cold war, the science fiction boomed. It became more sophisticated, more urban and satiric. Major science fiction themes are about utopias and dystopias, alternate societies, sex and gender, alien lives, space travel and time travel, parallel universes and realities.

However, the modern figures of science fiction from whom Vonnegut is influenced a lot is Aldous Huxley and George Orwell. In Huxley’s “Brave New World”, an intellectual dissident is singled out and exiled by fatuous world rules anxious to preserve their numbing status quo. Whereas, George Orwell’s “1984” reflects his profound suspicion of the totalitarian potential of modern technology. In his view, science can be dangerous as well as beneficial.

Following the lead of Huxley’s “Brave New World”, Vonnegut uses the conventions of science fiction to force his readers to think more deeply about the world we live in. Like Huxley, Vonnegut is not interested in high-tech gadgets for their own sake, nor does he describe future civilizations just to please the readers. Instead, he imagines other worlds because they allow him to point out what is wrong with contemporary society.

When asked to name his favourite writer, Vonnegut says the name of Orwell, because as he says in an interview, he likes “His concern for the poor, I like his socialism, I like his simplicity". (Allen, Conversations, 53). He even uses some of Orwell’s ideas in “God Bless you, Mr. Rosewater”, when the senator Rosewater criticizes the idea that the rich deserve everything they have and they should not share anything with the poor, because that makes them lazy.

In this sense, what Vonnegut takes from science fiction as a genre, is not merely the techniques and style, but he makes them his own, to better express his ideas. He does not serve to science fiction, but it is science fiction that serves to him, to criticize the present through the future, to speak about the dehumanization of the society and the replacement of human beings with machines, the themes of apocalypse and chaotic universe. What Vonnegut does in fact is to create a new reality that points out all the problems with the real one and turns science fiction into his own art. Even the critic Robert Scholes says that “the most appropriate fiction that can be written in the present or the immediate future is fiction that takes place in future time".

Vonnegut’s main elements in his novels were always science and scientists. As he was trained and then worked in public relations at General Electrics, he was encouraged to write about the role of science and technology in American society. He starts with “Player Piano” (1952), his first novel, has as main theme the facing of the American man to the new developed technology. The main character, Paul Proteus, who is an engineer is very happy at first. But as technology starts replacing people, after computers choose people to get to work, after his cat is eaten by a technical gadget, he wants to escape. But it is now easy to escape such a society. In fact, “Player Piano” is set in the future, and it reveals an “utopian” society, where the government controls everything. The author challenges Paul by narrating a parallel plot the story of Shah of Bratpur, who comes for a visit and is shocked by the life people do in America. The question the author poses is about the future of the American society if they follow this path of mechanization. Everything is computerized and the escape is difficult. In “Player Piano”, Vonnegut gives us a vision of the future that was intended to warn the American society about the perils of their worship in modern technology.

Vonnegut treats the theme of technology and scientist in a more interesting way in the novel “Cat’s Cradle” (1963). After publishing the first two novels, “Cat’s Cradle” started as a project for his thesis. Even though it was rejected by his college, he still decided to publish it as a novel and he did right, because with this one, he moved from being an obscure writer to a well-known one. Here, Vonnegut’s interest is not on science more than it is on the people who worship science mostly, scientists. The story starts with the narrator, who wants to write a story about the day the world ended, which refers to the bombing of Hiroshima. He wants to ask one of the creators of the bomb, dr. Hoenikker. He does not find the scientist, but he gets to know his children. Even though he is dead, he has left a legacy that can be deadly to his children but also to the world. He had created a combination of molecules, called ice-9 that when in contact to water, turns everything into ice, every molecule. He divided it into three parts and gave one to each of them. So, now it was important to find them, because the world was in front of a big threat in the hands of three common people. The narrator, asking us to call him Jonah, arrives in the island of San Lorenzno, where he gets to know and that to be part, of a new religion called Bokononism, based on harmless untruths. But at the end, one of the parts of ice-9 ends in the water and everything ends up in ice. So, the idea of Kurt Vonnegut in this novel is that it is not only the American society facing the difficulties of
mechanization, but the main threat is for the world now, precisely by the people who invented the atomic bomb, and still keep on inventing dangerous chemicals.

Even in “Deadeye Dick”, Vonnegut reacts to an even more horrific weapon, the neutron bomb, which was designed to kill people while leaving buildings intact. Rudy Waltz, the novel’s protagonist, accidentally kills a pregnant woman by firing his father’s gun out of an open window. The novels suggest that scientists who place nuclear weapons in the hands of politicians are just as irresponsible as the father who let a ten-year-old have access to a gun.

However, it is inaccurate to say that Vonnegut is against scientists and against technology. He admits that human beings are curious about everything and that for Vonnegut is something good. He also recognizes the joy that comes from scientific inquiry and discovery. In recent interviews and speeches, he recognized the fact that scientists were becoming more aware about the interest of people first and about the social and moral effects of their discoveries and that made him happy.

Another of the most important themes of Kurt Vonnegut’s fiction is that of free will. Moreover, the best means to explain what free will is for him is that of space and time travel. Most of Vonnegut’s characters suffer from a lack of courage, or when they find that inner strength, the circumstances just forbid them. For example, Paul Proteus in “Player Piano” can not change. Alternatively, Jonah, at “Cat’s Cradle”, he can not escape his destiny. However, “Sirens of Titan” is where Vonnegut best uses this technique. He begins by revealing that “the following is a true story from the Nightmare Ages, falling roughly, give or take a few years, between the Second World War and the Third Great Depression.” (Sirens of Titan, 8) In this way the story examines the distant past and it allows the writer to make the story more believable.

Malachi Constant, the protagonist, moves in time and space. He goes to another planet, with aliens and there he has a sexual intercourse with a woman and he has a son. In this planet, he lives with a robot called Salo, where sometimes it is more human than his human friend Rumfoord. In “Sirens of Titan”, you can find everything: the kidnapping of Earthlings by aliens, the use of superior spaceships able to exceed the speed of light by some version of “space warp”, a whole new universe and a trip beneath the surface of a planet where strange creatures are encountered.

This technique serves more to his best novel, “Slaughterhouse-Five”. It is based on his experience in Dresden, where he was kept as a prisoner of war in a slaughterhouse and then he witnessed the bombing of Dresden and the death of a lot of innocent people. For many years, it was an experience that tortured him. He wanted to write about it, but it was impossible, because “there is nothing intelligent to say about a massacre”. (Slaughterhouse-Five, 24) As he says in the beginning of the novel, he failed attempts at writing a traditional narrative about Dresden, with a beginning, middle and end. He had to find a new narrative and the best that could serve him was time travel and space travel, which can be also considered as a telegraphic-schizophrenic technique. Bill Pilgrim, who is the protagonist of the novel, as his name infers, makes a whole pilgrimage in time and space. At one moment, we find him a doctor in USA, then as a prisoner of war in Germany, then with his best friend of the war and at another moment he is kept prisoner by aliens of the planet Tralfamador. He has become “unstuck in time”. Sometimes, when reading the novel you must be very careful, because you can lose track of the story. But this is the intention of the writer and that is what science-fiction helps him more. So, science fiction techniques do not only serve to the idea, but they serve too much even to the structure, especially to the narration. His narration is not sequential. It jumps around in time and through space. Events are not presented in linear order. Transitions are abrupt, narrative sections, small, several paragraphs long. Sentences are usually short, and sentence structure is simple. With the usage of science fiction, Vonnegut talks about human psychological responses to trauma and about alternative ways of exercising human consciousness.

However, the most interesting means of science fiction for Vonnegut is the recreation of reality through the invention of new realities. In this way, he can easily present all the problems of the present, criticize it and give solutions for the future. As in “Sirens of Titan”, also in “Slaughterhouse-Five”, Vonnegut use the typical science fiction themes, planets and extraterrestrials. The most well-known is that of Tralfamador. In both these novels, the protagonists are kept by aliens in these planets, which in fact are inhabited by these robots and extraterrestrials, that find some ways of communicating with both Malachi and Bill. What helps the reader understand more about the universe and reality of Vonnegut is precisely this discussion of Bill to the Tralfamadorians. In their conversations, they give some responses to Bill, explanations, even for matters like life and death. “There are no telegrams in Tralfamadore. But you’re right: each clump of symbols is a brief, urgent message – describing a situation, a scene. We Tralfamadorians read them all at once, not one after the other. There isn’t any particular relation between the messages, except that the author has chosen them carefully, so that, when seen all at one time, they produce an image of life that is beautiful and surprising and deep. There is no beginning, no middle, no end, no suspense, no moral, no causes, no effects. What we love in our books are the depths of many marvelous moments seen all at one time.” (Slaughterhouse-Five, pg. 76) So, for Tralfamadorians,
neither life, nor death exist. They are just moments, seen all at once, because imposing conditions of time and space
take the meaning of these events.

The matter of science fiction has always been part of the debates among critics, concerning the definition, but
mostly if it considered high literature or not. Even though at first Vonnegut, was considered to be a science fiction writer
and critics didn’t take him seriously, with his art he could turn it into what many critics consider it “high literature”. The
critic, Stanley Schatt, also tries to answer this dilemma: “While science fiction is an element in almost every Vonnegut
novel, the blurring of the fine line between science and fiction during the past two decades is one of the reasons he has
become acceptable to academe.” (Schatt, 1977, pg. 18)

Science fiction has served Vonnegut to express his ideas, but at the same time to crate new narratives. The
postmodern reality needed new narratives, and science fiction provided Vonnegut with the best means to express the
atrocities he had faced in WW II, the new reality of the American society towards the worship of new technology and the
threat the world faces by these “irresponsible” scientists. Todd Davis, one of the scholars who studied Vonnegut's fiction,
focuses more on the humanist and postmodernist part of the writer. “Vonnegut, like Huxley and Orwell, concerns himself
with science and sociology, but the manner in which he approaches his subjects differ radically from his precursors that
to speak of their work in the same breath is oxymoronic. The more than half century that has passed since the
publication of Player Piano affords us the critical hindsight necessary to discern the absurdly satiric nature of Vonnegut's
social criticism.” (Davis, 2006, pg. 41) Even the critic Jerome Klinkowitz comes to terms with Davis, when he says that
“...the mechanics of science fiction the author makes it equally laughable”, because “traditional science fiction takes its
science seriously – too seriously for Vonnegut’s purposes since the point he wants to make are not about machinery but
about people.” (Klinkowitz, 2004, pg.183) So, for Vonnegut, science fiction is not just for the sake of the form and
content, but also serves Vonnegut for his bitter humor. It becomes part of a new narrative, of a postmodern narrative.

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The Effect of Variations in Gold and Oil Prices on BIST 100 Index

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Abstract

It is commonly known that the factors that are affecting stock prices are macroeconomic variables, returns on alternative investment means, political and social stability, developments in other countries, risk preferences of domestic and foreign investors, information regarding companies and manipulations. Due to the effect of financial globalization and as local capital has transformed into an international quality, individual country economies are now more fragile against not only internal dynamics but external factors as well. Under these circumstances, the Borsa Istanbul is a stock market which has recently been popular for investors who carefully chase and direct their investments toward this spot. The present study, except the generally adopted economical factors, investigates the effect of variations in gold and oil prices on BIST 100 index econometrically. The reason for analyzing the effect of gold prices is that the global interest toward gold metal has increased overwhelmingly which caused major central banks of both developing and developed world countries increased their gold reserves. This tendency created a serious increased demand for gold which accordingly has led increased prices in the global market and affected other macro economical variables. The reason for analyzing oil prices is that fluctuation in oil prices affects economical factors both directly and indirectly. Whereas the BIST 100 index has positive relationship with oil prices; it has negative relationship with gold prices.

Keywords: Oil prices, gold prices, Johansen co-integration test, BIST 100 Index

1. Introduction

It is known that there is parallelism between economical development and advancement of capital markets. Especially capital markets that are one of the significant economy indicators has great importance regarding sourcing capital from the financial markets and also using savings of individual and corporate investors effectively and productively. It is known that stock markets have basic functions to supply the capital requirements of companies, to contribute extensional distribution of capital to all sects of the society, to reduce risks of investors and to supply information stream from companies to investors. Borsa Istanbul has been maintaining these functions for years increasingly.

Stock markets have gained importance and developed in last two decades especially in developing countries as a result of decreasing interest rates and inflation and of embracing more liberal economic policies by those countries (Karan, 2001, p.:41). Prices in stock markets emerge based on previous company performances, future expectations and economic condition. Stock prices reflect the investors’ estimations regarding expected returns and future cash flows from a certain stock; and these estimations are affected from the general condition of the national economy and international economy. Since stocks are a risky investment means for investors, they require information about the factors affecting stock prices and their significance. The relationship between stock prices and macro economical factors affecting stock prices has been investigated by numerous researchers. Although there were different results found due to various periods, places and variables used in researches, existence of these relationships are common findings of these researches. Due to its characteristics as an alternative investment to stocks and as a factor that can affect the stock prices, gold reserves the value of investments. While this characteristic heads off its other specifications, based on recent
fluctuations in gold prices during the recent years, it is also recognized as a speculative investment mean as well. When we consider gold as a substitute choice for stocks, an increase in the price of either of them would end up as a price decrease in the other one (Albeni and Demir, 2005:7).

In modern economies, oil prices are also considered as an important variable which are affecting capital markets. The general opinion in economies is that capital equity markets would react against the change in oil price (Regnier: 2007). There are interaction between oil prices and capital markets due to direct or indirect economical effects of oil prices. As this interaction changes due to the oil dependency of a relevant country, it arises as a result of reflection of changes in economical parameters which are caused by the oil prices to the capital equity markets.

In the financial literature, determination of factors influencing stock prices has been a primary investigation area that constantly continues in terms of investors and portfolio managers. There are limited numbers of studies in which price variations of gold and oil are investigated. The purpose of this study is to determine effect of gold and oil price variations over BIST 100 index. To that end, first the literature search will be summarized and then the econometric method will be included. The analysis findings will eventually revealed and discussed.

2. The Literature Search

Studies considering factors that are determinants of stock prices have been primarily focused by researches in the financial literature. Especially, according to expanding globalization and increasing effectiveness of financial liberalization in the latest period, it was observed that the factors affecting the stock prices have been diversified. It was also observed that several factors that once affecting stock prices indirectly before, are now affecting the stock prices directly in our contemporary period. There are limited numbers of studies considering the effects of gold and oil prices which are determined in the international markets on stock markets. However, these factors have been considered together with other factors in previous several studies. Table 1 exhibits several studies regarding effects of gold and oil prices on stock markets and their results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sadorsky (1999)</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>VAR</td>
<td>January 1947 - April 1996</td>
<td>It was presented that oil prices changes play significant role in explaining the changes in stock prices; and that there is positive relationship between them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faff and Brailsford (1999)</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>VAR</td>
<td>1983 - 1996</td>
<td>It was revealed that there is significant and positive relationship between oil prices and oil; gas industry and derivative product industries. A significant and positive relationship was observed between paper and packaging; and significant and negative relationship was found between transportation and banking industries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadorsky (2001)</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>VAR</td>
<td>April 1983 - April 1999</td>
<td>The increase in oil prices causes increase in stock prices in oil and gas sectors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El-Sharif et al. (2005)</td>
<td>GB</td>
<td>Multiple factor analysis</td>
<td>1st January 1989-30th June 2001</td>
<td>It was reported that changes in oil prices cause increase on returns on the stock prices in oil and gas industries in Great Britain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tully and Lucey (2007)</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>ARCH-GARCH</td>
<td>1983-2003</td>
<td>In the periods in which gold price increase, returns on stock market decreases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henriques and Sadorsky (2008), Park and Ratti (2008), Soytaş and Oran (2008), Chen (2009), Nandha and Singh (2011)</td>
<td>Canada, USA, Turkey, USA, China</td>
<td>VAR, VAR, VAR, Time series, GMM</td>
<td>3rd January 2001 and 30th May 2007, January 1986 - December 2005, 2nd May 2003 - 1st March 2007, January 1957 - May 2009, May 1994 - October 2009</td>
<td>In the stock prices of the alternative energy businesses, changes in technology stocks are more effective instead of oil prices. Shocks in oil prices have significant effects on return on stocks in the same month or within one-month period. There is no any expected effects in oil prices or in currency rates. High oil prices increases the possibility to transition from the bull market into the bear market. The China stock market is affected by the oil prices in a positive way.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Studies presenting effects of gold and oil prices on stock prices.
3. Data and Econometric Method

In our study that is designated to reveal the relationship between changes in gold and oil prices and the BIST 100 index, logarithmic conversions of monthly data obtained from the R.T. Central Bank Electronic Data Distribution System (EVDS) and from the Energy Information Administration regarding the period of 2000:01-2013:04 were used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Number of Observation</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BIST</td>
<td>Borsa İstanbul 100 Index</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>35374.07</td>
<td>20823.54</td>
<td>8392.240</td>
<td>84291.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLD</td>
<td>Gold Prices</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>766.4958</td>
<td>485.2</td>
<td>258.87</td>
<td>1778.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRENTH</td>
<td>Brent Oil Prices</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>62.58656</td>
<td>32.79806</td>
<td>18.710</td>
<td>132.720</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Descriptive statistics about the applied variables

To investigate this relationship, initially stationary of the population was probed through Expanded Dickey Fuller (ADF), Phillips-Perron (PP) and Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) tests. Following testing the stationary of population, Johansen Co-integration Test was applied to determine whether they were co-integrated.

4. Findings

To obtain significant results in the analysis of time series in terms of econometrics and to overcome spurious regression, stationary tests were conducted for the time series in the first place. In this scope, statistical values were calculated for fixed models and for models with fixed trend through ADF, PP and KPSS unit root tests; and the results were exhibited in Table 3 and Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Unit Root Test Results (Fixed)

For fixed effect models, ADF, PP and KPSS unit root tests show that series of BIST 100 index, gold prices and oil prices were not stationary, but in their first difference they all become stationary. Hence, t-statistic values calculated for the abstract values of the ADF and PP tests were less than the Mackinnon critical values. This finding means that the H₀ hypothesis which assumes that series include unit roots is not refused. On the other hand, KPSS test results show that instead of H₀ hypothesis which assumes that series were stationary, its alternative hypothesis were true.
Table 4. Results of Unit Root Test (Fixed and with Fixed Trend)

ADF, PP and KPSS unit root tests calculated for models with fixed trend confirmed the findings above. Thus, it is accepted that series are stationary in their first differencing for fixed-trend models.

The fact that series were equally stationary shows that there is probability for BIST 100 index to move parallel along with the gold and oil prices on the long-run. To investigate the existence of this relationship for the long-term, Johansen Co-integration test was applied. To perform this test, the VAR model was estimated by taking optimal delay length (2) determined based on the Schwarz information criterion; and it was tested to see whether there is a structural problem or not. In the second stage, the co-integration test was performed whose results were presented in the Table 5.

Table 5. Co-integration Test Results

Trace and maximum eigen value statistics calculated based on the Johansen co-integration test results show that there is one co-integration vector among series at 5% significance level; in other words, it confirms series act together on the long run. From the normalized co-integration equilibrium, one unit increase in oil prices causes 1.479564 unit increase in the BIST 100 index; whereas one unit increase in gold price cause the BIST 100 to decrease by 0.212365 as a negative effect.
5. Result

Borsa Istanbul, the capital equity market of Turkey as one of the developing countries, is a market that is constantly followed and invested by both local and international investors. Particularly, under the effect of the globalization, as the financial liberalization globally expanding, the Borsa Istanbul has been one of the markets affected from this trend. Due to increasing financial liberalization, the Borsa Istanbul is under the influence of macro economic factors affecting Turkish economy, other stock markets in both developing and developed countries, oil prices, currency rates, gold prices etc. as well.

The present study investigates the effects of oil and gold prices on BIST 100 index in terms of econometric dimension. For this purpose, monthly data obtained from the R.T. Central Bank Electronic Data Distribution System (EVDS) and the Energy Information Administration regarding the period of 2000:01-2013:04 were exploited. To determine the relationships between the BIST 100 index and gold the index and the oil prices, at first, stationary characteristic of series was investigated through unit root tests (ADF-PP-KPSS); then through the Johansen Co-integration test, it was checked whether they were co-integrated or not.

The Johansen co-integration test results regarding series that are stationary in their first difference, show that the BIST 100 index, oil prices and gold prices present movement together on the long term. These results support the other findings in the literature which exhibit that there is relationship between stock prices and international oil and gold prices. In this sense, it was revealed that investors following stock market index are required to take variations in oil and gold prices into consideration beside the other factors. There is positive relationship between oil prices and the BIST 100 index whereas there is negative relationship between gold prices and the BIST 100 index. In other words, when oil prices increase, the BIST 100 index also increases; and when gold prices increase, the BIST 100 index accordingly decreases. From these relationships, it can be concluded that increase in the oil prices indicates the growth in the global economies; and gold prices affect the BIST 100 index adversely since it constitutes an alternative investment mean. That’s to say, the investor who shorts on the BIST prefers gold as an investment. This clearly exhibits that the characteristic of gold as a safe-harbor for investors is still prevailing.

References

Customer Relationship Management as a Tool for Sustainable Competitive Advantage and Exemplar Companies with Worldwide Success

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Abstract

In the recent years, due to the existence of innumerable companies, it has become quite difficult to gain advantage in competitiveness. Considering the fact that differentiated activities, strategies and policies of companies or the company resources can easily be imitated by the rivals and the advantage can be lost; the gained advantage in competitiveness should not be for short term and has to carry the necessary qualities for sustainability (Güleş and Bülbül, 2005). In this way, the companies can have a long term relationship with their customers which will bring customer loyalty and long term profit. In addition to the customer loyalty, there are some other conditions that the companies should meet to be preferred. These can be listed as reducing the costs in the production phase; flexibility in meeting the changing needs and demands of the customers fastly and punctually and putting the quality first. The approach of focusing on the customers to secure advantage in competitiveness, brought the approach of Customer Relationship Management. At this point, collecting information about the customers and using them in order to produce unique products and services has become one of the main conditions of an effective and sustainable supremacy in the competition. In this paper, exemplar companies which gained speed, quality and flexibility in their products and services due to their successful implementation of CRM will be analyzed in detail in order to explain the effect of successful CRM implementations in the protection of long-term advantage in competitiveness.

1. Introduction

In order to gain advantage in competitiveness, companies not only make changes in their organizations and production and marketing strategies but also try to catch up with the changes occuring outside the company. Differences among the strategies of companies explain why some of them prove successful in high productivity, highly demanded products, competitiveness and high profitability (Ünalı, 2002). According to Porter (1996, p.12), in order to say that the strategy of a company is better than the strategies of the rivals, there should be a vast difference between them.

Companies work in an environment of intensive competition. Being aware of their advantages and possible opportunities and challenges in front of them, they plan and apply different strategies in order to survive. One of the most important strategies is CRM. CRM is defined as looking at the customer-company relationship from a wide perspective, starting from the planning of the production costs, the production process and a multidimensional and careful analysis of the customer behaviour in order to make deductions for the future (Elden, 2005,p.84). There are many factors behind the emergence of CRM. They can be listed as the increasing costs of mass marketing, increasing importance of the customer compared to the market share, rising importance of the concepts such as customer satisfaction and customer loyalty, appreciation of the importance of existing customers, rising need for keeping the existing customers, necessity of developing strategies dealing with each customer singly, intensive competition, developments in the communication technologies and database management systems (Duran, 2002).
2. Competition, Competitive Advantage and the Sustainability of Competitive Advantage

Competitive advantage, is the sum of definite differences among companies which gives some a superiority over the others. These superiorities can appear as organizational capabilities. In this context, companies may succeed in some cases in which the others are unsuccessful, make an activity better than the others or can be the best among the rivals. Besides, competitive advantage may be a result of organizational assets or resources. In this case, company’s gaining of the resources it didn’t have before, can bring the competitive advantage (Robbins vd., 1999, p.254).

Development, innovation and change are the basic factors for competitive advantage. The main option for a company to secure advantage over the rival international companies is finding a brand-new way of competition or finding brand-new tools in the existing competition environment. For example, Sony was the first company to equip a radio with a transistor. Boeing, one of the leading enterprises in the aircraft industry, offered the idea of a family of planes. With this innovative concept of planes carrying similarities in design, Boeing became the first company to compete globally in its sector. History of all of the global leaders is written by such innovation and success stories (Porter, 1998, p.1). In order to gain competitive advantage, a company has to make achievements in some activities. These are exceeding the achievements of the rivals, making activities which can not be easily imitated by the rivals and which create customer value, manufacturing products which are hard to substitute and which will cover the average costs (Black et al., 2000, p.213 from Barney 1991).

Sustainable supremacy of competition resembles a long-term success which provides advantage in the competition and the development of superior resources which will become out-of-date until the rivals can imitate them. It is important that in order to block the rivals’ opportunity of reaching the same performance, the company should renew its resources to gain temporary advantages, as a challenge in front of the rivals (Black et al, 2000, p.216). A sustainable supremacy in competition exists when a company collects the gains of its investments more than the rivals with similar investments and when the increase in the gains lasts so long that the rivals would not catch up with. It is generally accepted that sustainability depends on three main factors, namely; resistance, transparency & repeatability (Finlay, 2000, p.382).

It should not be forgotten that, before starting the strategic implementations for sustainability in competitive advantage, rivals should be analyzed carefully. Competition analysis has four stages: Formulation of a proper strategy in case of competition, finding a superior strategy which would provide advantage in competition, being prepared for the expected reactions of the rivals, finding ways of formulating reactions against the attacks of the rivals (Hussey, 2000, pp.74-75).

3. Customer Relationship Management as a Tool for Sustainable Competitive Advantage

In today’s world, it has become difficult to find customers by using traditional marketing methods and increasing the profit in this way. What the companies has to do is to prevent the threat of the possible leaving of the existing customers, keeping the existing customers, selling more to them and trying to attract new customers only after this stage. In order to achieve all these, a customer centered organizational structure is needed (Tuğrul, 2006, p.24). CRM is a new concept in relation based marketing and the underlying idea is “treating different customers differently”. Main mechanism of the one-to-one marketing strategy comprises understanding the differences among the customers and building a strategy which would enable the company to treat each customer properly (Kirim, 2005, pp.47-49).

CRM is a data based application and CRM strategies have four stages. The customer selection stage comprises defining the target group, and defining the segmentation, location and marketing strategies for the target group. In the customer attraction stage, the company tries to find the ways of making effective sales via need analysis, preparing offers for buying and pre-demands, and activities such as sales. In the customer keeping stage, the company tries to build loyalty among the customers and secure the sustainability of the relationship via organizing the demands and problem solving. In the second phase of customer keeping, the company aims to increase the spendings of the customer by securing the customer loyalty and profitability gained through activities such as need analysis and cross sales campaigns (Berson et al., 1999). The common point of the successful CRM implementations is that all the processes related to the customer are arranged from the perspective of the customers (Bozgeyik, 2005, p.312). CRM is accepted as a process starting with a relationship settled between the company and the customer, including all the pre-sales and after sales activities and providing benefit for both sides. The real aims of the CRM implementations are customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Söztutar, 2010, p.19).
4. Exemplar Companies Implementing CRM Successfully

In accordance with the advances in technology it became possible to collect data about the customers by using information technologies in the points where the company is in touch with the customers such as shops, branches, websites, call centers, ATM machines and sales points where shopping with credit cards is possible. The collected data is used to build databases, applying data mining and designing effective marketing strategies. Thanks to the new technologies, it became possible to build one-to-one relationship with customers when compared with the costs and the time needed for such an activity in the past (Ozmen et al., 2004). CRM unites the elements of human, process and technology to maximize the relationship with all customers. CRM provides a seamless coordination among the customer oriented functions (Goldenberg, 2004). Customers both living in Turkey and in other parts of the world have countless options. Companies use the internet in order to follow the customers, to increase their interest in the company and build customer loyalty. In accordance, e-business activities enabling the implementation of CRM via web, have increased. In the following part of the paper, I will try to give information about the exemplar companies implementing CRM in different sectors successfully and give some examples from their implementations:

4.1 Turkcell

Turkcell puts CRM in the centre of its strategy and uses the ‘Journey with the Customer’ program to maximize customer satisfaction. Turkcell has also attracted attention as the only company to use independent audit in this field. That is why Turkcell is regarded as the number one Turkish company in CRM implementation. Telecommunication giant Turkcell uses CRM to understand the differing needs of customers and providing differentiated service in the each point of encounter with the customers (www.capital.com.tr, 2012).

When we have a look at the the position of Turkcell in CRM services it can be said that the company not only uses CRM implementations targeting its workers and customers but also provide support to the other companies. In 2006, Turkcell Technologies started many projects for its corporate customers through a specially designed CRM program for them and put the Siebel Sales Force Automation implementation in the service of its corporate sales team. Since 2007, corporate customer representatives of Turkcell manage their relations with the customers via Siebel SFA. In 2007 and 2008, in order to serve both individual and corporate customers, thousands of Turkcell call-center workers started to use the Siebel Call Center implementation in order to get in touch with the customers not only by phone but also using other channels such as e-mail and fax. Customer representatives can reach in detail information about their customers easily at one stop and can provide need-based service depending on these information. Since 2010, Siebel Order Management implementation, including the individual processes, has been put at disposal of the Turkcell Communication Centres. When compared to many unsuccessful examples of CRM implementation, it can be said that Turkcell Technologies has been successfully implementing CRM projects such as Sales Force Automation, Call Centers and Individual Sales Management (www.techno-labs.com, 2012)

4.2 Siemens

Effective use of the CRM implementations by Siemens underlines the importance of the need of having a CRM strategy and an IT solution suitable for the related sector and the clientele in order to protect the investments, to gain net profits and to benefit from the potential of relationship with the customers in sales, marketing and services. At the same time, Siemens IT Solutions and Services works as a CRM partner for other organizations by providing them strategic and technological consultancy, revealing their potential gains and helping them to implement successful projects. Thanks to the Siemens IT Solutions and Services, the company uses strategic CRM implementations which enables sustainable improvement in the customer potential, high productivity with the best solutions in CRM implementation, optimization of the work processes due to its expertise in various sectors and the compatibility of its CRM implementation with the existing IT infrastructure of other companies.

Different areas of work in the company are conducted under a common CRM platform. Within the CRM project of Siemens, many implementations from the integration of the costs of operational processes with the accounting to sending information to the service technicians via SMS, take place (www.capital.com.tr, 2012).

Workers at the call centers of Siemens IT Solutions and Services, give service to the customers in almost every area of the daily life and by the way attract attention to the effect of CRM on the communication with customers. There are some important numbers showing the success of CRM implementations in collecting information. Some of the
examples are: Yearly 2.000.000 flight reservations by customers via easily accessed call center operations of different airway companies; management of yearly 120.000.000 phone calls under the service dealing with unknown phone numbers; management of yearly 2.600.000 orders by phone from individual and corporate consumers; yearly 3,000,000 interactions with the customers on the issues such as address updating, demands for credit cards, calling the customers when there is a problem with the payments, confirmation of the work addresses given in credit card applications by using the CTI technology effectively to maximize contact with the customers and increase operational productivity and interactions on laptops in different languages with yearly 1.500.000 customers (www.siemens.com.tr, 2012).

4.3 Amazon.com

Besides being one of the globally leading bookstores, Amazon.com is also one of the most important retailers in the internet, providing a variety of services. In the competition between actual and virtual bookstores, Amazon.com asserts that trust is also as important as the price and offers a solution to its customers who are used to shopping from actual bookstores. The company took the book buying as a process and divided this process into concrete responsibility groups. By focusing on the customers, the company has become one of the most important retailers on the internet (Seybold, P.B., and Marshak, R.T. (2001); Çiçek 2005, p.81). This website enabling book selling from the internet, the customers can make research, find the products they have been looking for and buy them while sitting in their chairs. In order to make the research process easier for the customers, Amazon.com categorized its products and extended their range by including music and video products and games, enabling the customers to reach different products from the same address.

4.4 Koç Group

Koç Group plans to build the largest CRM platform in Turkey with the new work model it has developed. Paro is the first brand of Tani Marketing and Communication Services company, working within the Koç Information Group. Customers using Paro are identified while they are shopping and the collected information is used to present offers specially designed for them. In this system, companies share the information they have collected and this system provides them the chance of knowing more about the customers and presenting them better products and services (Çiçek (2004); Çiçek, 2005, p.80). Tani Marketing and Communication Services is a company which uses technological applications enabling to know the customers perfectly. The company has an international web of communication and marketing and safely provides the most innovative products, services and opportunities to the customers. The company aimed to create e-life spaces for the customers, focusing on implementations close to the customer and producing products and services in accordance with the expectations of the customers, via Paro. With the launch of Paro, the company continued its efforts in the same direction and defined this implementation as a system which gathers customers and companies from the wholesale and retail trade sectors and changes their way of shopping. The company worked together with KoçSistem, Beko, Migros and Koçbank in the development of the technological infrastructure of Paro. All the shopping information about the customers in every department including the producers, retailers and banks were collected in a secure technological infrastructure for the benefit of the customers. Paro, analyses buying habits using technology and presents sales, promotions and campaigns specially designed according to their lifestyles, to the customers. The customers who wish to benefit from the Paro, sign up for membership via the credit cards or similar cards that they have already been using and Paro membership can be obtained at the sale points where the Paro stands exist (www.telepati.com, 2011)

4.5 Harley Davidson

Harley Davidson brand is presented not only as a motorcycle but also as a jacket, as eye-glasses or an after shave cream. In this way, Harley Davidson desires to produce not only products but a lifestyle for its customers (Kotler, P. (2004); Çiçek, 2002, p.21). Customers view Harley-Davidson as more than a motorcycle producer. It is accepted as a lifestyle comprising a distinguished meaning, image and values for thousands of people (Kotler, 2000, p.166). In order to gain customers for different types of products, Harley Davidson puts the customer in the center. Brand management of Harley Davidson operates with these key aims: Understanding the scope of the company/brand and its meaning for the customers, transmitting the brand to the consumers and other target groups, managing the brands in accordance with their life cycles and creating brand equality.
5. Conclusion

The analyses in this paper reveals that companies implementing CRM benefited in providing integrated marketing communication, using communication effectively inmarketing, in keeping the customers for long term and securing competitive advantage as well known brands.

A customer in need of buying a product or service, is under the pressure of many potential external, internal and marketing related (products, promotion, channel, service, price, etc.) effects. These factors are important for a customer in their choosing a certain company to buy products. That is why a proper marketing search, important information collected about the customers and the competition strategies chosen are effective in tuarning a company into a well known brand.

Customers, who are accepted as the center of the marketing activities, may behave positively or negatively in their buying behaviours towards the presented products and services. In order to have customers who repeatedly buy the products/services of the company, the company has to analyse the decision making processes and behaviours of customers and produce accordingly.

The importance of CRM for companies lies in the determining role of the attitudes and behaviours of the customers towards the products and services, which define the success of a company. In the recent years, struggling competition conditions and increasing difficulty in gaining competitive power brings the necessity of securing customer satisfaction and loyalty through proactive marketing decisions. As a result of these developments, companies try to present various products and services with different sales techniques to their customers in an environment with the possibility of producing many products and services in the same quality and where the number of the rivals increase fasty. Customer Relationship Management is one of the most effective, productive and important of these technology-based implementations.

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Women's Entrepreneurship and Their Organization in the Context of Gender Factor: A Case Study in the Konya City

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Abstract
Scientific and technological advancements in our contemporary world have substantially altered dynamics of competition in parallel to the production systems. These changes have brought new dimensions to the entrepreneurship as well as business administration fields. The differences in social responsibilities based on gender have been part of people’s life from its beginning to the end. The entrepreneurship understanding which has presented great developments in all over the world since 1980s has been interested in by women as much as men recently. In our present era in which women’s participation into the business life accelerated and accordingly their rate within the total labor is continuously rising, economic and social development process and fast paced advancements in science and technology have evolved women’s role in society and turned them into primary players in the business life. Organization is one of the essentials of living social life based on various reasons. In terms of social context, organizations in the forms of sociological, civil or labor unions have always been part of people’s life. In the aspect of entrepreneurship, movement of entrepreneurs within an organization can be viewed the result of their way of business and requirement of competition and our contemporary world. The purpose of this study is present that women who naturally own different perspective in many areas than men add different taste and success into the business life through their equalizer factors in both social relationships and private life; and to draw women entrepreneurs’ general profiles and their organization in the context of Konya City case.

1. Introduction
The period of 1990s has witnessed revolutionary developments in the business life. Whereas the organizations of the industrial society exhibit a structure relying on labor force ergo male-dominance, as a result of the evolutions caused by the developments experienced in the recent two decades which is referred as the information age, the labor prototype has been transformed toward being "women-dominant". In this structure which hosts information and service industries in its foundation, intensive application of technology has created more women labor in business life.

It is widely recognized that the entrepreneurship phenomenon does not relate with gender. Thus, as it was happening before, the business life is not ruled only by men anymore. Increasing number of women is participating into the business life and they regenerate the rules again. With their natural born characteristics, women are terminating male dominance in the business life. Their emotional and sensual superiorities in their nature and intensify through their maternal role, such as communication talent, emotional intelligence used appropriately, patience, compassion, emphatically approach, capability to benefit at full extent from their senses, talent for resourcing, dispute management ability, creativity, organization-time management and etc. reflect over their attitudes and accordingly bring women

2. Entrepreneurship & Gender Factor in Entrepreneurship

This section considered entrepreneurship and gender factor in entrepreneurship subjects in a conceptual perspective and their scopes were explained.

2.1 Definition and Scope of Entrepreneurship

The entrepreneurship term was derived from the French word “entreprendre” which means “a person, who undertakes a duty, takes risk, do business”. In the beginning, the entrepreneurship concept was embraced in parallel to this meaning (Tekin, 2010). Then, the concept incurred a significant evolution process during the 18th century and was adopted to refer inventors of that era. As the inventors who were perceived as a creative society of this era were being included in the category of group in need for capital, the capital providers were described as venture capital funders (Hisrich et al., 2005). In the ends of the 19th century and in the first half of the 20th century, for the term of entrepreneur, a managerial role was assigned. In this period, entrepreneurs watch out their individual interests and supplied funds to compensate costs.

The entrepreneurship concept was started to be used as special term for new organization and attempts to establish business regarding economic and business management activities which is referred as “enterprise” after the beginning of the 20th century. In the second half of the 20th century, entrepreneurs were the persons who challenge the current production methods, and generate innovative and creative models based on the understanding derived from their roots in entrepreneurship definitions of the 18th century. One of the essential factors of the current entrepreneurship definitions is innovation. Together with the change occurred in competitive environment and globalization process, the definition of entrepreneurship includes elements of taking more risk, catching up with novelties, taking advantage of opportunities, and actualizing this process.

Entrepreneurship means that having competency to sense opportunities arising within the current environment, to generate projects from these senses, and to make these projects actualized so that they can create fortune and make the human life more convenient. Entrepreneurship is the driver of the economic growth and development. It is resource of the innovation and creativity. Entrepreneurship introduces new resources and technologies with the society; and by this means, the resources which have not been exploited, or were not utilized thoroughly before are gained into the economy and thus overall production increases.

Entrepreneurship has always played key role in economic and social development. Entrepreneurship is recognized as one of the resources of society for sustainable economic and social development. There is direct relationship between the numbers of entrepreneurs in a country and creating new job opportunities and accordingly providing solution for unemployment problem, gross domestic product, social welfare and life standard. A newly established or reorganized company would positively affect the employment volume of a country; and economic development rate would gain a positive momentum.

After all is said and explained, an entrepreneur can be defined as a person who exploits the opportunities in the market and takes risk by bringing production factors such as capital, natural resources, and labor so as to produce goods and services. Entrepreneur is a person who makes innovation and enhancements by taking risk. A successful entrepreneur is a person with capability to sense opportunities arising in the present environment, to generate projects based on these senses, to make these projects actualized, and to make human life better and convenient by generating welfare.

2.2 Gender Factor in Entrepreneurship

In our contemporary business life in which the competition dynamics have been radically evolved, not only business areas and business styles have been influenced, but also the profiles of the business owners have been affected. These changes add new dimensions into many areas in business administration and as well as entrepreneurship field.

Along with the historical process, there are different roles have been assigned to women and men. Traditionally, while it was thought that some particular jobs were more suitable for men, some others were found appropriate for women. Although the gender-based roles were first defined and the expected roles were conceptualized by the society,
because these roles conveyed to women since their childhood through the socialization process, they have been internalized and adopted by women. Furthermore, these social roles have transformed into attitudes that are adopted and considered as stationary position that cannot be altered by women themselves (Hancı, 2004).

There are many points between women and men entrepreneurs in common. However, there are numerous different dimensions due to both gender-related reasons and social judgment values and upbringing. These differences become clear especially in terms of motivation, business senses and occupational experiences.

The existence of social gender patterns also causes to women and men to undertake occupational roles due to their gender. Studies regarding gender roles within the society show that the characterizations that are assigned to men reflect their competency and capability for achievement. These characterizations consist of being independent, active, objective, self-confident, ambitious, challenging and rationalist. Characteristics that have traditionally been inscribed to women are that kindness, emotional, sensitive and understanding (Mueller and Dato-On, 2007). Basically, the main difference between man and woman entrepreneurs is the gender difference. Women and men entrepreneurs could coincide with different circumstances or they can perceive and analyze same conditions in a different ways. To that end, women can be differentiate from men in terms of their business starting motives, difficulties that they experience when they start and continue their business, establishment, management activities for business, design and development activities, targets and way of administering their business (Erdoğan, 2008; Verheul et al., 2006).

The dispersion in the social responsibilities based on gender is phenomenon that starts from individuals' birth and continues till its end. Women who are observed that they are experiencing a great breakthrough in all over the world progressively increase their weight in business life. It can be seen that women could prefer establishing their own businesses so that they can use their own talents and competencies in addition to the other reasons. It could be seen that women, who naturally could have quite different point of view compared to men, is capable of adding various taste and success into the business life through their talent to apply equalization characteristics to their business life as they do the same to their social life.

In recent years, it is known that there has been substantial increase in women’s participation rate to the entrepreneurship activities and they have accomplished numerous projects in entrepreneurship field with or without an organization. However, it was concluded that the level of having their own business has not been sufficient level yet when it is compared with men’s rate. Majority of the studies conducted in this subject across various societies present that the probability of men’s indulging in entrepreneurship activities is higher than the women’s probability rate (Zhang et al., 2009; Mueller and Dato-On, 2007).

3. Women Entrepreneurship: Its Definition and Scope

It is observed that gender has been an important factor in the formation of social status in societies from past to our present era. Legal, economic and social structures of countries determine women’s role and expectations within the society. There are data regarding women labor force is at least half of the men work force in many countries in the world. The most significant effect lying underneath of this fact could be presented as insufficient education models that is not suitable their main purpose (Rahman, 2010). Moreover, especially in developing countries such as Turkey and in underdeveloped countries, women may encounter several obstructs which prevent them to develop business because of existing factors such as traditions and customs which are not included in written codes. Together with the globalization, accelerated development in information and communication technologies has given women freedom in many courses of the daily life and contributes increasing number of women entrepreneurs as well.

Enduring within the society with an entrepreneur role would provide women more autonomy, freedom, chance to self-realization and acquire future targets compared to their position in other positions in business life. Hence, women could have a voice within the total employment in terms of using the resources in an optimal way, being success in social relationships, channeling experiences that they obtained in their business to the other sectors by making short or long term business plans. Furthermore, entrepreneurship also provides women chance to determine their own fate and to overcome their dependency.

When the literature concerning entrepreneur women was investigated, obtained definitions stress following points (Tekin, 2010):

- Who has a business established under her name in a place other than home,
- Who is working in this entity alone or under a partnership and/or with others employed,
- Who contacts with public and private institutions about her business,
- Who makes plans about the future of her business,
Who has rights over the investment and usage of the income generated from the business,
Who takes the whole risk that is incurred from the business.

Today, women assert their strengths in various areas such as economy, art, science, politics, social life, press, local administrations, law, non-government organizations and foundations; and they constitute significant majority in these areas. Besides, the increment in the number of women in a great many professional occupations has reach serious levels. Women who have manage to climb up to the top of pyramids of decision makers and who succeeded to establish their relationship network have proven themselves in the businesses that they entered as an entrepreneurs (Cem and Ünal, 2006).

Women’s success in entrepreneurship depends on their self-confidence; and based on this confidence, it relies on their capability to take risk. Creative, prudential, open-minded, talented for providing solution and mediating women would compete by taking private responsibility and eventually achieve success. Woman who could defend their case, lead, use her authority, and good at their social relationships would have a voice in social and in business life as an individual entrepreneur.

4. Organization in Entrepreneurship

The significant welfare development exhibited by the societies from the past till today is the result of their movement through cooperation and division of labor on the largest extent. It is observed that people always come together under various names so that they live more convenient and comfortable life in a general perspective, and to accomplish their certain targets more productively in an efficient way in private perspective. The process of presenting desire to act together for a certain purpose by several people groups and making division of labor and cooperation to that purpose is called “organization” in general.

Organization is sort of unifying factor for people to live mutual social life based on various reasons. In the context of society, organizations in the forms of sociologic, civil or labor union have always been part of human life. When it is considered in general, all sorts of effort and action to organize through the society is an entrepreneurship activity. The whole process that starts with initiative of a person or persons and continues with the participation of other society members, financial resources and opportunities to embark a new action for “organization” and to finalize it based on its initial purpose is called “entrepreneurship”.

There is great similarity between the concepts of organization and entrepreneurship in terms of completing each other and mutual interaction. Entrepreneurship is the process of design of a new condition which is not present in the current situation; and mobilization of all means and resources to that end and taking all associated risks. The sub-function of the entrepreneurship process, organization is to generate compound by bringing relevant material and emotional resources to actualize the intended and designed new condition.

Entrepreneurship, as concept with business administration background, is bringing current production factors and various resources together as new process so as to produce new goods and/or services, to find new markets, and to generate new organizations. Under normal circumstances, as a potential opportunity, each average human being possesses entrepreneurship and organization capabilities at various levels. However just a limited number of people in societies can deploy their talent in entrepreneurship and organization. Societies’ advancement and success in economic, technological, military, social, politic and cultural areas are closely related with effective and successful entrepreneurs and their existed organizations, businesses, and other entrepreneurs’ activities. In this context, through available human resources and various resources, organization of several activities and managing manufacturing activities is an outstanding and qualified movement and organization style that is motivated with desire for independency rather than being one of the average and ordinary personality characteristics.

5. Organization of Women Entrepreneurs: A Case in Konya City

Konya is successful city in achieving certain level in industry and commerce sectors. In this success, a collaboration factor which is rooted back in ancient “ahlilik” tradition have been played significant role. Konya entrepreneurs have continued their activities by monitoring world commerce closely, paying attention to high-tech developments, by following a profile aiming to actualize a Konya vision thorough innovative approaches. Konya has been contributed to the Turkish economy since its foundation; and was managed to guarantee its ambitious future based on its activities in our present era.
Konya is among the first row of cities in Turkey in terms of having highest number of Small and Medium Sized Businesses in its organized industrial zones and private industry zones. The existence of individual-oriented entrepreneurship and thus small-sized incorporation can be mentioned.

In Konya city, among the women entrepreneur profile, it is one of the conclusion of the study that women entrepreneurs who are called “career entrepreneurs” in terms of occupational groups and who establish their own business and making their own career following an occupational training so as to be determine their own purpose, targets, needs and requirements (Şahin, 2006). The reasons behind the limited number of women entrepreneurs as business owners, company managers, industrialists and freelance workers are that their boredom that they experience when they need to take risk and undertake responsibility. Furthermore, it was observed in general that in the business establishment process, women entrepreneurs carry some concerns, experience problem in gathering required capital, and they experience conflict between roles which are assigned them by the society and the roles required by women entrepreneurship.

After 1980s, according to the studies investigating women entrepreneurs, as it is seen many developed and developing countries, women experience issues both that are faced by entrepreneurs in general and that additional other issues just because they are women (Tekin and Boztaş, 2004). By means of supports to reduce bureaucratic limitations toward their access to required capital, loan and credit resources, training in administration and technical subjects, providing social and cultural activities that develop their personal enhancements and etc., it would be possible for the women entrepreneur phenomenon to reach to the respected point where it deserves within the society (Kutanis, 2004).

It is vitally important to remove obstacles before women that prevent them from establishing and developing their own business; and to create a fare playground for women business owners in terms of a strong entrepreneurship sector; and it plays an important role in national growth strategies. Women business owners generate new areas in entrepreneurship activities and they carry potential to be important player in the economy based on information.

As a result, women will eventually contribute removal of regional economic differences by playing more significant role in different occupations and by developing their entrepreneur characteristics. It is essential that women should make their movement through organization to overcome problems that they face in terms of entrepreneurship.

When we compare Konya city with the previous years from the angle of women entrepreneurship, it was observed that there have been significant developments. Under the effects of several factors, it was determined that number of women who established their own business has been increasing day by day. In the meantime, it was observed that women entrepreneurs have been organized so as to find solutions for financial and non-financial problems and to have access to various incentives through the supports of different institutions and organizations.

In the Konya city case, the studies conducted regarding women entrepreneurs directed us to the samples of “Women Entrepreneur Board (KAGİK)” and “Konya Women Entrepreneur Desk (KAGİM)”. Therefore, organization of women entrepreneurs was taken based on the samples of the KAGİK and the KAGİM in this present study.

5.1 Women Entrepreneur Board (KAGİK)

The Women Entrepreneur Board (KAGİK) which was founded in Konya under the Turkish Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges (TOBB) is an active board in Konya and founded along with the plan and policy of TOBB to obtain a women entrepreneur board in each city. To that end, Konya Women Entrepreneur Board (KAGİK) was structured in March 2008 and started its activities with 40 members; and still continues to operate.

The main purpose of this board is to carry out studies to develop both quantity and quality of women employment. The coordination of this board was provided by the TOBB. The Konya KAGİK has been direct supporter of the Women Entrepreneurs Desk (KAGİM) which was founded to support women who has motivation to be an entrepreneur in the Konya city under the EU project; and both organizations have performed successful projects jointly. In this framework, there have been various trainings and seminars arranged for women entrepreneurs. These mutual activities are currently implemented successfully.

Among the main purposes of the Konya Women Entrepreneurs Board (KAGİK) which develops strategic partnerships, promotes and handles experience sharing, provides opportunity to competitors to know and compare each other, there is one to strengthen business networks among similar women initiatives as well. In terms of activity organization and sharing the best experiences, the business networks provide a crucial resource since they offer communication channel for support and a valuable training mean. Furthermore, extended business networks will also help to reach all sectors of the society and to make activities more convenient for determined purposes (http://www.kto.org.tr/konya-women-girisimciler-board-382s.htm, A.D.: 2013 May).
5.2 Konya Women Entrepreneur Desk (KAGİM)

Konya Women Entrepreneur Desk (KAGİM) which adopted a motto “Turn your dreams into an idea; then turn your ideas into your business” is support unit that continues its operations under Civil Society Dialog – the EU – Turkish Chambers Forum, the EU – Turkish Chambers Partnership Grant Program which is referred as “Strengthening Women – Supporting Women Through Establishing Partnerships in Terms of Capacity and Service in Konya Women Entrepreneurship” and jointly conducted by the Formaper Agency bound to both Konya Chamber of Commerce and Milano Chamber of Commerce with the project number of CFCU/TR0604.03-13.

General targets of the KAGİM Project are given below:

- Increasing number of women entrepreneur in Konya by encouraging women to establish business,
- Supporting existing women entrepreneurs and promoting entrepreneurship against unemployment,
- Establishing a communication network among women entrepreneurs,
- Correcting negative women entrepreneur perception,
- Strengthening the collaboration between Turkish and the EU Chambers of Commerce.

The KAGİM started its operations to embrace a strategy which monitor women who want to establish their business and who already have business as an entrepreneur. The solid purpose of this strategy is to increase number of women entrepreneurs and accordingly to support existence and development of the women owned KOBİs; and to generate and offer high-quality business development services by promoting women to set up their own businesses in the Konya City (http://www.kagim.org.tr, A.D.: 2013 May).

5.2.1 The KAGİM Services

The KAGİM provides services for information, training and consulting for women entrepreneurs. Within the targets under the scope of these services offered, there are aims to reveal and develop the entrepreneur sides of women as well. The KAGİM gives supports under these main headlines: under the “Information” title: women and economy, sectorial information, incentives and supports, the European Union Grant programs, bureaucratic processes; under the “Training” title: start-up programs for the women who want to be an entrepreneur, and entrepreneurship trainings and training booklets under the capacity development programs for entrepreneur women; under the “Consulting” title, a support desk service, experience sharing group and monitoring services are given.

When these services and feedbacks taken from the conducted activities are investigated, it was seen that the KAGİM provides a bridging function in Konya for women entrepreneurs in the extent of guidance for their business life, in their self-development from the social aspect; and in undertaking active and successful roles in social projects.

6. Conclusion

Enterprise and entrepreneurship concepts are the ones that have succeeded to carry out their position in business life to the new dimensions day by day from past to our present time as one of the primary business dynamics. Women entrepreneurship is a concept that has arisen as a result of movement of women into entrepreneurship activities and increment of the importance of their role in women entrepreneurship activities. Women carried some of their natural characteristics, emotions, ideas and talents which differentiate them from the men into the business life and succeeded to be pointed out in the entrepreneurship field based on their creative and innovative point of view and different management styles. It is undeniable fact that sound of women’s heels has been heard in the entrepreneurship area in our country and in the world more than ever.

Women entrepreneurship and organization of these entrepreneurs are two concepts which came to forefront in recent years and it was seen that they are used in the literature together in the literature.

In this present study, the women entrepreneurship subject was considered over the case study of the Konya city in the context of organization of entrepreneurs. Conducted studies exhibited that women entrepreneurs have crucial contributions in actualizing their business opinions, being motivated, being more conscious and in their success. From this point of view, the study was structured based on concrete samples that bring phenomenon of women entrepreneurs and organization of entrepreneurs in the Konya city. The researches made at this point carried this study to the samples of the “Women Entrepreneur Board (KAGİK)” and the “Konya Women Entrepreneur Desk (KAGİM)”.

In the context of organization of entrepreneurs, the KAGİK and the KAGİM provide support in fields of entrepreneurship training, incentives, communication network, information share and motivation subject by bringing
women entrepreneurs together. There are also successful studies in Konya on the levels of NGOs, organizations, foundations, and individual activities as well. It is observed that foundations, women organizations, training institutions, private-public institutions and organizations in the Konya city contributed to the social change and evolution through social activities such as poverty, education, maternity and child health, human rights, nature protection and sustainable development. It is also known that some women entrepreneurs individually contribute these activities. Although these activities have significant consequences, unfortunately they do not carry a character to be considered under the social initiative activity that leads the society.

As a result of this study which relies on the aim to draw a general profile regarding organization of women entrepreneurs in the Konya city, it was concluded that among the causes of problems that the women entrepreneurs encounter in their business life, faults in society’s economic, social and cultural structure can be mentioned. It is thought that each step taken toward overcoming these problems by means of organization of women entrepreneurs will provide positive contribution to women entrepreneurs. For women who constitute half of the society to form a well-balanced integrity with men the other half, various and urgent precautions should be taken.

The women entrepreneurship has crucial importance in economic and social development. If women entrepreneurs are given diverse opportunities in business life, and if limitations before them in entrepreneurship are removed, this will be beneficent for both them and for the people who are employed by them. Moreover, participation to the labor force will eventually strengthen women’s position in the society and affect their development level and prevent injustice in income distribution. From this point of view, the public organizations and non-government organizations must show great effort to promote women entrepreneurship. In addition, contributions of universities and faculty members are required to guide ongoing studies and to train women entrepreneurs. A world in which women can mobilize their individual abilities and potentials for the good of humanity will be more democratic and more independent for both women and men. As the private entrepreneurship which relies on competition and that is referred as “private enterprise” develops in a country, that country’s economic welfare will develop accordingly.

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Measurement of Efficiency in The Turkish Banking Sector in the 2009-2011 Period: A DEA Approach

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to measure the efficiency of banks, which are leading actors in the financial system, using the Data Envelopment Analysis and investigate whether there is a development in their efficiency on a yearly basis by the help of Malmquist Total Factor Productivity Index. In this context, we have used uninterrupted data belonging to 20 commercial banks in the Turkish banking sector with public and private capital between 2009 and 2011. According to the results of the analysis determined using the input and output components by adopting the intermediary approach, the efficiency levels of the banks were high and there was a slight increase in their total factor productivity on a yearly basis.

1. Introduction

Although increasing competition has affected all sectors and economy, it has led especially the banking sector to seek new ways. In particular, rising risks and entry of risk management into the markets with its derivative products after the collapse of the Bretton-Woods system in 1973 caused the bank management to gain importance and the financial competition in the world to increase further. Scales of banks changed and in order to achieve success in the competition, the phenomenon of growth came to the foreground to minimize risks and fund costs and maximize revenues as well as increasing funds. As the banks grew, many banks went international by crossing over the country’s borders and sought ways to strengthen their positions in foreign countries.

The concept of efficiency has come to the foreground in today’s banking sector in parallel to the developments in economy and intensive efforts have been made to increase efficiency. It is now a necessity to work efficiently and not to cause waste of resources in global economies where a stiff competition prevails. Being efficient is one of the most important conditions for being competitive. Banks that can increase their efficiency can reach a larger customer mass at lower costs.

The purpose of this study is to measure financial efficiency in the Turkish banking sector using the data envelopment analysis (DEA). In this context, efficiency of 20 public and private capital commercial banks operating in Turkey between 2009 and 2011 was tested using the DEA and then an attempt was made to measure whether there was an increase in the efficiency of these banks on a yearly basis by using Malmquist Total Factor Productivity Indexes.

2. Literature Review

There are a large number of studies in the literature concerning the banking sector using DEA. Most of these studies
concentrate on the technical efficiency of the banks. Efficiency measurement indicates whether the banks have used a minimum number of inputs in order to produce a certain number of outputs or whether they can produce maximum output using a certain number of inputs (Fethi and Pasiouras, 2010: 190). On the other hand, although the samples and variables of the academic studies conducted in this regard have been different, their common purpose has been to measure inefficiency of the banks or in a more general sense the service sector (Çukur, 2005: 19). Some prominent ones among these studies are given below.

Berger and Mester (1997) attempted to measure the efficiencies of the banks in the USA between 1990 and 1995 by using econometric efficiency frontier models. According to the findings of the study, while the average cost efficiencies of the American banks were at the level of 86%, their average profit efficiency scores were 47%. According to these results, the American banks were able to manage their cost efficiency well but they suffered from serious shortcomings regarding profit efficiency.

Kwan and Wilcox (1999), Akhavein et al. (1997), Berger et al. (1999) and DeYoung and Hasan (1998) concluded in their studies that bank mergers increased efficiency.

In their study on the efficiencies of the banks in Australia, Sturm and Williams (2008) demonstrated that the efficiency levels of the banks with foreign capital were higher and the reason for this was the management mentality of these banks and the regulations they made on banking.

Rezitis (2008), on the other hand, studied the effects of merger and acquisition activities on the efficiency and total factor productivity of Greek banks. According to the results of the study, where Malmquist productivity index was applied, merger and acquisition activities had a negative effect on the technical efficiency and total factor productivity of the Greek banks. In particular, technical efficiencies of the banks that merged fell in the period after the merger. Besides this, the decrease in the total factor productivity that was experienced after the merger were attributed to the increase in technical inefficiency and to the disappearance of the economy of scale.

Berger et al. (2009) conducted a study to measure the efficiency of the Chinese banks in the period between 1994 and 2003 and determine the influence of the privatization and foreign partnerships within the framework of the Chinese government’s reform efforts on the Chinese banks. According to the results of the study, it has been observed that banks with foreign capital attained the highest levels of efficiency. Banks with foreign partners that had minority shares, on the other hand, increased their efficiency considerably on a yearly basis. It was also seen that the four largest public banks that dominated the country’s banking sector had the lowest efficiency values. On the basis of the findings of their study, Berger et al. pointed out that if these four largest banks joined forces with a foreign partner, even if with a minority share, their performance could increase significantly.

Das and Ghosh (2009) conducted a study using DEA aimed at determining the effects of financial deregulation on the cost and profit efficiencies of the commercial banks in India between 1999 and 2004. They found out in this study that higher levels of cost efficiency and lower levels of profit efficiency indicated the inefficiency of the income part of the banking activity. They emphasized that the decrease in profit efficiency resulted from allocation inefficiency. According to Das and Ghosh, the size of banks, their ownership structure, product diversity and positive financial indicators are important variables that lead to differences in efficiency levels.

There are several studies in the relevant literature on efficiency and productivity analyses in the Turkish banking system. Studies conducted by Aydoğan and Çapoğlu (1989), Zaim (1993), Dağlı (1995), Yolalan (1996), Ertuğrul and Zaim (1996), Ergin and Aypek (1997), İnan (2000), Cingi and Tarım (2000), Çolak and Altan (2002) and Atan and Çatalbaş (2005) can be given as examples in this regard. A common point in these studies is that they use financial rates that are determined using the production or intermediary approach in measuring the performance of the banking sector both individually and as a sector and make efficiency and productivity evaluations.

In addition to these studies, Aydoğan (1992), Yolalan (1996), Denizer et al. (2000), İşık (2000) and Yiğidim (2001) investigated whether the rapid change that took place in the banking sector after the financial liberation in Turkey altered efficiency of the whole sector and the banks individually. Fields et al. (1993) and Çolak and Kılıçkaplan (2000), on the other hand, conducted efficiency and productivity analyses in their studies taking into consideration the costs and size of the scale of banks.

3. Methodology

Since the model of analysis that will be used in the measurement of efficiency and the differences among the data that will be used in the model will have an effect on the results of the analysis, selection of model and variables is extremely
important. Methods for measuring efficiency in the banking sector are divided into three, namely ratio analysis, parametric and non-parametric methods.

Ratio analysis is a method that is applied by monitoring in the course of time the ratio that arises from a comparison of a single input with a single output and is the most frequently used efficiency method. The ratio analysis method is based on the calculation of the items on financial tables of companies as percentages or multiples of one another. However, ratio analysis is stationary by virtue of its nature. Data obtained using this method reflect performance of businesses only by periods. Each ratio handled in the analyses made using this method concentrates on only one of the dimensions related to efficiency and ignores other factors connected with efficiency. When it is viewed from the perspective of productivity of the banking sector, this situation does not allow a comprehensive analysis as it involves a lot of inputs and outputs. The facts that the ratio that is obtained needs to be observed on a yearly basis and other values are also required for a comparison are weaknesses of this method (Büker et al., 2009: 81). Moreover, difficulties are experienced in determining inputs and outputs in the banking sector in terms of their quality. A ratio that is considered an input in one approach can be considered an output in another approach and there are situations where inputs and outputs are not expressed using the same units (İnan, 2000: 83). Due to all these drawbacks, ratio analyses may prove to be insufficient in evaluating the productivity of the banking sector from a wider and accurate perspective.

Measurement of efficiency in parametric methods is based on the assumption that there is an analytical function concerning production in the relevant branch of industry and an attempt is made to determine the parameters of this function (Yeşilyurt and Alan, 2003: 93). Methods of this kind involve the parametric relationship between technical efficiency in the output and input levels. An advantage of parametric methods is that they include the term error in the development of the efficiency value. However, when the term error is included, this time the question of separating it from the term error that arises from inefficiency emerges (Weill, 2003: 579). In general, these methods suffer from three shortcomings. First, since multiple regression takes into account only one output, it requires that all outputs be reduced to a single value via the common unit. This situation renders this method extremely impractical in such a sector as the banking where there are very many outputs. Therefore, the units that are found to be efficient as a result of investigation are only units that have a productivity level above the average. Finally, regression analysis attempts to define the production function parametrically. The assumption that the production function must be defined only in one way does not fit the nature of decision units that are subject of efficiency analysis in the banking analysis.

Non-parametric methods, on the other hand, attempt to measure the distance to the efficient frontier by using linear-programming-based techniques. Since these methods, as in the case of parametric methods, do not have to be based on behavioral assumptions related to the structure of the production unit, they are relatively more advantageous. Moreover, the methods in question enjoy the additional advantage of being able to use more than one explanatory and explained variable (Seyrek and Ata, 2010: 69). However, besides these advantages, they may transfer data and measurement errors and chance and other errors to the model as they do not possess a random error term and determine the efficient frontier wrongly.

There are two fundamental approaches in the relevant literature as non-parametric efficiency measurement methods, Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) and Free Disposal Hull (FDH) (Berger and Humprey, 1997: 200). Of these two methods, the one that is more frequently used in the banking sector is the DEA method, which was developed by Charnes et al. in 1978.

DEA is a linear programming-based technique that aims to measure the relative efficiency and productivity of the decision-making units in cases where inputs and outputs measured with more than one and different scales or having different measurement units render making comparison difficult (Uzgören and Şahin, 2011: 196).

The method in question is used for performance evaluations in relations of production that involve multiple inputs and outputs and where the classic regression technique can not be applied. DEA, which produces the same kind of outputs by using the same kind of inputs that are assumed to be homogeneous, compares the decision-making units among themselves, determines the best observation which generates the highest number of outputs by using the fewest number of inputs and adopts this as the efficient frontier. It tries to measure the relative efficiencies of other decision-making units according to this efficient frontier (Cihangir, 2004: 170). The important thing about DEA is that the efficiency of the calculated efficiency values of the units are measured according to the units that constitute the observation set.

DEA can be used both ways, namely input oriented or output oriented. Input-oriented DEA models investigate what the most appropriate input composition should be to generate a certain output composition in the most efficient way. Output-oriented DEA models, on the other hand, investigate the highest possible number of output compositions using a certain input composition (Atan and Çatalbaş, 2005: 52).
In this study, the DEA method, which is frequently used in measuring efficiency of banks, was used to determine the efficiency values of 20 public and private capital commercial banks operating in the Turkish banking sector on the basis of their annual data for the 2009-2011 period.

4. Data Set

There are three basic approaches, namely production, intermediary and profitability approaches, in studies intended to measure efficiency in the banking sector regarding what the banking products and inputs are. The production approach regards banks as units that use production factors such as capital and workforce as input and produce balance sheet items such as deposits, credits, securities portfolio. The intermediary approach concentrates on the banks’ function as intermediary in financial markets and is based on the assumption that banks obtain funds by drawing deposits to be turned into credits, securities and other assets. According to this approach, deposits and other resources are considered inputs whereas interest costs and workforce and real capital costs are regarded as total cost components. The profitability approach, on the other hand, sees banks as firms that seek to get profits and hence adopts profitability as one of the most important components for banks to continue their activities. Within the framework of this approach, items that are classified as interest expenses in the income statement are used as inputs whereas items that provide interest revenues are used as outputs.

The intermediary approach was used in this study to measure the efficiency and productivity of banks. Since deposit totals were taken into account in this study, development and investment banks were omitted from the analysis. The analysis was conducted in the DEA under the assumption of constant returns to scale using the DEAP 2.1. package software. The model formed in this study was input-oriented, constant focus multiple-stage DEA.

The data in the study about the banks were obtained from the official web page of the Banks Association of Turkey (www.tbb.org.tr). The input-oriented approach was adopted with the assumption that banks had more influence on the inputs. What is important about this choice is that input and output-oriented models predict exactly the same frontiers and the decision-making units on the efficient frontier are the same. Only the levels of efficiency of inefficient decision-making units may exhibit variation in these approaches (Bumin and Cengiz, 2009: 81).

In this study, the efficiency levels of the banks between the years 2009 and 2011 were measured using DEA and efficient and inefficient banks were determined. The target input and output levels of the inefficient banks were formed. Likewise, reference sets were formed for the inefficient banks.

Input and output values are variables that constitute banks’ balance sheet items. The values are in ratios and units. The reason why the values are handled as ratios is that the banks were compared in the study irrespective of differences in their scale size in order to make the analysis more reliable.

4.1 Determination of Decision-Making Units

Input and output variables that constitute the data set need to be selected reliably and accurately in order to conduct efficiency measurement using DEA. To what extent the results of the analysis will be significant is, by virtue of the nature of DEA, directly correlated with the fact that the selected inputs and outputs should be to the point and correct items. This is so much so that the model will determine the decision-making units that it will classify as efficient or inefficient at the end of the analysis thanks to the input and output variables to be determined.

In order to measure the efficiency of decision-making units, it is necessary to determine the input and output variables belonging to these units and at the same time in order for the DEA model to yield successful results in the decision-making problem, the number of inputs and outputs need to be as many as possible. However, all of the selected input and output components need to be used for each decision-making unit. If the number of inputs selected for a DEA model is (m) and the number of outputs is (p), at least (m+p+1) decision-making units are a requisite constraint for the reliability of the study. Moreover, the number of decision-making units must be at least twice the number of variables (Çolak and Altan, 2002: 44-45).

Since 3 input and 2 output variables were used in the model that was applied in the study, the number of the decision-making units must be at least;

\[
\text{Number of Inputs} + \text{Number of Outputs} + 1 = 6 \text{ and } (\text{Number of Inputs} + \text{Number of Outputs}) \times 2 = 10.
\]

In the light of this information, 20 commercial private and public capital banks operating in the Turkish banking sector were determined as decision-making units. Thus, conditions required for the reliability and accuracy of the study were met. Table 1 shows decision-making units.
Table 1. Set of Decision-Making Units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Banks</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Banks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Ziraat Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Türkiye Garanti Bankası A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Türkiye Halk Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Türkiye İş Bankası A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası T.A.O.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Yapı ve Kredi Bankası A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Akbank T.A.Ş.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Arap Türk Bankası A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Alternatif Bank A.Ş.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Citibank A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>AnadoluBank A.Ş.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Denizbank A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Şekerbank T.A.Ş.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Deutsche Bank A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Tekstil Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Eurobank Tekfen A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Türksh Bank A.Ş.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Finans Bank A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Türk Ekonomi Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>HSBC Bank A.Ş.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Determination of Input and Output Variables

Besides the decision-making units, determination and selection of input and output variables is one of the most important issues in analyses of non-parametrical efficiency. A joint decision cannot be taken in determining inputs and outputs especially in the efficiency analyses of banks. A fundamental reason for this is that the services that banks produce (outputs) cannot be observed concretely and therefore do not have measurable counterparts.

While on the one hand studies in the relevant literature were made use of in the selection of inputs and outputs that would be used in the study, an evaluation was also made in terms of banking on the other hand. Determination of inputs and outputs to be used in the best possible manner is important in increasing the reliability and validity of the study and providing better feedback about in what way and how the improvements to be recommended to the inefficient decision-making units can be performed. Table 2 shows the inputs and outputs that are used in the intermediary approach.

Table 2. Inputs and Outputs Used in the Intermediary Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INPUT</th>
<th>OUTPUT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Total Deposits / Total Assets (%)</td>
<td>1. Total Loans and Receivables / Total Assets (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Interest Expenses / Total Assets (%)</td>
<td>2. Interest Income / Total Assets (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Other Operating Expenses / Total Assets (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The intermediary approach is one of the three approaches frequently used in efficiency analyses in banking together with the intermediary and profitability approaches. According to this, “Total Deposits / Total Assets”, “Interest Expenses / Total Assets” and “Other Operating Expenses / Total Assets” were determined as number 1, number 2 and number 3 inputs respectively within the scope of the intermediary approach. On the other hand, “Total Loans and Receivables/Total Assets” and “Interest Income / Total Assets” were determined as number 1 and number 2 outputs respectively. Whether the banks operated efficiently or not according to the intermediary approach will be analyzed using the aforementioned inputs and outputs. First, efficiency scores of the banks will be obtained and efficient and inefficient banks will be determined. After the efficiency values of the banks have been determined, the number of times efficient banks have been referred to and potential improvement tables of inefficient banks will be prepared and they will be provided guidance in reaching their objectives.

5. Experimental Results

In the intermediary approach, first the Charnes, Cooper, Rhodes (CCR) model was used and Total Efficiency Values were calculated for each year. Then, Malmquist Index, Technical Efficiency, Change in Technology, Pure Technical Efficiency and Scale Efficiency values were calculated using the Malmquist Total Factor Productivity Analysis and they were shown in tables by year. Thus, the sources of the changes in the productivity of commercial banks that constitute the observation set will be revealed. Since the variables used in the analysis are taken as ratios, there is no need to...
distinguish between the banks according their scales of size. The aim here is to make the analyses simpler and the results more accurate in this way.

Table 3 shows the total efficiency scores by year of the commercial banks in the observation between the years 2009 and 2011 according to the production approach.

Table 3. Efficiency Values for the Observation Set According to the Production Approach (2009-2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Ziraat Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Türkiye Halk Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası T.A.O.</td>
<td>93,7%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Akbank T.A.Ş.</td>
<td>96,1%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>94,3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Alternatif Bank A.Ş.</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>99,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Anadolu Bank A.Ş.</td>
<td>92,2%</td>
<td>94,2%</td>
<td>98,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Şekerbank T.A.Ş.(417,230),(488,248)</td>
<td>89,1%</td>
<td>89,8%</td>
<td>84,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Tekstil Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>85,9%</td>
<td>93,4%</td>
<td>99,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Turkish Bank A.Ş.</td>
<td>62,9%</td>
<td>79,2%</td>
<td>77,3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Türk Ekonomi Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>75,3%</td>
<td>79,6%</td>
<td>81,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Türkiye Garanti Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>92,5%</td>
<td>96,4%</td>
<td>95,1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Türkiye İş Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>88,5%</td>
<td>87,7%</td>
<td>86,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Yapı ve Kredi Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>83,6%</td>
<td>86,7%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Arap Türk Bankası A.Ş.</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Citibank A.Ş.</td>
<td>70,6%</td>
<td>79,8%</td>
<td>79,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Denizbank A.Ş.</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Deutsche Bank A.Ş.</td>
<td>31,5%</td>
<td>65,8%</td>
<td>51,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Eurobank Tekfen A.Ş.</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Finans Bank A.Ş.</td>
<td>94,8%</td>
<td>94,7%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>HSBC Bank A.Ş.</td>
<td>80,8%</td>
<td>84,0%</td>
<td>88,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>86,9%</td>
<td>91,6%</td>
<td>91,8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are five banks that are efficient in all years according to the intermediary approach. These banks are Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Ziraat Bankası A.Ş., Türkiye Halk Bankası A.Ş., Arap Türk Bankası A.Ş., Denizbank A.Ş. and Eurobank Tekfen A.Ş. The number of banks that were efficient in 2009 was six. These banks were Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Ziraat Bankası, Türkiye Halk Bankası, Alternatif Bank A.Ş., Arap Türk Bankası A.Ş., Denizbank A.Ş., Eurobank Tekfen A.Ş. The number of banks that were efficient in 2010 was eight. These banks were Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Ziraat Bankası, Türkiye Halk Bankası, Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası T.A.O., Akbank T.A.Ş., Arap Türk Bankası A.Ş., Denizbank A.Ş. and Eurobank Tekfen A.Ş. The number of banks that were efficient in 2011 was eight. These banks were Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Ziraat Bankası, Türkiye Halk Bankası, Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası T.A.O., Yapı ve Kredi Bankası A.Ş., Arap Türk Bankası A.Ş., Denizbank A.Ş. and Eurobank Tekfen A.Ş. When the banks that have the lowest levels of efficiency by year are examined, it is observed that Deutsche Bank A.Ş. is the one with the lowest efficiency in the years 2009, 2010 and 2011.

Table 4. Average Statistics by Year According to the Production Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of Average Efficiency</td>
<td>0.869</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>0.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Banks that Constitute the Observation Set</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Inefficient Units</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average of Inefficient Units</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Lowest Efficiency</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.658</td>
<td>0.516</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first line of Table 4, which includes average statistics concerning efficiency values of the banks calculated separately for each year according to the production approach, shows the average of the efficiency levels of the banks in the observation set for the relevant years, whereas the second line shows the number of banks that constitute the
observation set by year. When average efficiencies are considered, it is seen that they were 91.6 % and 86.9 % respectively in 2009 and 2010.

According to the values given in Table 4, 2011 was the year when the banks’ efficiency levels were at their highest. Whereas 2010 was the year when the average of inefficient banks was at the lowest with 0.761 while it was at the same time the year when the number of efficient banks was the lowest (six banks).

In the period when the analysis was made, the banks attained an average increase of 0.002 only in 2011 in their efficiency scores in terms of the average intermediary function. An examination of whether the efficient banks maintained their efficiency throughout the period or not and whether the inefficient banks improved their efficiency scores or not reveals that eight banks could not maintain their efficiency values in 2009 and experienced a decrease in their efficiency values as of the end of 2011 whereas six banks increased their efficiency values. On the other hand, efficiency scores of six banks did not change between the year the analysis started and the year it ended and remained constant. These banks were at the same time fully efficient banks that enjoyed an efficiency level of 1.0. According to the data in Table 4, twelve banks in 2009, fourteen banks in 2010 and twelve banks in 2011 could not demonstrate technical efficiency. In other words, these banks remained below the level of output that they could have attained within the sector according to their scale with their current inputs.

In the final stage of the analysis made using the production approach, Malmquist Production Index was in order to distinguish between technical efficiency and technological change due to the time dimension. Malmquist Production Index was calculated separately for two periods, namely 2010 and 2011.

In Table 6, the results obtained for all of the deposit banks constituting the observation set as a consequence of the implementation of Malmquist Index for the period of 2010-2011 are shown as annual averages.

Table 6. Periodical Comparison of Malmquist Indexes Calculated for the Observation Set According to the Production Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Technical Efficiency Change (TE)</th>
<th>Technological Change (TC)</th>
<th>Pure Technical Efficiency Change (PTE)</th>
<th>Scale Efficiency Change (SE)</th>
<th>Malmquist Production Index (M)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2009-2010</td>
<td>Observation Set</td>
<td>1.027</td>
<td>0.995</td>
<td>1.030</td>
<td>0.998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-2011</td>
<td>Observation Set</td>
<td>1.025</td>
<td>1.067</td>
<td>1.004</td>
<td>1.021</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The values given in Table 6 were obtained by calculating the geometrical averages of the Malmquist Production Index values found for each bank. The figures in the last column of the tables indicate the change in the total factor productivity that is the Malmquist Production Index value. If this value is greater than one, it shows an increase in total factor productivity whereas if it is smaller than one, it shows a decrease. If Malmquist production index is equal to one, it indicates that there is no change in total factor efficiency between the two periods that are compared.

When the values in the last column of Table 6 are examined, it is observed that total productivity of the banks in the observation set increased by 2.3 % in 2009 in comparison to 2010. The Malmquist index for 2010-2011, on the other hand, was 1.094. In other words, total productivity of the banks in the observation set increased by 9.4 % in 2011 in comparison to 2010.

It is possible to explain the change in total factor productivity by using four different indexes. To this end, first, it is necessary to investigate the effects of technical efficiency change (TE) and technological change (TC), which are two of the major components of the Malmquist production index. An index value greater than 1.00 indicates a positive contribution in these indexes whereas a value below one points to a negative contribution.

When the third (TE) and fourth (TC) columns of Table 8 are examined, it is observed that within the framework of the production approach, the technical efficiency change of the banks made a contribution of 2.5 % to the total factor productivity in comparison to the previous year whereas technological change increased by 6.7 % in the same year and made a positive contribution. A positive change in technological efficiency change and technology caused a 9.4 % increase in total factor productivity in 2008 in comparison to the previous year.

While there was an improvement of 2.5 % in the technical efficiency and 6.7 % in technological change of the banks that constituted the observation set in 2011. On the other hand, a 9.4 % increase took place in total factor productivity.
6. Conclusions

The developments that occurred in the banking sector in the international financial system and the increasing importance of banks in global economy rendered measurement of the performance and efficiency of banks vital. The banking sector is in a mutual and continuous interaction with economy. The crises that took place in Turkish economy in the past and political and economic instabilities had traumatic effects on the banking sector. The banking sector’s reducing its problems arising from the overall economic structure to a minimum is closely linked to having a strong and healthy financial structure. Banks must avoid wasting sources and work efficiently in order to be competitive in the global environment.

Various studies have been conducted in Turkey and other countries using the DEA regarding the evaluation of efficiency of the banks in the banking sector. The reason why DEA is frequently used in the banking sector is that this sector has many inputs and outputs. An advantage of DEA over other methods of efficiency measurement is that it allows making sound analyses in cases where there are many inputs and outputs and determines inefficient units and sets goals for these inefficient units to attain efficiency.

In this study, efficiencies of 20 commercial banks operating in the Turkish banking sector were investigated by using the data that belonged to the 2009-2011 period. The DEA and Malmquist Total Factor Productivity Index were used in the analyses under the assumption of constant returns to scale. The model formed in the study is the input-oriented, constant focus to scale and multiple stage DEA. Analyses were made according to the intermediary approach, which is frequently used in determining what the products and inputs of banks are and the results were evaluated. The efficiency values of the banks were measured to determine efficient and inefficient banks and then target input and output levels of the inefficient banks were formed. Likewise, reference sets were formed for the inefficient banks and finally whether the banks exhibited any development or not was investigated in the light of Malmquist indexes.

According to the findings obtained in the study, the efficiency scores of the banks increased 0.047 intermediary function in 2009 and 2010 and they demonstrated a slight increase of 0.002 in the year 2011. Four banks were not able to maintain their efficiency levels in 2009 and had lower efficiency values as of the end of 2011 while eleven banks increased their efficiency values. On the other hand, efficiency scores of four banks did not change in the period between the beginning and final years of the analysis and remained constant. Fourteen banks, in 2009, twelve banks in 2010 and twelve banks in 2011 could not exhibit technical efficiency.

According to the results of a periodical comparison of Malmquist production indexes, total productivity of the banks in the observation set increased by 2.3 % in 2010 in comparison to 2009. In the year 2011, on the other hand, total productivity of the banks increased by 9.4 % in comparison to 2010.

References


Critical Success Factors for a Customer Relationship Management Strategy

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Abstract

Most organizations have perceived the customer relationship management (CRM) concept as a technological solution for problems in individual areas, accompanied by a great deal of uncoordinated initiatives. Nevertheless, CRM must be conceived as a strategy, due to its human, technological, and processes implications, at the time an organization decides to implement it. On this basis, the main goal stated in this research is to propose, justify, and validate a model based on critical success factors (CSFs) that will constitute a guide for companies in the implementation and diagnosis of a CRM strategy. The model is conformed by a set of 13 CSFs with their 55 corresponding metrics, which will serve as a guide for organizations wishing to apply this type of strategy. These factors cover the three key aspects of every CRM strategy (human factor, processes, and technology); giving a global focus and propitiating success in the implementation of a CRM strategy. These CSFs – and their metrics – were evaluated by a group of internationally experts allowing determining guidelines for a CRM implementation as well as the probable causes of the deficiencies in past projects.

1. Introduction

Within the present business environment, characterized by an increasingly aggressive competence, the battle to win customers is stronger every day. Companies that enter to compete in a new market weaken the already existing and solid ones, due to the new ways of doing and conceiving businesses. One of the factors that have driven all these changes is the constant change and the evolution of technology.

Because of this reality, the CRM concept has evolved in such a way that nowadays it must be viewed as a strategy to maintain a long-term relationship with the customers. Further to the knowledge and implications that surround a CRM, one of the main problems is that no model exists to guide companies in the implementation of this type of strategy. Each company is different, has its own culture and business processes, etc. Consequently, it is important not to consider CRM as a magical solution that will solve all the company’s problems. On the contrary, it must be studied to know its benefits and impacts for the organization. The implementation of this strategy requires hard work to be successful.

Our goal is to propose a model based on CSFs for a CRM strategy, conformed by a set of 13 CSFs with their 55 corresponding metrics, which will serve as a guide for organizations wishing to apply this type of strategy. These factors cover the three key aspects of every CRM strategy: human factor, processes, and technology; giving a global focus and propitiating success in the implementation of a CRM strategy. The proposal of these factors to guarantee a successful CRM implementation responds to the necessity of an integrated and balanced approach to technology, process, and people.

In addition, we evaluate the CSFs proposed and that evaluation shows that they can be upgraded, analyzed in depth, and adapted to the diverent markets where they are to be implemented. As a result of a features analysis – survey, we can conclude that the overall expert evaluation was positive and that the chosen CSFs are the starting point for the evaluation of a CRM strategy from a systematic standpoint.

The following sections will show the reality confronted by companies when undertaking CRM projects, and the aspects that a CRM strategy involves, with the purpose of providing support to formulate the aspects that address the success of its implementation. First, a brief description of the concepts related to CRM is provide; then, the research methodology is described, before the presentation of the proposal of the CSFs for a CRM strategy, as well as the planning and execution of its evaluation through the features analysis – survey method, which was selected by using the DESMET methodology. Lastly, a results analysis is described, as well as the conclusions reached in this research.
2. Customer relationship management (CRM)

In the late 1960s, Levitt suggested that the goal of businesses was to “create and maintain customers” (Fox, 2000). After more than two generations, it can be appreciated how the CRM concept, and the need to maintain a long-term relationship with customers, is becoming an important issue.

The main reason for this customer’s importance return within the company is the change in the way of doing business nowadays (Goldenberg, 2000). In recent years, a study forecasts that for various reasons, and with more or less clarity regarding the subject, the companies have a new trend to implement CRM as a factor that will allow them to survive in these new market conditions, favoring the relationship with their customers (Versleijen-Pradham, 2000).

Considering this environment, and the evidence of the importance of having a close relationship with the customer for the companies’ future, it is imperative that impacts be measured and everything related to CRM be handled with care. One of the problems that this term faces is to know its implications, as various trends exist within the market. One of the most popular trends is the software manufacturers’ one, which identifies CRM as a series of information technology (IT) products oriented towards automating some business processes such as marketing, sales, or services (Kirby, 2001). According to (Light, 2001) “to be successful, CRM projects need to be viewed as more than the implementation of IT.” These solutions are valid as they allow obtaining some results regarding improvement in attention to the customer; nevertheless, CRM is a complex term that involves several aspects within the organization and it cannot be reduced to only one of these aspects. Systemic approaches to CRM help organizations coordinate and effectively maintain the growth of different customer contact points or communication channels. The systemic approach places CRM at the core of the organization, with customer-oriented business processes and the integration of CRM systems (Bull, 2003).

In this sense, only 3% of the companies are developing successful CRM projects; 17% are starting to see the projects from a holistic focus; 35% of the companies have started projects without any type of coordination; and 45% have not evaluated CRM (Kirby, 2001). Due to the complexity of starting a CRM strategy, encountered by several companies, some counseling companies and companies handling statistic data, have observed the mistakes incurred in the past. They recommend some practices and considerations to be taken into account (Kirby, 2001– Forsyth, 2001).

On the other hand, Kirby expresses the following observations confirming the statements mentioned by Forsyth adding new elements ( Kirby, 2001):

- The Directors’ understanding that CRM is not only a strategy requiring changes in different company aspects, and its implementation is not instantaneous.
- Presuming that the customer is already well known, and not use the available resources to collect and input all information related to the customer.
- The belief that by purchasing a software package, a CRM is obtained, forgetting that there are important points, such as integration of present systems and the change of organizational culture.
- An ineffective communication between the departments involved in the processes.
- The lack of definition of metrics that allow understanding the evolution and benefits CRM is providing.

Payne assures that traditional marketing was focused in winning customers (Payne vd, 2009); now, with the CRM focus, the purpose is both to win as to maintain the customers. The new CRM paradigm rejects a change in the traditional marketing, described as “customer management”. According to (Light, 2001), CRM evolved from business processes, such as relationship marketing, and the increased emphasis on improved customer retention through the effective management of customer relationships.

The focus of this work is based on (Giga Information Group, 2001), which establishes that CRM is not merely technology applications for marketing, sales and service, but rather – when fully and successfully implemented – a cross-functional, customer-driven, technology-integrated business strategy that maximizes relationships and encompasses the entire organization (Bull, 2003; Pappers, 1999; Goldenberg, 2000)).

A CRM business strategy includes marketing, operations, sales, customer service, human resources, R&D and finance, as well as information technology and the Internet to maximize the profitability of customer interactions. For customers, CRM offers customization, simplicity, and convenience for completing transactions, regardless of the channel used for interaction. The processes, human factor, and technology aspects for CRM are described in detail below.

3. Research methodology

The research methodology followed to identify the CFS and their metrics is based on the Systemic methodological framework for IS research developed by the Information Systems Research Laboratory, which is inspired in the action.
research (AR) method and integrates the DESMET methodology to choose an evaluation method. The instantiation of a methodological framework for this research can be seen in Fig. 1. The description of each activity is as follows:

1) Documentary and bibliographical research to make up the theoretical referential framework. This activity corresponds to the literature review related to CSFs, CRM and prior research about CSFs formulation. It is extracted from different available sources (electronic included) in order to build a conceptual base that would serve as a reference to support the CSFs formulation. The products obtained include: a set of social, technological and organizational aspects to be considered for identifying the CSFs and their metrics.

2) Analysis of the background. Based on the experience of companies around the world on CRM implementation, interviews to consultants in IS and IT areas, and surveys and literature review made in the prior activity, we identified possible reasons for failure, best practices and, performance measures that may be useful in the research to be established.

3) Formulation of the objectives and scope of the research. During this activity, the scope of the research was formulated. Its inputs are the results of the two previous activities. The main result of this activity was establishing the following objective: to propose a set of CSFs which can be used to guide the organizations in the implantation of a CRM, according to three factors: people, processes, and technology.

4) Design of the set of CSFs and metrics. This was the first activity in the phase taking action; in which, based on the previous activities, 13 CSFs were proposed in a beta version, as well as the considerations of the context and cases in which they must be applied. To formulate the metrics of each CSFs, the researchers followed the Basili’s goal question metric (GQM) paradigm [42] (an explanation about GQM paradigm can be seen in the Appendix A). Finally, 55 metrics were defined. These metrics are inspired by an extensive literature review related to CSFs, CRM, referential documentation about CSFs formulation [40,41], and technology management literature. The main results of this activity were presented in the Section 4 of this paper.

5) Analysis of the context. This is the second activity of the taking action phase. The technical criteria proposed by DESMET were analyzed, in order to decide the evaluation method to be applied to the CFS produced in the previous activity.

6) Application of the DESMET methodology. It is the last stage of the taking action phase. During this activity the DESMET evaluation more widely adapted to the CFS was selected. According to the model proposed in this work, the method most appropriated was the features analysis – survey.

4. Analysis and discussion of evaluation results

The overall average of all the CSFs, obtained a value of 83%, which is over the defined acceptance level in this research of 75%. As can be appreciated in Fig. 2, the general results of the defined CSFs were quite positive. Despite the fact of these successful results, two CSFs were found below the acceptance level (CSF #3 and #4), which means that the experts did not agree with their definition. To identify the reasons for the non-acceptance of these CSFs and analyze the
aspects to be improved of the accepted CSFs, it was necessary to analyze the results obtained in each one of the evaluated features. After the analysis of the results shown in Fig. 3, it can be appreciated that the second feature to evaluate, completeness of the factors, was the one that obtained the highest values below the acceptance level.

On the other hand, the CSFs that had obtained the best acceptance levels by the experts (90%) should be highlighted as follows:

- Senior management commitment (92%)
- Management of customer information (92%)
- Market automation (96%)
- Commit to operations management (92%)

These factors achieved an excellent acceptance level; nevertheless, both for these as for the rest of the CSFs, a detailed analysis of each one was necessary, interpreting the results obtained in each one of the metrics. Thus, afterwards the results for each CSFs and their associated metrics were analyzed.

When analyzing all the results, it is important to point out that just as any other tool, CSF’s must always be updated, revised and adapted to the environment were they are to be applied. As we have illustrated, the evaluation of the experts was very positive and it is evident that the defined CSF’s constitute a starting point when evaluating a CRM strategy. In this sense, the CSFs constitute a “model” to be used by companies so as to obtain a diagnosis on the status of the implementation of a CRM strategy. Thus, it can be said that they are a tool, although not a software one, with an implicit method for its implementation and use by the companies. To the stakeholders, the formulation and evaluation of the CSFs proposed, allows determining which factors, (responding to an integrated view of the process) have a low acceptance value or still fail to meet the acceptability levels and are likely to affect the achievement of a successful CRM strategy implementation. Finally, by applying the CSF metrics throughout the CRM project execution, the companies can determine their current CRM implementation projects status at any time. Since the proposed CSF metrics are objective and repeatable, they can also be used by future researchers to estimate a company’s compliance level for each factor in a given CRM project.

On the other hand, it is necessary to highlight the fact that CSFs are tools that allow to evaluate the presence or not of factors that guarantee the success of a CRM strategy. Thus, it remains for future research, applying these CSFs to companies and analyzing the results obtained. Finally, it is important to note the contribution of this research as starting point and opening for future researches on the subject. In a marketing and enterprise environment of constant chances,
in all senses, these CSFs constitute a basis and starting point; nevertheless, the complexity of the subject and the different aspects that are involved must be taken into account. It is very probable that in some cases it will be necessary to adapt certain ranges and metrics to the specific features of the companies to be evaluated, due to certain specific aspects inherent to the type of market where they operated and the size of said companies.

5. Conclusions

As a confirmation of our premise, it was found that CSFs must consider three components: human factor, processes, and technology which constitutes a systemic, integrated and balanced approach. Further to the initial definition of the CSFs and each one of its metrics, it is important to note the improvements that were carried out in the process of analysis of results obtained in the evaluation by the experts. They emphasized some relevant aspects:

- **Structure.** The importance of a board of directors and the CRM project manager to achieve a whole commitment. Including, the participation of the different management levels, to avoid rivalries or protagonist attempts from different areas. In general, the participation of the entire company in the project to avoid certain areas prevailing over others, such as marketing or technology. Especial considerations must be taken in those cases where the company uses outsourcing for some processes

- **Objectives.** The need to define the general and specific objectives, which would be the short, medium, and longterm objectives. They must be unique documents where the objectives of all the areas are shown, as this can create unnecessary divisions in the project implementation. Also, it is essential to evaluate whether effectively structures their sales planning. We must define more demanding standards so that we can guarantee better customer service quality.

References

Peppers, Rogers, 1999, The One to One Manager: Real-World Lessons in Customer Relationship Management, Doubleday, New York, USA.
Green Marketing Perception: A Study on Konya Automotive Supplier Industry

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Abstract

Environment is, of vital importance to all living things. Destruction of environment means destruction of the life itself. Previously the sources like weather, water, soil were assumed to be unlimited but either by individuals or as a result of incorrect use of businesses, they have begun to be contaminated and eventually there has been a reduction of sources as a natural result. One of the biggest and most important problem of the present century we are living in is global warming that is highly related with environment. The surveys having been kept since 1800’s indicate that, there has been a strong decrease of global warming that negatively affects the life of living things. Scientists declare the high decrease of temperature in the past 50 years has shown visible negative effects on human life. The perception of environment with this global warming issue has forced modern consumer to behave in a more exploitative, conscious and selective way. In return, businesses with the required sensitivity of being a socio-economic entity have started shown awareness to environment and have modified their service and production and have changed their strategy from traditional to green marketing. In this article, an overview of green marketing concept is studied and green marketing is compared with traditional marketing. In the last section, a survey to measure the perception of green marketing among the businesses in Konya Automotive supply industry is presented with the results and outcomes of this survey.

Keywords: Green marketing, Traditional marketing, Environmental problems

1. Introduction

The fact that the competitive conditions have changed with the effect of globalization is accepted by everybody. If the needs and desires of customers are met with the desired quality and at the proper time and place, they express a meaning. While the environmental problems are reaching a critical level, the businesses moving towards green marketing and being conscious about environment will have the chance to survive. To ensure sustainability, to compete even to compete greater, one of the most important tasks of the businesses is to implement environmental awareness and the perception of green marketing in all units of the entity. The vast majority of people think environmentally friendly products as a form of advertising strategy decorated with green marketing terms. Terms such as phosphate free, ozone layer, environmentally friendly are usually the first ones that come to mind of consumers (Murthy, 2010). Rather than producing products that put emphasis on human health just on the packages, the environmentally friendly and sensitive emphasis should be done in all stages starting with the born of production idea to after sales support service. In this context, each employee in each level including manager and a lower level worker should act in green marketing conscious. The environment conscious and effort to protect it started centuries ago when human started to know about nature. However, with the increase of environmental problems and the negative effects have become more visible, the environmental issues also have become more questionable. Since the second half of the 20th century, some quite extensive surveys at international level supported by strong evidences were carried out. Especially since the 1990’s, businesses, governers, national and international environmental organizations have been doing important work in this...
direction and have achieved a great success in drawing communities’ attention. On the basis of many common environmental problems of the world, there lies an imbalance between economy and environment. While human beings have been dominating the nature with the help of rapidly developing science, technology and industry and upgrading their life standard economically, they also have been damaging the environment (Evirgen; 1997, 34). Businesses have great responsibility in solving environmental problems. They need to develop new projects on possible scenarios before they emerge. Since environment is vital importance to communities, businesses are forced to organise their activities in this way (Yılmaz, 2003: 28). Grove and his friends suggest that businesses can initiate in green marketing by using one or more of the 3 activities: Reusing, Recycling and Reducing. These 3R formulated broad activities in environmental management aim to control the naturel source waste of the organisation. Re-use (re-fillable containers), recyclable materials (reforming of used products), and reducing the use of resources (energy conservation in the production process), make significant contributions for businesses to have a position in public’s mind as a green friendly organisation (Keleş, 2007: 23). Business management called as environmentally conscious management, environmental-friendly management or green management is a perception which respects the environment in all activities of organizations, minimizes damage to the environment, changes production processes, trains employees with environmental awareness, uses technologies that do not harm the environment, and develops projects for the good of ecological environment (Karabulut, 2004: 55). Only the businesses which carry on the activities within the framework of this approach will be accepted by consumers and will be long lasting.

2. Green Marketing Concept

Green marketing is truly the definition of a structure that is very difficult and relatively. And the definition must be compatible with the changes coming in time. The meaning of today's green cases may lose their meaning years later. For example, when first invented, chlorine-flora-carbons of was considered to be excellent, but unfortunately, in the light of today's technological world, it is accepted as a harmful substance (Uydaci, 2011: 127). For this reason, enterprises should follow all the facts about green and management decisions should be taken in this direction.

The concept of green marketing is associated with different names like ecological marketing, environmental marketing, sustainable marketing, , first emerged at seminar on ecological marketing organized by, the American Marketing Association (AMA) in 1975. This seminar is based on the recognition of ecological marketing, "marketing activities, environmental pollution, energy consumption and energy-free positive or negative effects on resource consumption studies." This first definition contains three key parts (Uydaci, 2011: 127): It is the subset of all marketing. It analyses both positive and negative studies. It covers the case of very large-scale environment. Over time there were very different definitions about green marketing. These definitions show that, the concept of green marketing has a relative structure, and definitions differ over time with environmental issues that evolve. According to Stanton (1993) green marketing states, how natural resources are used in marketing activities in the processes starting with accomplishment of sales objectives of organization to satisfaction of individuals, industry and consumers. For Ottman; (1993) green marketing is a business project which has accepted to be responsible for detecting and satisfying the needs of consumers without ignoring the profitability in the long term. Polonsky (1994) defines green marketing as doing all kinds of activities intended to satisfy human wants and needs with minimum detriment to the natural environment. Peattie, in an article he wrote in 2001,defines green marketing as the marketing activities that aim to minimize the negative social and environmental impacts caused by production systems and to produce products and services that are less harmful. He tried to explain these marketing activities in 3 phases that create quite different effects on marketing discipline (Quoted from Peattie by Kacur, 2008).

- Eco marketing: In a narrow scope mainly focuses on reducing dependence on certain products which are considered to be harmful.
- Environmental marketing: With a more comprehensive initiative, it tries to reduce environmental damage using the green consumer demands and opportunities of competitive advantages.
- Sustainable marketing: With a much more radical approach it tries to meet all the environmental costs of production and consumption to create a sustainable economy.

According to Karna (2003), green marketing is a hollistic management process that is responsible for predicting, identifying and satisfying the needs of consumers and society with a profitable and sustainable way. Marangoz (2003), defines the purpose of green marketing as to transfer its consumers, educational information, inform them how to use limited resources in accordance with the principles of sustainable development and within the entire organization to ensure that consumers’ desires and needs are met. For Torlak (2009), green marketing is the effective and efficient use
of social resources, it also stops the pollution, keeps the health and safety of the consumers without misleading and deceptive activities. According to the Türk and the Gök (2010) green marketing is an approach that aims to understand environmental issues in marketing trials, to be sensitive to these issues, to contribute to balance the uneven distribution of resources and avoid socially damaging behaviours in marketing decisions and matters. Singh (2010) defines green marketing as the sales process of environment-friendly products and services. According to Uydacı (2011) green marketing is a group of activities that evoke changes which are willing to satisfy the needs of the society by causing a minimum damage to the environment.

3. Comparison of Green Marketing with Traditional Marketing

There are significant differences between green marketing and traditional marketing. Green marketing in accordance with the principle of sustainability has emerged as a stance against the traditional marketing concept that directs consumers to consume without questioning and go beyond satisfying needs (Turgul, 2009: 56). Traditional marketing includes providing products at affordable rates for consumers. Green marketing on the other hand is more complex and requires new marketing strategies that need active struggle to capture attention of consumers on how the environmentally friendly products are created and how they are defined (Uydacı, 2011: 130). Traditional marketing is, meeting consumers’ needs with affordable products and presenting these products with communication channels emphasizing that consumer is worth. Green marketing studies, how natural resources are used in marketing activities in the processes starting with accomplishment of sales objectives of organization to satisfaction of individuals, industry and consumers (Ar, 2011: 74). Green marketing products are in a transparent and suspicious search of reality to create a more informed and conscious consumer about the brand. However in traditional marketing, most of the brand, is marketed with ‘envy’, and desire to be special. Creating a brand used by famous and rich and projecting this feature to brand communication in order to create an environment of envy, longing and acceptance is the main objective (Turgul, 2009: 64). Respect to commercial concerns in a business environment, does not mean that green marketing activities were created and implemented properly. Respect for the environment, should include all activities within the organization (Uydacı, 2011: 130). On Table 1. traditional marketing and green marketing are compared in terms of parties of trade, objectives, organizational responsibility, achieving marketing decision, ecological demand and green pressure groups.

Table 1. Traditional Marketing And Green Marketing Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional Marketing</th>
<th>Green Marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business and customer</td>
<td>Parties of trade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Customer satisfaction</td>
<td>Objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Meeting the business objectives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economical responsibility</td>
<td>Organizational responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From production to production usage</td>
<td>Achieving marketing decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal obligations</td>
<td>Ecological demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confrontation or passive behaviour</td>
<td>Green pressure groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


4.1 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this research, is to state green marketing perception of businesses. To achieve this goal, a survey was conducted in the province of Konya, with 57 businesses operating in the automotive supply industry. The majority of survey questions were taken from the Ph. D. Thesis of Kacur in 2008 (Kacur, 2008).

4.2 Hypothesis of the Study

In order to make the subject to be more clearly understood, some hypotheses were involved in the research. It is
possible to state the developed hypotheses about the research related to the purposes of the research in the following way;

- H1: There is a significant difference between business managers with different levels of education in terms of green marketing practices and its lower dimensions.
- H2: There is a significant difference between business managers with different levels of education in terms of understanding the reasons of green marketing applications and their opinions differ about the sub dimensions of green marketing.
- H3: There is a meaningful relationship between business activity duration and green marketing implementations and its sub dimensions.
- H4: There is a meaningful relationship between business activity duration and reasons of green marketing implementations and its sub-dimensions.
- H5: There is a significant difference among the participants who work in businesses with different staff number in terms of green marketing implementations and its sub dimensions.

4.3 Determination of the Research Sample

Konya Chamber of Industry (KSO) was taken to this research due to the reasons of its up to date database, including all the businesses due to the legal obligation of being a member and easy access to profile information of member organizations. After the Database of KSO had been analyzed, the companies operating in the automotive supply industry were examined, "inactive", businesses or the ones which "do not meet the criteria" or which are not suitable in scale were eliminated so the universe of the study was determined. In this context, the research sample includes, business owners, partners of the companies, managers, and department managers of 57 businesses operating in auto supply industry in the province of Konya. "Direct contact" has been tried to be made during the research. In addition, to 18 companies which can not be reached by direct negotiation, questionnaires were sent out via e-mail. As of January 20, 2012, 57 questionnaires suitable for evaluation were obtained.

4.4 Data Analysis

The data set obtained from the survey was analyzed with SPSS 19.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) package program. Within the scope of analysis, frequency tables, reliability and validity analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy, Bartlett test, factor analysis, Pearson Correlation analysis, one-way analysis of variance and Tukey's test were utilized.

4.5 Results

4.5.1 Evaluation of the appropriateness of the data set for factor analysis

Kaiser – Meyer –Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test were applied to data set to determine the appropriateness of factor analysis before the factor analysis stage. With Bartlett test, the null hypothesis was tested and that means "correlation matrix is identity matrix. The rejection of the hypothesis means that there are high correlations between the variables, in other words, the data set is suitable for factor analysis. KMO measure of sampling adequacy is a test that compares the size of observed correlation coefficients with partial correlation coefficients. KMO rate must be greater than 0.50. The higher the ratio there is, the better the data is for factor analysis. KMO values and reviews are as follows:

Table 2. KMO Values And Reviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO</th>
<th>Review (comment)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Very good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 0.50</td>
<td>Unacceptable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When Bartlett and KMO test results were applied to the data set and the factor analysis, the following results were obtained:

4.5.2 Factor Analysis (Green marketing perception scale)

Factor analysis was conducted to test whether the 18 judical components which were created to understand participants’ views on the implementation of green marketing were gathered under specific factors. Before starting the factor analysis of the data, the reliability analysis was performed to determine whether it has a consistency of its own. Reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) was determined as 0.845. According to this criterion, the scale is reliable.

Table 3. Factor Analysis Table (Green marketing perception scale)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors and variables</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>Variance (%)</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1 (recycling applications and infrastructure)</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td>18,541</td>
<td>5,326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental impact isn’t taken into consideration during production in our organization.</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packaging materials used in our organization can be recycled and reused.</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste management unit isn’t available in our business.</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green product (environmentally sensitive products) are not preferred much in our business as it is a cost effective activity.</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We always emphasize that our products are green (environmentally friendly).</td>
<td>0.494</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We do not have an adequate infrastructure for green marketing.</td>
<td>0.482</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing strategies of our products are greatly influenced by the issues related to environmental protection.</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our products are designed to be reused.</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td>15,636</td>
<td>2,109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2 (Qualification &amp; Sensibility)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organization has the certificates of environmental management standards.</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We organize our distribution channels with the least harm to environment.</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We participate in sponsorship activities related to environmental issues because it is important for our image.</td>
<td>0.603</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3 (Responsibility)</td>
<td>0.763</td>
<td>11,877</td>
<td>1.963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The objective of green (environmentally friendly) communication should be to create environmentally conscious consumers and society.</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our green marketing activities are not affected by the competitor businesses.</td>
<td>0.603</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation has a responsibility to protect the environment.</td>
<td>0.739</td>
<td>8.827</td>
<td>1.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 4 (Green Advertising applications)</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>11,644</td>
<td>1.450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The aim of the green ads should be to provide clear, realistic information to consumers about the environmental effects of the product.</td>
<td>0.623</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Businesses that can implement green marketing strategies successfully will survive.</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green (environmentally friendly) ads should to provide clear, realistic information to consumers about the environmental effects of the product.</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 5 (Financial factors)</td>
<td>KMO, 0.663, Bartlett’s test:458,432; p&lt;0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of factor analysis shows that the scale was collected under 5 factors. All of the factors explain the 66.53 % of the total variance.
4.5.3 Factor Analysis (Scale of Green marketing applications/implementations causes)

Factor analysis was conducted to test whether the 10 judical components which were created to understand participants' reasons for choosing green marketing implementations were gathered under specific factors. Before starting the factor analysis of the data, the reliability analysis was performed to determine whether it has a consistency of its own. Reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) was determined as 0.778. According to this criterion, the scale is reliable.

Table 4. Factor Analysis Table (Scale of Green marketing applications/implementations causes)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors and Variables</th>
<th>Factor Loadings</th>
<th>Variance (%)</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1 (Pressure and external origin)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>24.504</td>
<td>3.588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppliers have become environmentally conscious.</td>
<td>0.837</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green consumers’ pressure</td>
<td>0.829</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing competitive pressure</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing pressure from environmental groups</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of environment on costs</td>
<td>0.570</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2 (Standards and environmental origin)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>21.353</td>
<td>1.878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal obligations</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing environmental standards</td>
<td>0.724</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect use of natural resources</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing concern of safety and health depending on the environment</td>
<td>0.543</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3 (responsibility – sensitivity origin)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>15.992</td>
<td>1.337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social responsibility of organizations</td>
<td>0.784</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management has become environmentally aware</td>
<td>0.557</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KMO, 0.694, Bartlett’s test: 196,330; p<0.000

The result of factor analysis shows that the scale was collected under 5 factors. All of the factors explain the 61.84% of the total variance.

4.5.4 Information on Demographic Characteristics of Participants and Business Operating Time

Table 5. Demographic Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of Titles</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Manager</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Manager</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Partner</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Owner</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Manager</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Control Manager</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production Manager</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance Manager</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of Educational Attainment</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>54.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Personnel</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-49</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-199</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200 ve +</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of participants involved in the study are marketing managers with percent of 26.3%. Managers and company owners are with a number of 19.3% in the second place in this category. The majority of the participants (54.4%) have university-level education. When the distribution of the number of staff working in the firm is analyzed it is seen that; 1-49 employees work in 75.4% of the businesses while 50-199 work in 19.3% and more than 200 people are employed in 5.3% of the businesses.

Table 6. Operating Time Distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>SS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>42.00</td>
<td>15.3860</td>
<td>8.82317</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, when the businesses are examined in terms of the duration of activity, it is seen they have been active in an average of 15 years. The minimum duration of activity is 5 and the maximum is 42 years.

4.5.5 Perception Of Green Marketing

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics On The Scale Of The Perception Of Green Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judgements</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Maksi.</th>
<th>Ort.</th>
<th>SS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation has a responsibility to protect the environment.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.0351</td>
<td>0.92514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental impact isn’t taken into consideration during production in our organization.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.2105</td>
<td>1.01307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We always emphasize that our products are green (environmentally friendly).</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.2456</td>
<td>0.82982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing strategies of our products are greatly influenced by the issues related to environmental protection.</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.4912</td>
<td>0.94723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green product (environmentally sensitive products) are not preferred much in our business as it is a cost effective activity.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.5789</td>
<td>1.17940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste management unit isn’t available in our business.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.9825</td>
<td>1.27463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The objective of green (environmentally friendly) communication should be to create environmentally conscious consumers and society.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2807</td>
<td>0.67492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We participate in sponsorship activities related to environmental issues because it is important for our image.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.8596</td>
<td>1.23112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The aim of the green ads should be to provide clear, realistic information to consumers about the environmental effects of the product.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.3684</td>
<td>0.55522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packaging materials used in our organization can be recycled and reused.</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.7368</td>
<td>0.97333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Businesses that can implement green marketing strategies successfully will survive.</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.9474</td>
<td>0.89485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green marketing is a cost factor for businesses.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.6491</td>
<td>0.89625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our green marketing activities are not affected by the competitor businesses.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.3333</td>
<td>0.95119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We do not have an adequate infrastructure for green marketing.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.0351</td>
<td>1.10138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our products are designed to be reused.</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.4211</td>
<td>0.75468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We organize our distribution channels with the least harm to environment.</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.5965</td>
<td>0.88357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green (environmentally friendly) ads should provide clear, realistic information to consumers about the environmental effects of the product.</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.0877</td>
<td>0.78560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organization has the certificates of environmental management standards. (ISO 14000, BS 7750, EMAS etc.)</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.2807</td>
<td>0.88144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the descriptive statistics table is examined for the analysis of scale, it is clearly seen that the judgement ‘the aim of the green ads should be to provide clear, realistic information to consumers about the environmental effects of the product’ becomes the most accepted one with an average of 4.36 among the judgements of participants. On the other
hand, the judgement “Environmental impact isn’t taken into consideration during production in our organization” becomes the least accepted one with an average of 2.21.

4.5.6 Implementation Of Green Marketing Reasons

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics On The Scale Of Implementation Of Green Marketing Reasons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judgements</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Maxi.</th>
<th>Ort.</th>
<th>SS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect use of natural resources</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.9298</td>
<td>0.86313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal obligations</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.0175</td>
<td>0.66792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing pressure from environmental groups</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.1754</td>
<td>1.00219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social responsibility of organizations</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.1228</td>
<td>0.82527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing competitive pressure</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.7544</td>
<td>0.71416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of environment on costs</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.6491</td>
<td>0.81265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing environmental standards</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.7895</td>
<td>0.64744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green consumers’ pressure</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.3158</td>
<td>1.07168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppliers have become environmentally conscious.</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.1228</td>
<td>0.92717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing concern of safety and health depending on the environment</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.1228</td>
<td>0.73364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management has become environmentally aware</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.5263</td>
<td>0.82603</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the descriptive statistics table is examined for the analysis of scale, it is clearly seen that the judgements’ Social responsibility of organizations and “Increasing concern of safety and health depending on the environment” become the most accepted one with an average of 4.12 among the judgements of participants. On the other hand, the judgement “Management has become environmentally aware” becomes the least accepted one with an average of 3.12.

4.5.7 Scales and Sub Dimensions

Table 9. Scales and Mean Scores of Sub Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Avg.</th>
<th>SS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recycling applications and infrastructure</td>
<td>3.3810</td>
<td>0.73259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification &amp; Sensitivity</td>
<td>3.2456</td>
<td>0.79314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>3.6608</td>
<td>0.63462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green advertising practices</td>
<td>4.1345</td>
<td>0.58030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial factors</td>
<td>2.3509</td>
<td>0.89625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green marketing perception</td>
<td>3.4756</td>
<td>0.49746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure and external origin</td>
<td>3.4605</td>
<td>0.69724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standards and environmental origin</td>
<td>3.9649</td>
<td>0.52491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility – sensitivity origin</td>
<td>3.6082</td>
<td>0.84280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for implementation of green marketing</td>
<td>3.6842</td>
<td>0.46612</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest turnout of sub dimension becomes green advertising practices by participants where as financial factors of green marketing becomes the most negative point of view when the descriptive statistics for the scales and sub-dimensions are examined.

4.6 Comparisons

4.6.1 Comparisons on Educational Attainment
### Table 10. Test of Hypothesis $H_1$ and $H_2$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Objective</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recycling applications and infrastructure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.1524</td>
<td>0.77960</td>
<td>1.069</td>
<td>0.370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.5023</td>
<td>0.70070</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.2857</td>
<td>0.75292</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>3.3810</td>
<td>0.73259</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Qualification &amp; Sensitivity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3333</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.2444</td>
<td>0.87710</td>
<td>1.755</td>
<td>0.167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.3441</td>
<td>0.65819</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.8333</td>
<td>0.95904</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>3.2456</td>
<td>0.79314</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Responsibility</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0000</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.9111</td>
<td>0.62319</td>
<td>1.860</td>
<td>0.148</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standards and environmental origin</strong></td>
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</tr>
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<td>0.64280</td>
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</table>
As a result of the one-way analysis of variance among the different education level managers, it is understood that, there was not a significant difference with the perception of green marketing, views on green marketing practice and its sub-dimensions. (p> 0.05)

4.6.2 Comparisons Related to Duration Of Activity

Table 11. Test of Hypothesis H3 and H4

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Faaliyet Süresi</th>
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<th>P</th>
<th>N</th>
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<tr>
<td>Recycling applications and infrastructure</td>
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<td>0.440</td>
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<tr>
<td>Qualification &amp; Sensitivity</td>
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<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.585</td>
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<td>Responsibility</td>
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<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.836</td>
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<tr>
<td>Green Advertising Practices</td>
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<td>-0.259</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Factors</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.062</td>
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<td>0.050</td>
<td>0.713</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pressure and External Origin</td>
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<td>-0.088</td>
<td>0.514</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standards and environmental origin</td>
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<td>-0.183</td>
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<tr>
<td>Responsibility – sensitivity origin</td>
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<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.582</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reasons for implementation of green marketing</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.095</td>
<td>0.482</td>
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</table>

As a result of the correlation analysis, the following facts were obtained:

- There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and "recycling applications and infrastructure". (p> 0.05, α = 0.05)
- There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and "Qualification - Sensitivity"sub dimension. (p> 0.05, α = 0.05)
- There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and "Responsibility". (p> 0.05, α = 0.05)
• There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and “Green Advertising Practices” sub dimension. (p > 0.05, \( \alpha = 0.05 \))
• There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and “Financial Factors” sub dimension. (p > 0.05, \( \alpha = 0.05 \))
• There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and “Green Marketing Perception” sub dimension. (p > 0.05, \( \alpha = 0.05 \))
• There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and “Pressure and External Origin” sub dimension. (p > 0.05, \( \alpha = 0.05 \))
• There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and “Standards and Environmental Origin” sub dimension. (p > 0.05, \( \alpha = 0.05 \))
• There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and “Responsibility – sensitivity origin” sub dimension. (p > 0.05, \( \alpha = 0.05 \))
• There is no meaningful relationship between the total score of responses related to duration of activity of the organization and “Reasons for implementation of green marketing” scale. (p > 0.05, \( \alpha = 0.05 \))

### 4.6.3 Comparisons Related to Number Of Staff

#### Table 12. Test of Hypothesis H5 and H6

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<th>SS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
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<td>0.69724</td>
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</table>
As a result of a one-way analysis of variance with the managers of organizations employing workers with different numbers, it is seen that there is not a meaningful difference among their opinions on green marketing perception and reasons for green marketing implementations. However, there is a meaningful difference among their opinions on qualification and sensitivity which is a sub dimension of green marketing perception and standards and environmental origin practises.

In order to determine in which groups there is a difference pairwise comparisons are done with Tukey test and the results are given below:

Table 13. Results of Tukey Test

<table>
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<th>Personnel</th>
<th>J</th>
<th>Personnel</th>
<th>Avg. difference (I-J)</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>200 and +</td>
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<tr>
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<td>50-199</td>
<td>1-49</td>
<td>-0.51445</td>
<td>0.116</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50-199</td>
<td>200 and +</td>
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<td>0.025</td>
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<tr>
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<td>200 and +</td>
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<td>0.179</td>
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<td>50-199</td>
<td>1.32323*</td>
<td>0.025</td>
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<td>50-199</td>
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<td>-0.03030</td>
<td>0.995</td>
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</table>

As shown on Tukey Test Table, when the managers working in a business employing a staff of or over 200 are compared to managers working in a business employing a staff of 50 – 199 it is seen that opinions of managers in the first group on qualification and sensitivity that is the sub dimension of green marketing perception are significantly higher (more positive ) than the managers’ of the second group. In addition, managers of businesses with the number of employees between 1-49 think in a more positive way on the standards and environmental origin green marketing implementations than the managers of businesses working with 50 – 199 employees.

5. Results and Discussion

Green marketing is perceived as an advertisement of environmentally sensitive products by a lot of people. However, green marketing, is a much more comprehensive concept including all stages from the production of all goods and services to after-sales promotion. It is only possible for businesses to survive in case they produce environmentally friendly products. When the participants of this green marketing implementation study are analyzed in terms of demographic characteristics, the following results are obtained:

- The majority of participants involved in the study, are marketing managers with percent of 26.3%. Managers and company owners are with a number of 19.3% in the second place in this category.
- The majority of the participants (54.4%) have university-level education.
- When the distribution of the number of staff working in the firm is analyzed it is seen that; 1 -49 employees work in75.4% of the businesses while 50-199 work in%19,3 and more than 200 people are employed in 5.3% of the businesses.
• When the businesses are examined in terms of the duration of activity, it is seen they have been active in an average of 15 years. The minimum duration of activity is 5 and the maximum is 42 years.

• When the views of participants on green marketing and the reasons for implementation of green marketing are analyzed, the following results are obtained:

• When the replies related to green marketing perception are examined, it is clearly seen that the judgement 'the aim of the green ads should be to provide clear, realistic information to consumers about the environmental effects of the product' becomes the most accepted one with an average of 4.36 among the judgements of participants. On the other hand, the judgement "Environmental impact isn 't taken into consideration during production in our organization" becomes the least accepted one with an average of 2.21.

• When the replies related to green marketing implementation reasons are examined, it is clearly seen that the judgements' Social responsibility of organizations and" Increasing concern of safety and health depending on the environment"become the most accepted one with an average of 4.12 among the judgements of participants. On the other hand, the judgement "Management has become environmentally aware" becomes the least accepted one with an average of 3.12

• When the descriptive statics related to scales and sub dimensions, it is understood that the most accepted sub dimension is green advertising practices whereas financial costs related to green marketing come out as the most negative judgement.

Finally when the comparisons related to scales are analyzed the following results are obtained; among the different education level managers, it is understood that, there is not a significant difference with the perception of green marketing, views on green marketing practice and its sub-dimensions. Among the managers of organizations employing workers with different numbers, it is seen that there is not a meaningful difference among their opinions on green marketing perception and reasons for green marketing implementations. However, there is a meaningful difference among their opinions on qualification and sensitivity which is a sub dimension of green marketing perception and standards and environmental origin practises which are sub dimensions of reasons for green marketing imlementations. When the managers working in a business employing a staff of or over 200 are compared to managers working in a business employing a staff of 50 – 199 it is seen that opinions of managers in the first group on qualification and sensitivity that is the sub dimension of green marketing perception are significantly higher (more positive ) than the managers’ of the second group. In addition, managers of businesses with the number of employees between 1-49 think in a more positive way on the standards and environmental origin green marketing implementations than the managers of businesses working with 50 – 199 employees. There is not a meaningful relationship between the duration of activity of the businesses and the views on green marketing perception and reasons for implementation of green marketing.

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The Albanian Historical Novel's Hundred Years Journey

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Abstract

Historic novel, besides its achievements, problems and the many debates on its typological assesment, represents the most studied type by critics worldwide. Along with European novel, the Historic Albanian novel is written on novel awareness, but the later, due to political causes, conserved this romantic spirit longer. Therefore it's present nowadays not just for political issues, but because of existential ones. Besides other characteristics this type of novel reveals, it's on our interest to bring to evidence the features it gained by some writers of the second half of the 20th century like: Sabri Godo, Jusuf Buxhovi, Bilal Xhaferri, Ismail Kadare, Dhimiter Shuteriqi, Skender Drini, Mira Meksi, Ben Blushi etc. It's obvious that in the modern historic novel of the second half of the 20th century, critical awareness towards history is seen as realistic one. In the Balkans today's novel represents the strengthening of the national conscience , whilst the European one represents the national crisis, the resistance to cosmopolitan issues as well as the concern on various types of ideology. The hist. Alb. novel of the beginning of the 21st century changes from being narrative to authentic fiction; therefore it enriches the Albanian novel through direct reference on historic truth. Kadare's novel, which develops a new attitude towards history ; its parody on historical function as an opposition to censorship, makes out the most innovative example in this context. The typological mixture is a presentation of the inner development of our literature indicating structural changes due to actual social and cultural Albanian structure after the 90's. V.Shkollovski states that novels can be best modified compared to other janres.

In the development of universal literary, the historical novel represented the most canonized genre and critically studied, characterized in its way of development from the achievements as well as from the crises, the ups and downs, and also the many debates, with regard of its typological definition.

In analogy with the European novel, in its beginnings, the Albanian historical novel, was written with romantic consciousness, but to the last one, this romantic spirit was saved for a long time, for political reasons and it is present even today, not simply for political but also existential reasons.

Besides other features that Albanian historical novel has appeared, with a hundred years of history in the Albanian literature, with a lot of interest in the argument of this paper is the identification of features that this novel won from some later authors of the twenty-th century and early twentyone-st century such as: Sabri Godo, Jusuf Buxhovi, Bilal Xhaferri, Ismail Kadare, Dhimiter Shuteriqi, Skender Drini, Mira Meksi, Ben Blushi etc.

The genre of the novel, as a dynamic form, pragmatic and functionally opened, represents an explanatory instrument of a representative and reflective universe, social, individual, and also complex taken from the changes of its perspective. In the ability of its involvement and in the compositional structure of the “universe of telling” and as a necessary subject of discussion and specific viewpoints, the historical novel has followed its dialect of development, in different contexts, building values and transforming the forms, the construction and the message.

In this context, observing the panorama of the entire novel, in the end of the 20th and the beginning of 21st century, also for the historical genre, we see that its modernity is realized by the function of some existing elements and not by an overall change of forms. (Krasniqi 1985:18)

So, among the elements that testify the modernity of the historical novel in this period, are:
- The modernization of the novel, through the long extent of history in it, or the definition of the historical periods, as antiquity or Middle Ages.
- The presence of formal and thematic operators of modernity, such as: subjectivity, fragmentation, irony, self-reflection, which act as filters of speech, expressing form, modern particularity.
- Interaction, within the genre, of different models of speech, which communicate among them.
- Being closer to the present, the novel, as a genre, possesses the ability of fitting thematically and formally, regarding on reality and history, so whenever he commits the cognitive process, he rewrites modernity.

Based on this evidence, we must affirm that in Albanian historical novel, the changes have started during the second half of the 20th century, as a result of the emphasis in the critical consciousness to history, as a realistic consciousness, or a use of history as a weapon, as a creative opportunity, of how to deal with the “taboo” problems (at
that time) of the totalitarian state, in particular, to reveal, through it specific experiences.

The most innovator example, in this direction, constitutes in Kadare's work, which shows a new attitude towards the parody of history with an allegoric function as a counteractive procedure against censure.

Based on this goal, the writer Ismail Kadare in the novel "Keshjtella", is non randomly directed to the historical topic treatment, which has given him the possibility of realizing the meanings with interest, through a parallel allegorical-symbolic alignment between Skanderbeg's historical period and Albania's modern history. (Qosja 1973:176)

By writing this novel Ismail Kadare hasn't just wanted to create a literary-historical fresco but also to give expression to the symbolic language of history through the treatment of historical details.

From his novel, the reader understands the Balkans as a transitional bridge between East and West, as a meeting area of the major forces of interests, considered very often as a "castle", which they have had to conquer before they continued the path of their destructive invasions. The interaction of stories and discourses, through a comprehensive confession, expresses the modernity in this novel, and lets the possibility of interpretation and actual resonance open to the readers of all times.

A new dimension to the Albanian historical prose marked also the novel "Krastakraus" by Bilal Xhaferri, which was written almost at the same time as the novel "Keshjtella", but, unlike the last one, it saw the light of publication only in 1993. Although he inherited traits of romantic-historical model, by placing in the center the historical theme of the past, Xhaferri created a present edifice by excluding the idealizing style. The characterization and psychological motivation of characters, putting at the ordinary fighters at the center, as well as a number of other innovations, have made the novel "Krastakraus" a qualitative novel and a pattern of the historical synthesis.

The fictional reconstruction of history is the essential feature that brings together in time and space any work that is classified as a modern historical prose.

In the novel “Syte e Simonides”, written by Dhimitër Shuteriqi, we can find the adaption of topics and formality, in the terms of reality and subjectivity: the subjective game with the historical truths and the subjective reading (sometimes) of the history serves to the relativism of the dogmatic concept, the reader has for the history as well as the interaction of the universal essence of his historical-cultural being, with that nowadays.

The subject of this deed is based on a historically documented truth, however the author rebuilt it with specific literally tools, the image, the illusion, the symbol creating emotions and deep experiences of the past, to the reader, which are connected with the historical existence of our present.

One of the most innovative features of the Shuteriqi novel is the way the prose writer create the reports fact/fiction, real/imaginary, the borders which are usually movable at the novel, for different readers.

With regard to the importance marked in a literal work, reports like that, Manxoni says:

"It is not possible to imagine a novel, which elements of fiction are significantly marked by the author, so that the reader can clearly distinguish the truth and the fiction, since this would break the compositional unity, indispensable in any literary network." (Manxoni 1997:71)

From the structural aspect, the roman “Syte e Simonides” represents a kind of discourse and distinctively textual since the moment it enters into communication with other works.

The way of functioning of this work, is that of a romanesque text which is based on a certain fragmenting itself, in terms of functional distraction of linear narrative and once discourse.

- The shift from the concept of an omnipresent narrator and an inside narrator, who are following the multiple perspectives, the language experiments, which in this work intend rhetoric instead of semantics and adding the number of the delineators for the person being delineated, as the domination of the subjective world through “symbolic language” all these are traits that speaks for modern poetry of this novel.

- The pluralistic concept of time, which has been realized with the extension of a past which is narrated at the present, where the future, already fulfilled for the reader, but not for the active participants of the events, intervenes with the presence, impacting to the factual flow of the events, builds a complex narration.

This is the feature that Deleuze believes it presents the essence of modern historic works.

Specifically, the saying :

"The thought thinks its history (the past) but with the purpose of liberation from what it thinks (the present) and to make possible “to think differently” (the future), “finds an original, artistic form of application in this roman. (Deluze 1990:120)

The intertextuality (there’s no text without an intertext! The first postulate of postmodernism). Although an earlier
literary presence, intertextuality starts being accepted and interpreted theoretically only from poststructural researchers like Julia Kristeva, but without losing its relevance as in modern and postmodern texts. As active communication of at least two texts, literally or non-literally, intertextual or intertextoresia, in this novel take the look of the present of multiple texts, that often comes in the form of so-called "quotation".

The intertextual reports between narrations of many voices with chronicles or part of diaries written from the own characters, intertwined with the Middle Ages, as a historic age, which call other ages, the manuscript as conventional literary, church icons as real presented and suggested.

All these come from intertexts, intertwined texts, that converse with other textual layers, by continuously recontextualizing it meaning. In this way the text takes the appearance of a multiplied lentil or a kalidescope, where exactly multiplied derives from the same center, therefore the figures, all together, talk and build a single security image that is accepted spontaneously from the reader. Although closer to the classical model of intertextuality, the novel offers polyphony as a builder of the truth.

These are the exact features and their constructive elements that realize the modernity of the novel, through an only kind narration, now innovative, of the prose with historical theme.

In the beginning of the 21st historic novel, which is represented with a high esthetic level can be classified the work of Mira Mexi “Frosina e Janines” that combined historic materials with philosophical problems and ethic of the universal character, as well as with the inscribed in depth characters.

Another author who has enriched the fund of Albanian historical novel of this period is also Uran Butka with his work "Miti I Haxhi Qamilit", a work that kept alive the national spirit of the Renaissance and where voice is given to the critical spirit of the history speculation. The researcher Adem Jakllari believes that in today’s Albanian literature can also be talked about another typology which is the historical crossed novel. The complete sign of this type can be found in the novel "Te jetosh ne ishull" by Ben Blushi. (Jakllari 2009:140)

Taking the theme of an almost dark period of history of Albania, the story of this novel is stretched to nearly four centuries, and has brought in focus known characters and multiple event dates, which show a great erudition by the author, and a special manner in the recognition up in detail not only the era, but also the religious norms and practices that have the source from the Holy Books. The most dominant line in the novel, which has sparked numerous debates, is that of the long and confused Ismism of Albanians, after the Turkish invasion. Through a narrative and an interesting style the author passes the way the Albanian society shaped religious coexistence to survive assimilation and the storms of that time.

Passing from the narrative objective style to a genuine fiction makes the historical novel very interesting. The novel “Shtate faje dhe nje dashuri” from Rexhep Qosja, written after 1990 has a great value because it enriches the Albanian typological novel with direct references from the historical truth. Crucifixion of the events in this novel is followed by the crucifixion of texts and discussions. The typological interaction is an expression of the internal development of our literature, an indicator of structural transitions, a phenomenon that came after 1990 when the Albanian social and cultural structure suffered a big break. About the transforming ability that carries the genre of the novel, V.Shkollovski writes:

"The canon of the novel as a literary type is probably more capable than any other type of literature, to be modified."

So, in the early of the 21st century the Albanian historical novel is enriched with elements of modernity which are represented today, everywhere in the global literature from the many histories model, with well know elements such as: the dialog of the voices and the structures of the irony, transforming the narrator in a compiler of the dialectic controversy between documents and fiction, between official history and the reconstruction of the historical reality, that can only be produced through fiction. (Krysinski 2003:22)

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Socio-Cultural Factors Affecting Reintegration of Discharged Prisoners in Anambra State, South East, Nigeria

Osayi Kelechi K.

Abstract

In recent time, recidivism has not only been on the increase in sub-Saharan Africa, but has become a major social problem to the society, governments, multinational humanitarian organizations and the world over. Discharged prisoners find it difficult to reintegrate into the society because of some social and cultural factors which seem to inhibit all efforts geared towards their rehabilitation and reintegration. It is against this background that this paper aimed at examining the socio-cultural factors affecting the rehabilitation and reintegration of discharged prisoners in Anambra state. This study was anchored on two theoretical premises; the rehabilitation and ecological theories. The rehabilitation theory was adopted to drive home the correctional philosophy of the modern prison system which emphasizes treatment of offenders rather than punishment. Ecological theory brings out the significant influence environmental factors have on individual’s behavior. Implicit in the Ecological theory is the idea that reintegration of discharged prisoners may become nearly impossible if the environment is not conducive for discharged prisoners. It is important to reconstruct environment that supports individual’s post incarceration needs, so that the society can prevent multiple offenses and reduce recidivism rates and crime.

Keywords: Recidivism, rehabilitation, reintegration, discharged prisoners, socio-cultural issues, Anambra, Nigeria, Africa.

1. Introduction

In recent time, recidivism has not only been on the increase in sub-Saharan Africa, but has become a major social problem to the society, governments, multinational humanitarian organizations and the world over. Discharged prisoners find it difficult to reintegrate into the society because of some social and cultural factors which seem to inhibit all efforts geared towards this direction. Recidivism is surely on the increase in Nigeria and Anambra state having one of the most densely populated cities in Nigeria accounts for a reasonable percentage of this group. As a typical southeastern state of the Igbo extraction, it has maintained a strong cultural belief system which has influenced her world view including the way her members relate and perceives discharged prisoners.

Before the society as a corporate body, took over the function of working to control the antisocial behaviour of her members, Imogen (2007) observed that individuals and families seek redress/revenge to offences committed against them by using what is known to be the oldest codified law of “a tooth for a tooth” and “an eye for an eye”. Societies develop, treatment of offenders at every stage depended on the societal perception of them. Camey (1977) and Imogen (2007) noted that in the ancient Rome for instance, offenders were perceived as traitors, sinners, bandits, criminals and therefore were severely punished with such punishment as throwing into the lion’s den, or burning furnace, and even frying alive in a pot of oil. They used public flogging, crucifixion, impaling, beheading, hanging, mutilation, stoning, exiling, and shooting with arrow or spear, as punishment depending on the degree of offences committed or the mood of the king or the emperor both in England, France and in fact, all over Europe and more were ingeniously invented to suit new offences and to serve the whims and caprices of the rulers (Camey, 1997 & Shama, 2012).

In the traditional pre-colonial African societies, offenders were seen as enemies of the gods of the land whose offences attracted the wrath of the gods on the whole society (Igbo, 1999). Therefore, evildoers or violators of the laws of the land were perceived and treated as outcasts, evil and wicked their punishment ranged from public humiliation, flogging, temporal excommunication, payment of fine, to performance of sacrifices to appease the gods and to cleanse themselves of the offences committed before they could be reintegrated into the society. This was also typical of the traditional Igbo societies within the southeastern Nigeria (Igbo, 1999). Traditional African societies, especially those in the southeastern Nigeria seem to have over time, developed a strong belief system influencing their relationship with members who at one time or the other violated the laws of the land, which was seen as effrontery to the gods who were their custodians. This belief system seem to have however been carried over to the present day society, even with the introduction of modern prison philosophy were offenders are no longer considered as outcasts but as human beings who could be reformed and rehabilitated with the hope of being re integrated into the society one day. Despite this positive development, the negative perception and treatment of discharged prisoners especially those who have passed through
the prison institution in Anambra state still persist.

Falobi (2009) stressed that over the years, there has been a radical shift in penal philosophy and management globally, from imprisonment for punishment to imprisonment for reformation, rehabilitation and reintegration. This new orientation emphasizes the identification of the reason for individual's anti social behaviour for treatment. The offender is then returned to the society not as a social misfit but reoriented and well equipped for productive life. To the contrary however, Ugwuoke (2010) observed that one of the fundamental issues facing prison administration in Nigeria today is lack of agreement as to what should be the aim of dealing with convicted offenders. According to him, in principle, Nigeria prison preaches reformation and rehabilitation, but in practice, it advocates for retributive punishment. He maintained that their punishment continues even after discharge from the prison due to public attitude towards them, as they are branded and treated as ex-convicts (stigma) which however is the greatest obstacle to a discharged prisoner’s re-integration. This stigma is emphasized by the legal or state law which so defines the discharged prisoner. They are prohibited from employment to certain positions and occupation of public offices. Therefore, the law as it exists today further stigmatizes the discharged prisoner and prevents him from integrating successfully.

In Nigeria, between 1990 and 2000, the awaiting trial persons constituted 70% of prison population. From the year 2000-2010, their population was fluctuating around 62% of a total prison population of about 44,000. Between 2010 and 2011, out of a total prison population of 40,447, a total 25,380 (63%) persons are awaiting trial. It was however noted that more than half of awaiting trial persons as captured by annual reports have been convicted more than once (Orakwe, 2011). Currently, (January –July, 2013) prison population stands at 53,815 inmates, out of which 37,429 inmates are awaiting trial while 16,387 inmates are convicted (Prison Quarterly Statistics, Abuja). Inferring from the above statistics, recidivism is high in Nigeria prison. It has been noted that Nigerian prison has proved dysfunctional, for rather than reconciling the offender with the social order and its laws, the prison has been a center for the dissemination and exchange of criminal influences and ideas, and has usually rendered the prison processed offenders unable to re-integrate into the society, (Ugwuoke, 2010).

Lack of funding appears to be the main reason for lack of materials and failure to replace worn-out equipments and machines used for reformation and rehabilitation (Uma, 2004). Lack of qualified personnel to operate these machines and engage the prisoners in meaningful course of training has also been identified as a major factor. At the end, the prisoner may be discharged without being reformed or rehabilitated. The government scheme of funding a prisoner upon discharge seems no longer a priority and this goes a long way in explaining the high rate of recidivism in the Nigerian prisons. This is because they still cannot find their footing in the society even after discharge. Therefore, society still perceives them as social misfits who should be avoided thereby making reintegration impossible.

The highly restricted nature of the prison yard to members of the public as expressed by Adigwe is also another factor, when he stated that the prison yard is a no-go-area, just as passing through its gate is highly restricted and nearly impossible for visitors. This most likely creates an unhealthy gap between the prisoner and his/her family and friends thereby widening the gap between the prisoner and the very people he/she is going home to after discharge (Adigwe as cited in Uma, 2004).

Ekpe & Mammah (1997) and Ugwuoke (2010) noted that government seems to have little or no provision for gainful employment opportunities or arrangement for proper rehabilitation of discharged prisoners in our society. The social stigma “ex-convict” attached to them seems to have contributed to their problem of resettlement in the society. It looks as if one automatically becomes an outcast and ostracized once one is discovered to have been in and out of prison. Many family members in the Igbo speaking states such as Enugu, Anambra and Imo disown their members and deny them some family rights just because they have been to prison and are therefore criminals (Ekpe & Mammah, 1997). This demonstration of rejection and neglect by both the families and the communities which are supposed to join hands and provide for the discharged prisoners until they are able to adjust to life in the free society, practically do not seem to save the situation.

It is noteworthy that the intended objective of rehabilitation of prisoners may not be achieved if their reintegration into the society fails. Unfortunately, the complementary follow-up after-care services of the prison for discharged prisoners which ensure smooth reentry into the society appears to be totally lacking, probably as a result of shortage of personnel or lack of professionals.

Lack of sincere effort in pursuing the legislative provisions (if any) for discharged prisoners in the area of community rehabilitation and reintegration programme, the legal stipulation that denies them employment and public appointments as well as the age long traditional apathy towards discharged prisoners are all encapsulated in the societal perception of them deeply rooted in cultural disposition. This study, therefore, seeks to examine the socio-cultural factors affecting the re-integration needs of discharged prisoners in Anambra state.
2. Rehabilitation and Reintegration challenges of Discharged Prisoners

Studies have shown far ranging implications of social and cultural factors to the reintegration of discharged prisoners in the society. Immerwahr and Johnson (2002) in their study of perception of discharged prisoners noted that prisoner’s reintegration into the community was a rarely discussed issue. Nobody seemed to care about what happened to prisoners that were released into the community – how they were treated and whether they would be able to rebuild their lives. The respondents believed that while prisoners had very little chance to learn useful skills in prison, they had ample opportunity to acquire and reinforce negative behaviors. The study painted a predictable and distressing picture of prisoners leaving prison with few new positive or marketable skills and many bad habits. They have no supervision and have a hard time finding a job including their inability to vote, and drive, etc contribute to their frustration and drive them back to crime. All of these, most of the respondents believed, lead to high rates of recidivism and a ‘virtual revolving door’, with people going back into prison almost as fast as they leave it.

Findings have also indicated that ex-offenders respond usually respond to the obvious socio-cultural implications of their new status which invariably attracts limited social and economic prospects, by placing themselves in tight-knit insular networks of family and close friends for both material and non-material benefits essential to daily life. Successful re-entry requires ex-offenders to seek help from individuals and organizations that have the capacity to provide assistance and/or employment opportunities. Such resources are usually external to the ex-offenders immediate insular network (ICJIA, 2007). It has been noted that, ex-offenders have expressed the desire to live more honestly," and to completely overhaul themselves, their lives, their kinship ties, and their views on the world if there are enabling laws and environmental conditions which obviously have eluded them.

Igbo and Ugwuoke in 2003 published the findings of a study they conducted with a sample of 200 prisoners in Enugu prison, southeast Nigeria, with the intention of finding out the factors contributing to high recidivism in Enugu prison. The findings revealed that there is actually a high recidivism rate in Enugu prison which the researchers attributed to poor environmental conditions of the prison and the negative attitude of the public towards ex-convicts as the two major factors.

Many prisoners actually come out of the prison truly repentant even without adequate reformation and rehabilitation. This is because deprivation of freedom and the harsh condition of the prison, that prisoners experience for as long as their sentences last actually instill the spirit of repentance and change of behaviour in them. It is the uncooperative and antagonistic attitude of the society together with the social stigma attached to “ex-convicts” that make their reintegration nearly impossible and therefore crime becomes their only source of solace and livelihood, (Ugwuoke, 2010).

Furthermore, the social, medical, emotional, and legal challenges ex-prisoners face stifle their willingness and ability to prepare adequately for reintegration and to refrain from recidivistic behaviors. Confronted with uncertainty, animosity, and a multitude of personal, social, and legal barriers, most prisoners reenter what they perceive to be an antagonistic society with a defeatist attitude, and if not addressed, this attitude will likely lead to reintegation failure (Osaze, 1996).

The importance of prisoner’s reintegration seems to have been ignored by policy makers and correctional administrators. High recidivism rate indicates that inmates are not prepared to come back to society as law-abiding citizens. This is because major issues about their resettlement is poorly coordinated and has failed to address social exclusion issues such as housing and addiction problems that could lead people back into crime (Berty, 2001). They are normally set free without proper arrangement for their rehabilitation and reintegration in the society. Instead the law itself denies them some civic rights as free citizens. They are not allowed to hold public offices as they are seen as being untrustworthy and unreliable. These, according to Osaze, are strong factors that militate against prisoners’ reintegration within the community. Although there are a number of non-governmental agencies who are trying to champion the course of released offenders, their efforts are quite insignificant. This has been found to be one of the reasons for the high incidence of recidivism in Nigeria.

In the opinion of Falobi (2009), after-care services will facilitate a responsive and understanding public attitude towards prison, its inmates, as well as the discharged prisoners. In Nigeria the reverse seem to be the case. Ekpe & Mammah, (1997), maintain that the discharged prisoner and all connected with him/her bear an odious stigma. It matters little that the discharged prisoner may have ended up in the prison for purposes that may not be connected with crime. Communities where discharged prisoners come from are guilty for rejecting them to the point that they do not give them a chance to participate in most of the rituals and ceremonial activities that go on in those communities because of the belief that they are defiled (Ekpe & Mammah, 1997).
3. Theoretical Orientation

Scholars have tried to provide an understanding of the relationship between some social and cultural factors and the reintegration challenges of discharged prisoners. One of such theoretical orientations is Rehabilitation theory. Hampton as cited in Brooks (2009) tries to justify essence of Rehabilitation theory by emphasizing treatment of discharged offenders for smoother and more profitable reintegration for their benefit and that of the society at large. This theory as noted by Brooks (2009) has the prevailing modern view that punishment should be reformative. The ultimate objective of punishment, in this view, is to bring about social tranquility. This theory argues that people are self-determinate beings whose ability to freely choose is frequently obstructed by various social conditions such as unequal access to social resources, poverty, unemployment, corrupt political system etc, which might lead to alcoholism, drug addiction, psychosis and crime etc. Therefore, the theory emphasizes treatment programmes that have the goals of making offenders law-abiding self-dependent member of the society. Treatment in this context can be defined as any and all efforts aimed at the remission of criminal behaviour and the social reintegration of the offender within the community. Thus, rehabilitation theory is all about the treatment and subsequent reintegration of the offender. It is motivated by humanitarian’s belief in the worth and dignity of human person and the willingness to expand the effort to re-claim the criminal for his own sake and not merely to protect the society, (Match & Jose, 1991). The humanitarians fostered the belief that punishment should be therapeutic rather than punitive in the interest of the offender and the society.

Another theoretical perspective is the Ecological Theory which supports the idea that changes in social environment have a notable influence on individuals. It is important to construct environments that support individuals post incarceration, so that we as a society can prevent multiple offenses and reduce recidivism rates and crime (Santrock, 2004). By inference, assumption can be made that availability of resources, treatment, and support services, societal attitudinal change etc, post-incarceration may indeed have a significant impact in declining the current rates of recidivism. Providing discharged prisoners with resources such as regular, stable employment will keep them out of ‘informal economies’ and ‘secondary labor markets’, where they are more vulnerable to re-offend. It would also be very beneficial to supply inmates with resources and education, provided by family educators that empower them to create healthier family and community environment. Ecological Theory supports the idea that resource availability would create a positive environmental support structure for post-incarcerated individuals and would be very effective in reducing recidivism rates.

To date, very few literature have actually addressed the issue of socio-cultural factors as they contribute to the rehabilitation and reintegration needs of discharged prisoners. This study is therefore an attempt to do this. In this study, attempt is made to fulfill the followig core objectives;

1. To ascertain how perception affects the rehabilitation and reintegration of discharged prisoners within their communities in Anambra State
2. To ascertain the effect of existing laws in the rehabilitation and reintegration of discharged prisoners within their communities in Anambra State
3. To examine to what extent cultural beliefs and practices have affected the rehabilitation and reintegration of discharged prisoners in Anambra State
4. To examine to what extent lack of adequate reformation and rehabilitation of prisoners within the prisons affect their reintegration in the society in Anambra State

4. Significance of the study

Apart from reducing crime rate and recidivism, the study will advocate for Practical and conscientious positive actions towards enhancing the conditions of the discharged prisoners in the Nigeria society especially in Anambra State. In practical terms, the findings of this study will bring to the fore the inadequacies, deficiencies, flaws and other problems inherent in the process of reformation and rehabilitation of prisoners in the Nigerian Prisons. This study will attempt an exposure of the estimated number of able bodied men and women that the society has lost and is in danger of losing into crime. The findings of this study will bring to the fore various ethno-cultural sentiments that inform the various ways people perceive discharged prisoners in Anambra state as well as emphasize the negative effects of cultural beliefs and practices on the reintegration needs of discharged prisoners. The government and other related organs in the society may by the result of this study design effective intervention programmes that will promote the smooth re-entry of discharged prisoners into the society in addition to helping to re-orientate family and societal members towards changing their views and attitude towards discharged prisoners.
Theoretically, the findings of this study will give a general idea of the number of discharged prisoners within the scope of the study areas who are in dire need of rehabilitation and re-integration and which the society is in danger of losing into crime. The study will make significant input in the body of knowledge on the socio-cultural factors that militate against the smooth reintegration of discharged prisoners in Anambra state. And finally, it will serve as a veritable source of reference for students and researchers who are interested to embark on further studies in the area of correctional studies.

5. Efforts towards Rehabilitation and Reintegration of Discharged Prisoners

As trend towards confining greater numbers of offenders in correctional facilities continues, increasing attention is being paid to what happens once they are released back into the community. Altshuler et al (1999) claim that “what happens” question frequently asked is in reference to two closely related issues. The first is whether released offenders will commit additional crimes, and thereby threaten public safety. The second is on the issue of what is being done to ensure that released offenders will not continue to offend. This is because there is so much uncertainty surrounding the community adjustment of offenders after release from seemingly inadequate institutional reformation and rehabilitation programmes. Some believe the best policy is prolonged incarceration. In fact, one of the motivations for prolonging incarceration, according to Altshuler et al (1999), is that confinement is regarded by some as the primary way to prevent offenders from committing additional crimes. Implicit in this view is the belief that incarceration is insufficient to prevent or deter offenders from committing crimes when released. Imprisonment has been found to be problematic for several reasons. First, it is expensive; two, there is lack of space and thirdly, it has not demonstrated measurable reduction in offender’s re-arrests after release.

All over Europe and America, a number of after-care initiatives have been developed and implemented to ease the transition problems of released offenders from the prison to the communities. Such programmes as noted by Altshulaa et al, (1999), Brown, Esbenson & Geis, (2001) are; Reintegrative Confinement, Structured Transition, Intensive After-care, and Community Correction which include, Halfway Houses, Furloughs, Probation and Parole. They are briefly discussed below.

Reintegrative Confinement: This practice is under the assumption that better outcomes are apparent or that the potential to positive impact is increased when highly structured and enhanced transition from prison facilities into the community is implemented in accordance with certain specifications. These specifications include; preparing confined offenders for re-entry into the specific communities in which they will return, making the necessary arrangements and linkages with agencies and individuals in the communities that relate to known risk and protective factors and ensuring delivery of required services and supervision.

Intensive After-Care: This programme, involves progressively increased responsibility and freedom for the released offenders within the community. The programme tries to facilitate offender’s community interaction and involvement in community activities including access to community support systems. The programme is designed to develop new resources, support systems and opportunities for released offenders in need. It monitors and tests the offenders at reasonable intervals. Intensive After-care community supervision to released prisoners has been found to result in their better performance and eventual resettlement within their communities.

Structured Transition: This refers to a programme that embodies other transition programmes which involve a well organized smooth reentry of a released prisoner into the community. Structured transition has to do with mental, physical and emotional preparation of the released offender to meet the challenges of the society to which he belongs. This programme is interested in better adjustment of the released prisoner within the community believing that when applied and followed conscientiously will have the potentials for transferring newly, learned skills and competencies to the very community in which they will reside.

Halfway Houses: Halfway houses are another variation of community corrections, providing living quarter for inmates, while allowing unsupervised access to the community for work, school or other activities that might enhance rehabilitation and community reintegration. According to him, residential status in such facilities sometimes intercedes between prison incarceration and release from custody (halfway out).

Furloughs This is another variety of community correction programme which involves an unescorted temporary release from prison to provide the prisoner an opportunity to prepare for release from custody. It is designed to facilitate, work, education, family visits and other activities in order to aid reintegration.

Probation: Probation is yet another reintegration programme targeted towards offenders. It entails serving a sentence in the community under specified conditions and with supervision by a probation officer. This is developed in an
attempt to reduce over-crowding and cost in the prison especially when the offence committed is minor. Typically, the conditions imposed on the probationer (offender) include requirements such as reporting to the probation officer at specified intervals, remaining within jurisdictional boundaries and refraining from consumption of alcoholic beverages etc.

Parole: Parole is the release of a convicted prisoner from prison to serve the remainder of the sentence in the community under supervision by a parole officer. This is also another community based correctional strategy that favours gradual and smooth reintegration of released offenders in their respective communities. By serving the remainder of his sentence within the community, he is monitored and helped with the community resources which will eventually aid faster readjustment and leading of a law-abiding life.

Unfortunately, in Nigeria the situation is not the same. While lip-service is paid to the existence of after-care services, provision for community based corrections is apparently not in existence. Probation and parole system which have been in practice for a very long time in most parts of Europe and America have not even been considered let alone tried, not to talk of establishing halfway houses or furloughs.

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The Relation Between Organizational Health and Organizational Commitment

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Abstract

Modern management understanding considers human resources to be one of the most important assets of the organizations. While a successful organization will care to choose this asset from among the most qualified candidates, it should also endeavor not to lose its existing employees. In the literature, organizational commitment expresses both the employees’ continuing to stay in the organization and their serving more willingly with the sense of belonging they feel to the organization they work in. The studies on how the concept of organization health, which is a holistic review of the concepts of employee welfare and organizational effectiveness, are very few in the literature. In this context, the matter of how organizational commitment, a critical variable for the organizations, is affected by organization health was examined in our study.

Keywords: Organizational Commitment, Organization Health

1. Introduction

Today, along with the influence of the globalization and increase of the competition, the perception of employee in the enterprises has differentiated. In this context, the enterprises adopt their employees as internal customers, and strive to eliminate the factors that could affect their efficiencies and quality of their business lives negatively. In doing this, the two aspects aimed at are the organizations’ not wishing to lose the qualified employees they have, and enabling the employees exhibit fully their knowledge, experiences and talents they have.

The topic of organization health and organizational commitment, the two concepts which the organizations can draw from to achieve these aims, constitute the main subject matter of this study. In this context, revealing effect of the organization health on the organizational commitment will demonstrate the importance of organization health for the enterprises.

Accordance with this understanding, we aim to explain the relationship these two concepts in question which are extremely important in terms of management with our work.

2. The Concept of Organization Health and Organizational Commitment

Many studies have been conducted on organization health and organizational commitment, and these two concepts have often been addressed separately. But this study sought to analyzed both concepts together.

2.1 The Concept of Organization Health

In the business management literature, the concepts such as organization culture, organizational stress, organizational commitment, business ethics and business satisfaction, etc. were concentrated on, but the necessary importance was
not attached to the concept of "organization health". This prevented the concept of organization health from being a known and recognized concept. Despite all these, when reviewed the concept of organization health, it is seen to incorporate all the concepts mentioned above and to provide a more holistic perspective (Lyden & Klingele, 2000: 3).

Although the concept of organization health was first used by Argyris in the 1950s (Tutar, 2010: 184), its foundations go back to the 1960s, when the specialists of human relations and behavioral sciences who strived to produce a solution to the question of how the employees should be treated (Gül, 2007: 321).

Accordingly, the concept of organizational health, first put forward in 1969 by Matthew Miles, is a simulation developed on the climate of schools (Miles, 1969: 376). The relations between the students, teachers and managers in school were defined by this simulation (Polatçı et al., 2008: 147).

The researchers attribute use of this concept in school to two reasons. The first is that school is regarded as a social system in which the managers, teachers and students take part. Thus, organization health should reflect the social interaction between these key representatives. The second is that organization health is necessary for healthy schools for the purpose of efficiency in performance of certain functions. While it is though that the concept of organization health cannot be used in other organizations due to these two reasons, it can be suggested that they may be applicable for other organization structures, too. Thus, this approach of Miles was adopted also in the field of organizational behavior, and was as an introduction to the studies in this topic (Köseoğlu & Karayormuk, 2009: 176-177).

In this context, Miles suggested a model for organization health analysis of schools, and defined the healthy organization as follows. “Healthy organization is one that does not survive only in the environment it exists, but also constantly develops in the long term, improves its coping and surviving skills.” (Miles, 1969: 378).

However, like many other management concepts, the concept of organization culture does not have a clear definition agreed on. Many researchers exhibited their own approaches in terms of both its definition and determination of its dimensions.

In general, organization health is expressed as the capabilities possessed by an organization to adapt to its environment successfully, create cooperation between its members and achieve its targets (Altun, 2001: 5). In more particular, organizational health, addressed as a concept that studies the employee welfare and organization effectiveness together (Arıç ve Polatçı, 2007: 140). According to another approach, organization health is defined in connection with the health and wellbeing of the employee (Köseoğlu & Karayormuk, 2009: 177).

According to another definition; it is such an organization that supports organizational success, environment, employees’ welfare and happiness with its authority structure, values system, norms, reward and sanction systems (Karagüzel, 2012: 4).

When looked at the definitions about organization health, it can be suggested that there is a focusing from the general to the private in the historical process. In other words, this concept that was suggested as a metaphor to assess general performance of an enterprise offers new insights by putting the employee health and welfare to the forefront. In this context, the literature on organization health can be suggested to have developed with three different approaches focused on enterprise performance, on employee health, and on both enterprise performance and employee health (Köseoğlu & Karayormuk, 2009: 177).

2.1.1 Dimensions of Organization Health

Since 1965, “organization health” has drawn the attention of particularly Matthew B. Miles and Wayne K. Hoy, and based on the researches, they have defined this concept, stressed its importance, and then developed dimensions to be able to measure the organization health, which they argued to be important for the organization success (Polatçı et al., 2008: 147).

2.1.1.1 The Organization Health Dimensions Developed by Miles

According to the model brought forward by Miles, dimensions of the organization health may be summarized as follows (Hoy & Feldman, 1987: 30, Buluç, 2008: 576-578, Karagüzel, 2012: 9-10).

- The Task Needs Dimension
  1. Objective-Focus: The objectives are easily understandable, acceptable and achievable by the organization members.
  2. Communication Adequacy: An in-organization communication system preventing misunderstandings is available. Thus, the employees access correct information and increase organization efficiency.
3. Optimal Power Uniformity: Distribution of the power within the organization is relatively uniform. They always think that those at lower levels can influence those at the immediate upper level.

- Survival Needs Dimension

4. Effective Use of Resources: Task distribution within the organization is done in the most effective way - neither less nor more than as required. There is a coherence between the demands and needs.

5. Organizational Commitment: The employees like the organization and want to stay there. They are influenced by the organization, and spend all their powers for unity of the organization.

6. Morale: There is employee welfare and team satisfaction in the organization in general.

- Growth and Development Needs Dimension

7. Innovativeness: The organization develops new procedures, sets new targets and constantly develops.

8. Autonomy: It is proactive to the organization. It shows several independent characteristics to the outer factors.

9. Adaptation: The organization has the skill of making the necessary changes in itself for growth and development.

10. Problem Solving Competency: The problems are solved with minimum energy. Problem solving mechanism is constantly supported and strengthened.

2.1.1.2 Organization Health Dimensions Developed by Hoy


1. Organizational Integrity: The organization's ensuring an integrity in its programs through its capability of adaptation to its environment.

2. Influence of the Organization Manager: The organization managers can influence decisions of the senior system they are subordinate to. The ability to convince their decision organs, having reputation and not being blocked by the hierarchic impediments are important factors of the organization managers.

3. Respect: This involves the friendly, supportive, overtly and sincerely behaviors exhibited by the organization managers to the employees. Such behaviors are important for increase of performances of the employees.

4. Work Order: This involves behaviors of the organization manager relating to his/her tasks and achievements. Expectations from the employees, performance standards and polices are clearly expressed by the organization manager.

5. Resource Support: This involves availability of sufficient machinery and equipment in the organizations, and procurement of additional resources when requested.

6. Morale: This is the sum of friendship, openness between the organization members, and the senses of excite and confidence they feel about the work they do. The employees treat each other tolerantly, they help each other, feel proud of the organization they work in, and completing the works make them happy.

7. Importance of the work: This is about the organizations' seeking for work excellence. Work is started by setting high but achievable targets for the employees, and production activities are carried out in a serious and orderly fashion.

It is possible to group these dimensions as organization health dimensions at the institutional, managerial and technical level. Accordingly, Institutional Level consists of institutional integrity dimension, Managerial Level consists of the dimensions of work order, respect, influence of the organization manager and resource support, and Technical Level consists of the levels of morale and importance of the work (Polatci et al., 2008: 149).

2.1.1.3 Organization Health Dimensions Developed by World Health Organization

With a more general classification in regard to the dimensions of organization health, the World Health Organization (WHO) examines the organization health in 4 dimensions. These are as follows (Cooper & Williams, 1994: 8, Ardiç & Polatci, 2007: 146):

1. Environmental Health: This involves the work area factors such as physical environment of the workplace, noise, heat, light, dangerous substances and machinery.

2. Physical Health: This involves the physical health of the employees in the organization, illness, injury, and activities such as medicine treatment.
3. Psychological Health: This involves self-confidence of the employees, their stress, depression, anxiety states, and behavioral styles.

4. Social Health: This involves friendships in the workplace, social support, workplace relations, and factors outside business.

According to the World Health Organization, there are not precise lines between these factors, and there are connections among these four dimensions. According to this perspective, only physical and spiritual health of the employees is addressed, and the managerial and organizational output dimensions are not included (Altun, 2001: 44).

2.1.2 Measuring Organization Health

People usually do not know the value of their health and pay the necessary attention to their health until they get sick. Likewise, in the organization management, methods of doing business, policies and practices are not paid attention to until a warning is received. Managers usually do not measure organization health until they encounter a crisis. However, in order to achieve and sustain organizational health, a healthy organization structure should be formed beginning from establishment of the organization, measures should be taken against the problems that may occur, and organization health should be measured periodically (Ardıç & Polatci, 2007: 138).

The aim of measuring health of the organizations is not only to reveal the situation, but also to prepare improvement plans based on the obtained results. The organization’s being healthy or unhealthy is an evidence for need of change and innovation. The essential thing is determining what causes the unhealthy organization structure. Briefly, measurements set the conceptual basics in identification and solution of the problems. The strengths and weaknesses of the organization as well as the opportunities and threats it has are revealed through measurement of organization health. Thus, it is strived to derive more resources from the strengths, and to improve and strengthen the weaknesses (Polatci et al., 2008: 146).

2.1.3 Characteristics of Healthy and Unhealthy Organizations

It is required to know the characteristics of healthy and unhealthy organization so as to derive the desired benefit from organizational health. In the light of these characteristics, the organization should be analyzed, the revealed data should be interpreted, and solution of the problems leading to the unhealthy structure should be ensured (Polatci et al., 2008: 149).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Healthy Organizations</th>
<th>Unhealthy Organizations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open to innovation and improvement</td>
<td>Not open to innovation and improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its long term effectiveness is high</td>
<td>Its long term effectiveness is low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees are ensured to participate in the decisions</td>
<td>Employees apply the decisions made by top management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational commitment is developed</td>
<td>Organizational commitment is not developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible to the environment and employees</td>
<td>Not responsible to the environment and employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive, takes preventive measures</td>
<td>Reactive, corrective actions are taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work stress is low</td>
<td>Work stress is high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work satisfaction and workplace peace is high</td>
<td>Work satisfaction and workplace peace is low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance is attached to employees</td>
<td>Importance is not attached to employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of absences and quits is little</td>
<td>Number of absences and quits is big</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication between the individuals and top management is strong</td>
<td>Communication between the individuals and top management is weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker safety is present, work accidents are scarcely encountered</td>
<td>Worker safety is not present, work accidents are frequently encountered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees work with high motivation and exhibit high performance</td>
<td>Employees work with low motivation and exhibit low performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable internal and external environmental conditions cannot damage the organization</td>
<td>Unfavorable internal and external environmental conditions can damage the organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team spirit is developed, employees act with the sense of “us”</td>
<td>Team spirit is not developed, employees act towards their personal interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees feel themselves safe in the organization</td>
<td>Employees do not feel themselves safe in the organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information flow is robust and timely</td>
<td>Robust and timely information flow is unavailable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies are put into practice successfully</td>
<td>Incapable to put strategies into practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An open, trust-focused and encouraging organization culture is present</td>
<td>A closed, retributive and unfair organization culture is present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems are intervened by digging into their causes</td>
<td>Evidences of the problem are addressed, the core cause cannot be identified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization is efficient and effective</td>
<td>The organization is not efficient and effective</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Karagüzel, 2012: 21
In conclusion, characteristics of healthy organizations may be briefly listed as follows (Cicchelli, 1975):

- Objectives and responsibilities are clearly set,
- Systematic problem solving and evaluation is performed,
- A constructive and open-to-change organization spirit is present,
- The energy required for growth and development and the feedback system are available.

2.1.4 What to do to enhance Organization Health

As in the human organism, healthy structure is hereditary in most of the organizations (Aguire et al., 2005:1). However, a study revealed that each organization can use specific methods and tools to enhance organization health. Several arrangements are required for changing the organization structure and being able to form a healthy organization structure (Vasie and Lucas, 2001: 481).

According to Miles, the following five approaches are very important for increasing the organization health (Miles, 1969: 376):

- Supporting personal development
- Placing importance on communication
- Strengthening information flow
- Establishing an open-to-change organization culture
- Specialist support

2.2 The Concept of Organizational Commitment

Increase of attention of the different disciplines such as organizational behavior, organizational psychology and social psychology to the topic of organizational commitment, and bringing by the researchers from these fields their own perspectives to the topic make it difficult to understand the concept of organizational commitment. In this respect, Morrow states that more than twenty five different definitions about organizational commitment are present in the literature (Gül, 2003: 74). Although there is a consensus upon the fact that commitment to the organization is a direct relationship between the employee and the organization, there are dissents about structure and formation of this relationship. This dissent is reflected on the definition of the concept of organizational commitment, and results in emergence of different definitions. Some definitions concerning organizational commitment are given below (Meyer&Herscovitch, 2001: 302; İnce&Gül, 2005: 3; Balay, 2000: 14-16; İlsev, 1997: 5; Bildiren, 2001: 38; Karaca, 2001: 48; www.insankaynaklari.com, www.isguc.org);

- One of the first definitions in the topic of organizational commitment was made by Grusky in 1966. According the said author, organizational commitment is the "strength of bond of the individual to the organization".
- As a result of the study conducted in 1979 by Mowdey, Steers and Porter, they defined the organizational commitment as an affective bond between the employee and the enterprise. According to them, organizational commitment is the relative strength of the individual’s identification with and participation in a given organization.
- According to Meyer and Allen, organizational commitment expresses the psychological approach of the employee to the organization, and is a psychological state reflecting the relationship between the employee and the organization, leading to the decision of continuing the organization membership.
- According to Rietzer and Trice, it is a psychological phenomenon based on the level of meaningfulness of the organization according to the individual.
- According to Hall, Schneider and Nygren, it is the process where the organization and the individual to integrate and become coherent over time.
- According to Buchanan, organizational commitment is a whole consisting of the elements of identification with the organization, adopting the work and loyalty to the organization. Apart from the objectives and values of the organization, role of the individual determined on the basis of these objectives and values and the interest-based value, it is commitment to the organization itself in a partisan and emotional manner.
- It is the strength of the individual’s identification with the organization and participation in the organization. In other words, organizational commitment is the strength of the individuals' identifying himself/herself with and being nested within the organization. Identification with the organization involves the dimension of loyalty that
incorporates sharing the objectives with other organization members, the sense of belonging to the organization, and supporting the objectives and policies of the organization.

In the light of the definitions above, organizational commitment may, in general, be summarized as phenomenon characterized with three factors. The said factors may be listed as (Steers&Porter, 1983: 443, Yалчын&цлпк, 2005: 397, www.insankaynaklari.com, цнал, 1999: 9; Цетьн, 2004:90);

• Accepting and believing in the objectives and values of the organization,
• Willing to strive for benefit of the organization and continuous development, and finally,
• Being enthusiastic to remain as part of the organizational structure.

An organization having employees with high organizational commitment implies that it has a strong organizational structure. This results in increase of will of being part of this culture for the new starting employees and the responsibility of fulfilling organizational expectations. When this is achieved, the employees accept, adopt the organizational culture, and make it part of their values. Organizational culture affects the organizational commitment by serving as a bridge for the employees between their priorities and the organization’s objectives. It supports formation or reinforcement of the organizational commitment by ensuring development of a sense of identity and encouraging participation in the organizational objectives among the employees (Гёл, 2003: 75).

2.2.1 Organizational Commitment Classifications

While the initial studies on organizational commitment describe organizational commitment as a one-dimensional structure reflecting internalization of the organizational values, Meyer and Allen revealed that organizational commitment had three different elements (Coleman et al., 1999: 996). The said elements which are affective, continuance and normative commitment can be explained as follows (Цнчё&Гёл, 2005: 39):

• Affective Commitment: Affective commitment of the employee to the organization reflects integration with the organization. Affective commitment can be suggested to involve acceptance by the employees of the organizational objectives and values, and their making extreme effort for the benefit of the organization (Гёл, 2002: 45).

Individuals with a high affective commitment stay in the organization “because they want to”, and are desirous to make great effort for the interests of the organization. Hence, it is the type of commitment which is most desired to take place in the organizations and desired to be instilled to the employees (Гёлгьу&Цимрн, 2004: 91).

• Continuance Commitment: In the literature, this type of commitment is also referred to as rational commitment and perceived cost. Continuance commitment means being aware of the costs to be entailed by quitting the organizations.

• In continuance commitment, the senses are thought to play a very little role in commitment to the organization. Continuance commitment is the sense of continuing the organization membership since it is thought that cost of quitting the organization would be high (Цлсев, 1997: 22).

• Normative Commitment: In 1990, Meyer and Allen developed the three dimensional organizational commitment model by adding the dimensions “normative” or “ethical” as suggested by Weiner and Vardi and developed by Weiner to the affective and continuance commitment.

Normative commitment shows faith of the employees concerning the responsibility felt by them to their organizations. As normative commitment has developed as a result of the employee’s perceiving his/her showing commitment to his/her organization as a duty and social responsibility and thinking that commitment to the organization is right, it represents a dimension that is different from the other two types of commitment (Гёл, 2002: 45).

Normative or ethical commitment differs from affective commitment in that the individual regards working in the organization as a duty for himself/herself and feels that showing commitment to the organization is “right”, and from the continuance commitment in that it not affected by calculation of the losses to result from quitting the organization (Солмуш, 2004: 215).

The common point between all the three types of commitment is existence of a bond between the individual and the organization that reduces the likelihood of quitting the organization. Namely, in all these three types of commitment, the employees continue to stay in the organization. However, in the first, the motive of staying in the organization is based on willingness, in the second, on necessity, and in the third, on obligation (Баляй, 2000: 72).
2.2.2 Factors Influencing Organizational Commitment and Their Consequences

Feeling commitment to the organization by the employees brings favorable results for the organization by increasing their work efficiencies. Hence, an organization’s being aware of the factors that can increase or reduce commitment of the employees to the organization confronts us as an important factor (Balay, 2000; Çetin, 2004: 99). This is clearly shown in the following figure.

Figure 1. Factors Influencing Organizational Commitment and Their Consequences

Source: Adapted from Suliman, 2002: 170.

3. Conclusion

In an environment where competition is increasingly exacerbating, it has become highly important for the organization managements to manage the employees’ attitudes and behaviors regarding work in a proper and healthy manner. Many researches setting out from this point express that a coherent climate in the organization is an important factor of advantage for the organizations to acquire the competition advantage. Formation of the said organization climate will increase commitment of the employees to the organization. Emergence of a desired organization climate can only be achieved by formation of a healthy organization structure. In this context, organization health promises to the organization management commitment of the employees to the organization and performance increase of the employees by creating a desired working environment.

Organization health must be enhanced in order to retain the human resources, which are an extremely important value for the employers. The managers should make efforts towards enhancing organization health of the enterprises to increase commitment of the employees and keeping the personnel turnover rate low. Formation of such organizations which have ensured coherence with their environment, have effective managers, where employees are respected, roles have been clearly set, access to the necessary resources is easy, employees have high morale, and success is valued, will ensure that the employees have a favorable organizational commitment that is created through the employees’ genuine desires and adoption of the organization’s targets.

Moreover, forming and developing the organizational health reduces the organization costs while positively influencing many factors such as organization effectiveness, work satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational performance and employee health. It can be suggested that, since, by this way, both effectiveness and efficiency increases, and the costs incurred as result of the activities decrease, healthy organizations have competition advantage compared to unhealthy organizations.

In conclusion, although the necessary importance has not been attached to the concept of organization health to date, organization health is more important than ever particularly in today’s business life, and confronts us as a topic that
needs to be investigated. A healthy organization structure must be established at the individual and organizational level for an effective organization structure.

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Assessing Socio-Cultural Factors Affecting in Protection of Forests  
(Case study: Sari, Iran)

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions of forestry and rang department specialists in Sari Township regarding effective factors in protection of forests. The population of this study included 230 forest specialists in Sari Township. A stratified random sample of 140 specialists was selected. The research design used for this study utilized descriptive survey research methodology. A questionnaire was developed to assess the effective factors in protection of forests. Major conclusions were that An adequate number of protection personnel are needed that protect forests; that Also should be provided vehicles for protection personnel; that Monitoring on the cooperatives and other company which practice in ground of forest is also necessary and important in forest protection and conservation. Therefore necessary that we work on the effective factors that impact on the protection of forests.

1. Introduction

There are an estimated 3870 million hectares of forest worldwide, of which almost 95 percent are natural forest and 5 percent are forest plantations also forest cover about 30 percent of the earth’s land area (FAO, 2001).

Tropical deforestation and degradation of forests in many parts of the world are negatively affecting the availability of forest goods and services. While forest area in developed countries has stabilized and is slightly increasing overall, deforestation has continued in developing countries. The estimated net annual change in forest area worldwide during the past decade was –9.4 million hectares; representing the difference between the estimated annual rates of deforestation of 14.6 million hectares and the estimated annual rate of forest area increase of 5.2 million hectares (FAO, 2001).

The causes of forest degradation are varied. Some, such as overexploitation of forest products, can be avoided or minimized by sound forest planning and management, whereas the effects of others, such as natural disasters, can be mitigated by contingency planning. Factors responsible for this loss are the conversion of forestland to produce food for a burgeoning world population, especially in developing countries (FAO, 1993; Swanson, 1997), as well as logging for timber and fuel. These are legitimate human needs and uses of forestland. But, lack of knowledge, and legal and social systems often encourage excessive, non-sustainable land clearing resulting in long-term adverse social and environmental impacts (Jones, 1987).

The forestry situation in Iran is no different than other vulnerable areas in the world. There are an estimated 12 millions hectares of forest in Iran, while there are 18 millions hectares forest in 1950. At present only %11 of this forests are commercial. Statistics show that in one year decrease about 12245 hectares forest in Iran (Anonymous, 2001).

This forest threatened by unsound forest management activities including inappropriate productivity (too much) by government companies private sector and cooperative, intensive agricultural operations, indiscriminate forest activities and timber use, Lack of vehicles for foresters, Smuggling of wood, Lack of near cooperation between forest sector with judicial and disciplinary power, Lack of adequate protection personnel, Changing forestlands to agricultural fields, Presence of livestock in forests, Continuous changes in policies, legislation and programs, Lack of education level among personnel, Threat of pests and diseases to plantations, Making roads inside forests, Lack of participation by forest dwellers in protection of forests, Lack of politicians serious belief on the protection of forest, cutting trees by forest dwellers, changing forestlands to agricultural fields, happening of fire and other factors (Anonymous, 1996; Khosrowshahi and Ghasvami, 1994; Farhadian, 1998; Abedi, 2002).

The forest and Range Organization (FRO) of Iran and its Research Institute are responsible for the management of forests. An office of extension and training was established in the FRO in 1990 to educate and work with these managers.
and with target audiences of forest landowners and forest dwellers in supporting and participating in forestry. Farhadian (1998) studied the FRO’s mission and recommended that a strong linkage should be forget between the Office of Extension and Training and the Research Institute. He emphasized that a key responsibility of managers and stuff of the FRO was providing for the participation of people of the planning and implementation of forestry development.

According FAO (1993), most forests in the developing world are on land on which indigenous groups and rural communities depend for their livelihood. Therefore, it is essential that they be involved in forest management programs. In a similar vein, Sharma (1992) emphasized that attitude of people influence how they manage and use forests. In a Report of the Islamic Republic of Iran on Forestry Development and Key Events presented to the Twelfth Session of the Near East Forestry Commission, it was stated that while forests in different regions of the country important, those of the Caspian Sea Region (Mazandaran and Gilan provinces) are the only economically productive forests in Iran. Mazandaran provinces include Sari and noshahr Township. Sari Township has important role in Iran economic that produces 50% forest products of Iran. There are a estimated 643793 hectares of forest in Sari Township and there are 1186145 forest dwellers and 1628700 livestock in this region. Considering this situation, a study of forestry and range department specialists in Sari Township was considered worthwhile (Anonymous, 2002).

2. Purpose of the paper

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions of forestry and range department specialists in Sari Township regarding effective factors in protection of forests. Specific objective of the study were to:

1. Determine factors perceived by forestry and range department specialists to be effective in Protection of forest.
2. Determine factors perceived by forestry and range department specialists that contribute deforestation.

3. Population

The population of this study included 230 forest specialists in Sari Township. A stratified random sample of 140 specialists was selected.

4. Research Design and Data Analysis

The research design used for this study utilized descriptive survey research methodology. A questionnaire was developed to assess the effective factors in protection of forests. The questionnaire covered two areas: This areas including effective factors in protection of forests, effective factors in deforestation of forests. In this two areas a 5-point likert-type scale was used to assess expert’s self-perceived knowledge. Content and face validity was determined by faculty and graduate students in the department of agricultural extension and education at Tarbiat Modarres University. The instrument was pilot tested with 10 forestry specialists in the forestry and range organization under ministry of agriculture two weeks prior to the study, and needed modifications were made. cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients for sections 1-3 of the instrument ranged 0.72 to 0.93.

5. Results

Objective1

Table 1 shoes the rank important of 21 factors that are effective in Protection of forest as perceived by specialists. The top three factors that were effective in protection of forests were: near cooperation between forest sector with judicial and disciplinary power, promoting technical knowledge of foresters and improving incomplete laws. Delegation the responsibility of forest protection and preservation to cooperatives, Delegation the responsibility of forest protection and preservation to private sector and implementation of forestry project by the government were considered to be the least important factors.
Table 1: Rank of factors effective in protection of forests as perceived by specialists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Near cooperation between forest sector with judicial and disciplinary power</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Promoting technical knowledge of forest dwellers</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Improving incomplete laws</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Exit of livestock from forests</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Controlling factories that relate to wood</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Resting protection of natural resource as important element in huge programming</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Careful implementation of laws that is connected to aggression punishment</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Establishing special court of justice about aggression of forest</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Approving necessary laws</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Establishing armed units for protection of forest</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Delegating authority about assessing wood factories from province judicial power to city</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Using of disciplinary power</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Delegating authority to personnel that work in forestry and range organization/township about assessing wood factories</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Establishing air control network</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Establishing special staff for extinguishing of fire</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Diffusion of information on natural resource benefits to youth, especially students</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Determining appropriate limit for wood factories</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Adoption of plans with forest dwellers needs</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Establishing productivity factories by using forest inputs in creating jobs</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Delegation the responsibility of forest protection and preservation to private sector</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Delegation the responsibility of forest protection and preservation to cooperatives</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

likert-type scale: 1= absolutely opposite    2= opposite    3= rather agree    4= agree    5= absolutely agree

Objective 2

Table 2 shoes the rank important of 13 factors that important contributors to deforestation as perceived by specialists. The top three factors that important contributors to deforestation were lack of vehicles for foresters, inappropriate productivity (too much) from forest by cooperatives and smuggling of wood. Happening of flood, lack of careful programming for productivity of forests and lack of politician’s serious belief on the protection of forests were considered to be the least important factors.

Table 2: Rank of factors contributing to deforestation as perceived by specialists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lack of vehicles for foresters</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Inappropriate productivity (too much) from forest by cooperatives</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Smuggling of wood</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lack of near cooperation between forest sector with judicial and disciplinary power</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Lack of mobilizing forestry departments to firefighting stations</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Lack of special army units for protection of forests</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Lack of participation by forest dwellers in protection of forests</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Lack of understanding of the value of forest among people</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Inappropriate productivity (too much) from forest by government companies</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Population increase and the need for more productivity from forests</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Lack of politicians serious belief on the protection of forest</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Lack of careful programming for productivity of forests</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Happening of flood</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

likert-type scale: 1= absolutely opposite    2= opposite    3= rather agree    4= agree    5= absolutely agree
6. Conclusion

An adequate number of protection personnel are needed that protect forests. Also should be provided vehicles for protection personnel. This conclusion is supported by the finding that specialists viewed lack of vehicle foresters and lack of adequate protection personnel. Assessing human power in Sari Township showed that there are in lieu of 3000 hectares just one forest specialist. Also there are in this region about 363 protection personnel which this amount contain 29% total of specialists in sari. region in other words there are in lieu of 1770 hectares forests just one protection personnel.

Monitoring on the cooperatives and other company which practice in ground of forest is also necessary and important in forest protection and conservation. This conclusion is supported by the finding that specialists felt that an effective factor which contributes deforestation of forests is to inappropriate productivity (too much) from forest by cooperatives.

Legal and organizational considerations are impacting forest protection and conservation. This conclusion is supported by the finding that specialists perceived that making foresters live in the forest area, and lack of near cooperation between forest sector with judicial and disciplinary power would be effective measures in protecting forests.

References
